The Impact of Read-Aloud Accommodations of Fourth- and Fifth-Grade Elementary Students With and Without Learning Impairment: A Descriptive Case Study

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Concordia University–Portland
College of Education
Doctorate of Education Program

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The Impact of Read-Aloud Accommodations of Fourth- and Fifth-Grade Elementary Students With and Without Learning Impairment:

A Descriptive Case Study

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Concordia University–Portland

College of Education

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the College of Education in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education in Transformational Leadership

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Abstract

Existing research studies had analyzed the perceptions of read-aloud accommodations (RAAs) on both students with learning impairment and students without learning impairment at the elementary level; however, the results were mixed. RAAs had been recommended as an aid to help eliminate difficulties faced by students with learning impairments mainly in writing and reading comprehension. With the provisions of RAAs in the classroom as mandated by NCLB, IDEA, and IDEIA, it was beneficial for students with learning impairment (SWLIs) and students without learning impairment (SWOLIs). The purpose of the present qualitative case study was to analyze and understand the different perception of the participants on the impact of RAAs for fourth- and fifth-grade students. The application of the qualitative method using a descriptive case study design was conducted to investigate the validity and credibility of each participant’s knowledge and understanding of the impact of RAAs on both SWLIs and SWOLIs. This was done by studying the content of each of the participant’s responses to the interviews and questionnaires given. In this study, the data was collected from the triangulation of different data sources such as interviews, questionnaires, and field notes. This study used Yin’s model (2011) of thematic analysis. The findings were collected from the 21 participants who participated in the study. A total of five themes and 12 sub-themes emerged after analyzing the coded data. Findings revealed that all participants had the same perception on all of the research questions and the purpose of this study based on the themes emerged in the results of the triangulation of data from interviews, questionnaires, and field notes. Results from this study demonstrated the impact of participants’ knowledge and understanding of RAAs to students they served.

Keywords: read-aloud accommodations, reading reporting grade, reading state-test result, behavior, students with learning impairment, students without learning impairment, triangulation, thematic analysis
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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband Rey A. Pangatungan and my three beautiful children Marianne Stacey, Samantha Ysabel, and Weinand Blaise. You all are the source of my strength and inspiration to achieve and fulfill my ultimate dream of becoming a Doctor of Education. I share this success with all of you! Also, I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my beloved mother Adelaida Pacaldo Torregosa and to all my siblings who are always there to support me along the way since the beginning of my doctoral journey.

To God be the glory!
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Chapter 1: Introduction

Introduction to the Problem

Despite the U.S. government’s effort to boost the education system for students in America, millions of students continue to struggle in academics most especially in reading. Signed into law in December of 2010, the federal Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), reauthorized the 50-year old Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 and revised many provisions of what was known as the No Child Left Behind Act (Tennessee Department of Education, n. d.). The ESSA, the current national education law of the United States, pledges longstanding commitment to providing equal opportunity for all students. Louisiana Department of Education (2017) stated that ESSA mandates allowed the state of Louisiana the setting for this study, with the opportunity to collaborate with all stakeholders to create an improved K-12 education system with equal opportunity for all students. According to the Louisiana Believes (2017),

Under federal law, the State Education Agency is responsible for creating and submitting a plan that complies with ESSA and with applicable laws and rules in Louisiana. The Department of Education thus creates the program, but only BESE establishes the rules, regulations, and policies that make the plan effective. Louisiana received its approval of its program from US Department of Education to implement ESSA on August 2017. In October 2017, BESE incorporated Louisiana’s ESSA plan into state policies. (p. 1)

Thurlow, Wu, Lazarus, and Ysseldyke (2016) stated that the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 2001 and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) requires the inclusion of all students, including students with disabilities, in state accountability systems. States typically looked at performance over time by comparing the test scores of students in specific grades across several years. Such comparative approaches produced inaccurate pictures of
achievement gaps because different students are enrolled in the particular classes each year. Klein (2016) stated that the “new ESSA rolls back much of the federal government's significant footprint in education policy, on everything from testing and teacher quality to low-performing schools and it gives new leeway to states in calling the shots” (p. 1).

Klein (2016) further stated that the goal for the replacement of NCLB to ESSA is to set an expectation that all groups (both students with and without learning impairment) that are furthest behind with reading and reading comprehension skills will be able to close gaps in achievement and graduation rates. With closing the gaps in academic achievement most especially in reading and reading comprehension skills, students’ poor comprehension continued to be behind every year. Due to this, ESSA mandated every state to report and submit an accountability plan. States can pick their own goals, both a big long-term goal and smaller, interim goals. These goals must address proficiency on tests, English-language proficiency, and graduation rates. However, the new ESSA implementation will not be as easy as it sounds because thousands of students in every grade level had deficits in academic content most especially in reading comprehension.

Understanding the outcome of students’ academic situations, a qualitative case study provided the researcher with the tools to study the approach within the frameworks of studying participants’ responses to interviews and questions. The researcher wanted to understand the aspects of the participants’ responses and its underlying meaning to enable to generate different emergent themes and sub-themes through various data sources.

Further, if these children continued to have reading deficits, they will fall into the category of learning impaired. Students with learning impairment were defined as:

a disorder in one or more of the fundamental psychological processes involved in understanding or in using spoken or written language, which may manifest itself in
an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell or to do mathematical calculations. (The Kurtz Center, 2012, p. 1)

Students with learning impairment (SWLI) were no different than students who did not have “a learning impairment.” However, students categorized as learning impaired were treated no different than the students who were not classified as learning impaired except that SWLIs had an Individualized Education Plan (IEP) that teachers had to follow. That was, both SWLIs and students without learning impairment (SWOLIs) were placed in the same classroom where teachers had the appropriate training to teach students with special needs (Akalin, Demir, Sucuoglu, Bakkaloglu, & Iscen, 2014). One of the benefits for SWLIs was that they were provided with assistance from both general and special education teachers, who implemented various accommodations based on their experience and dependent to their previous knowledge and understanding of students’ needs (Misoka, 2017). One possible way for students with learning impairment (SWLI) to be academically successful was to have read-aloud accommodations (RAAs) included on their Individualized Education Plan (IEP), yet RAAs seems not to be the best solution to the problem even though it was available to the students any time. As Li (2014) stated, RAA was used by teachers to remove barriers faced by SWLIs mainly in reading comprehension.

The No Child Left Behind (NCLB), the 2001 reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), created the first mandatory national accountability structure that held schools and districts responsible for student achievement (Polikoff, McEachin, Wrabel, & Duque (2014). However, if a student failed to understand the reading content or lesson, the issue might remain unsolved about the student’s poor reading performance, reading grade, unsatisfactory reading state testing result, and poor classroom behavior. Further, the overall behavior referred to the general behavior of both SWLIs and SWOLIs in the regular education classroom and how their behavior impedes learning in the classroom despite the accommodations provided by the regular
education or special education teachers. The overall behavior could refer to minor or major behavior issues that teachers could potentially remove the students from the classroom and refers him or her to the discipline office. Also, “Reading tests and quizzes aloud is considered a presentation accommodation. Reading the content aloud removes variance due to a reading performance from the assessment” (Spiel et al., 2016, p. 102).

However, despite the millions of federal and state dollars being spent to help aid in improving education, the results did not produce a better reading performance in the low and middle-class children, and the gap between great and poor students reading skills continues to grow and run in a parallel direction. Many research-based studies and strategies have been taken into consideration to resolve the gap of reading deficits of all students (Conley, 2014; Peterson, 2014). New curricula and advanced educational planning had been implemented throughout the states to alleviate the reading problem of students. For instance, the Common Core State Standards allowed educators to share a common language about what they wanted students to learn, and they enabled development of high-quality materials that addressed the standards in which the development of the new rules was guided with one goal in mind: to prepare students for college and careers (Conley, 2014). The nationwide academic performance of students continued to drop. Peterson (2014) reported that a majority of fourth graders in the United States are still not reading proficiently and the data shows that 80% of lower-income fourth graders and 66% of all children are not reading at grade level at the start of fourth grade (p. 1). Tankerlsey (2017) stated, “Sometimes students who made adequate progress in the early grades began to struggle again around the beginning of 4th grade—what teachers referred to as “the 4th-grade slump” (p. 2).
Teachers had been challenged daily to help these students succeed and reach their potential. To address the associated barriers to learning across subject areas, teachers provided many SWLIs read-aloud accommodations (RAAs) meaning that written material was read aloud by an assistant or technological device. However, limited information existed on the extent to which students received and benefited from these accommodations during instruction, which may help determine whether they derived benefits from them during testing. Although the existing research on test accommodations provided some appropriate context for understanding accommodation impacted more broadly, more information on the use and impact of these accommodations during instruction was needed to understand the extent to which RAAs were helpful to students' academic development (Witmer, Cook, Heather, & Clinton, 2015).

**Background, Context, History, and Conceptual Framework for the Problem**

Reading is a critical component of academic success. Children who read well were among those who were considered the best in the classroom whereas those who cannot understand even a simple word were considered poor readers or illiterate. Titus (2017) stated that “The capability to read was crucial…the better a child can read, the easier it would be for them to learn what they need in school” (p. 1). Further, Titus (2017) assumed that teaching a child a single syllable word once, it is automatic for the child to hear the sound. However, this assumption was not valid as each child learns at a different pace and time.

According to Ahmadi, Ismail, and Abdullah (2013), students’ reading text should improve to critical awareness level of understanding of the information presented to them. More so, if students had the option to read within their choice of topic, they can more easily relate and comprehend. However, this was not the case in the classroom. Students took standardized passages and writing tasks, which produced poor results due to reading comprehension skill deficits. Further, it was not ideal for students, nor it will not be possible for them to attain these
standards if they are spending too much time on phonics and word-level instruction in the early grades (National Education Association, 2017). The reading instruction today is guided by the new Common Core State Standards (CCSS) policy which has lesser, broader, and more complex standards than the old CCSS that focused on grade-level goals rather than enabling skills (NEA, 2017). With this new policy of CCSS, many of our children may continue to struggle in reading and lag behind their peers because of poor phonics and phonemic awareness, two critical features that when mastered help boost reading comprehension.

Gough and Tunmer (1986) presented the Simple View of the Reading Framework as one of the key components to boost comprehension. According to this model, reading ability (that is, reading comprehension) can be broken down into two components: decoding and language comprehension. It may be presented as a formula R = D × C, where reading (R) is the product of decoding (D) and comprehension (C). Each variable ranged from 0 (inability) to 1 (perfection) (Gough & Tunmer, 1986). According to the Simple View of Reading, the components were independent of each other. Each component was necessary for successful reading, but neither component was sufficient in itself (Gustafson, Samuelsson, Johansson, & Wallmann, 2013). Gustafson et al. (2013) revealed their findings that decoding and comprehension described less of the modification in their reading ability for students with reading problems than for children with average reading ability.

Researchers had identified additional frameworks that helped increase the understanding of the issue of poor reading skills from both types of students that hinder learning and success in the classroom in both SWLIs and SWOLIs. Everything associated with maximizing the potentials of students in academic engagement, achievement, and performance, can be attributed to the work of Lev Vygotsky (Gindis, 1999). He was a Russian psychologist and social constructivist; he presented the theory of motivation and the zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Gindis, 1999).
Chew and Ding (2014) stated that ZPD is Vygotsky’s term for a simple educational principle, which is that individuals’ performances are enhanced when they are aided by knowledgeable individuals when compared to working independently. ZPD is defined as the difference between a learner’s level of ability unaided and level of ability with assistance from an educator or a more capable mentor or peer which boost student’s success (Chew & Ding, 2014). Teachers could maximize the use of ZPD by using it as a strategic tool in helping students remain motivated toward a given activity. With the right motivation, every learner would be able to do the task beyond their comfort zone to reach their personal goals. Educators and parents needed to teach students about determined practice and helped them adopt the necessary mechanisms to reach just beyond their current grasps.

Besides Common Core State Standards policy, two other measures the government presented that were designed to bridge the achievement gap among students across the U. S. students were the NCLB and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). The goal of NCLB was to ensure that students develop proficiency in their grade level standards on the academic subjects such as reading and math by the year 2014 (Klein, 2015). Moreover, NCLB and IDEA focused on attending to the needs of students with learning impairment because they are considered one segment of at-risk students.

Programs in which SWLIs interacted with and instructed by effective teachers benefited the disadvantaged students and enabled them to achieve the same targets as their peers who did not have learning impediments. NCLB and IDEA provisions of hiring highly-qualified teachers were one of the solutions to help address disparities in academic achievement. Despite the notion of having a highly qualified teacher in every school, it had proven to be a very overwhelming task for teachers (Gutierrez, 2013). It meant that SWLIs were provided with accommodations deemed
appropriate for their learning deficits. Further, highly qualified teachers knew how to present read-aloud accommodations (RAAs) to the students in the classroom.

The behavior of SWLIs could also improve due to the accommodations available to them in the classroom. Behavior such as disrespecting authority, defiance, refusal to work, talking back, lying, hurting others, fighting, and substance abuse are just a few of the issues that students do within the classroom premises. These behaviors might also cause students’ removal from the classroom either through in-school suspension or out-of-school suspension, or worst, expulsion. Whether intentional or not, this behavior all depended on how students received the kind of motivation and reinforcement adults provided in the classroom.

The reinforcements and motivations adults provide in the classroom can be positive or negative. B. F. Skinner, who is considered the father of operant conditioning, was the first to explore the impact of human behavior on learners (McCleod, 2015). McCleod (2015), in the updated version of Skinner’s study, stated that “he [Skinner] introduced a new term into the law of effect—Reinforcement. Behavior which is reinforced tends to be repeated (i.e. strengthened); behavior which is not reinforced tends to die out or be extinguished (i.e. weakened)” (p. 2). McCleod further described operant conditioning which involves voluntary actions that influence the surrounding environment. McCleod believed the best way to understand behavior was to look at the causes of an action and its consequences. Likely, it was what happened in the classroom where both types of students, SWLIs and SWOLIs, were being taught that their eagerness and enthusiasm to learn depending on how their teachers positively and negatively motivated and reinforced them. The prediction was obvious—if positively reinforced, students tried their best harder unless otherwise unmotivated.
Statement of the Problem

The problem that was the focus of this study was that the impact of RAAs on SWLIs and SWOLIs is not known. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2017), in 2014-15, the number of children and youth ages 3-21 receiving special education services was 6.6 million, or 13% of all public school students. Among children and youth receiving special education services, 35% had specific learning disabilities.

(p. 1)
The total population of special education students studied in the school for the researcher’s study is about 6,000 which was only less than 1% as compared to the 13% percentage total population of students with learning impairments nationwide (Louisiana Believes, 2014). In the particular school where the study was conducted, it was only 0.004% of special education students studied as compared to the 1% total population for the entire parish. Without knowing how RAAs affect students, children may receive an inadequate education. Li (2014) stated that “read-aloud accommodations have been presented as a way to remove barriers faced by SWLIs and SWOLIs” (p. 1). The results of this study would arise from the researcher’s understanding of the different perception of the participants on RAAs for both SWLIs and SWOLIs.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present qualitative case study was to analyze and understand the different perception of the participants on the impact of RAAs for both SWLIs and SWOLIs. The researcher sought to address whether some parents and some teachers had the same perceptions on RAAs for both SWLIs and SWOLIs. Further, the researcher wanted to gather additional information on which accommodations were most impactful for both SWLIs and SWOLIs both at
home and at school despite other accommodations presented to the students in the classroom and at home.

**Method and Design**

The method and design the researcher used in this research was a qualitative method using a descriptive case study design. The descriptive case study was utilized to study the content of the participants’ responses to the interviews and questions and look for patterns of emergent themes and sub-themes. Triangulation from multiple data sources would help the researcher collect the data in different methods. “Data triangulation involved using different sources of information to increase the validity and credibility of a study” (Tabassum, 2014, p. 3). Owens (1989) stated that triangulation increased the validity and credibility of the data and findings by cross-examining source’s responses to the data being asked. The researcher used a purposeful sampling of some teachers and some parents as these participants are considered as stakeholders of the school and community. “For many audiences, purposeful sampling, even of small samples, will substantially increase the credibility of the results” (Patton, 2002, pp. 240-241). In theory, researchers can “employ exhaustive searches to locate most of the primary research reported on a topic and then purposely select a few reports from this pool of reports for in-depth discussion” (Suri, 2011, p. 71). LAERD Dissertation (2012) reported that

The primary goal of purposive sampling is to focus on particular characteristics of a population that is of interest, which will best enable you to answer your research questions. The sample being studied is not representative of the population, but for researchers pursuing qualitative or mixed methods research designs, this is not considered to be a weakness. Instead, it is a choice, the purpose of which varies depending on the type of purposing sampling technique that is used. (p. 1)
The researcher provided an interview and questionnaires for the participants, and field notes based on observation of the participants’ actions during the interview and questions were gathered as well. Thus, using interviews as well as questionnaires added an in-depth understanding to the results that would not have been possible using a single-strategy study, thereby increasing the validity and utility of the findings (Tabassum, 2014). The participants for the research were 15 parents and six teachers. The application of qualitative method using a descriptive case study helped the researcher to understand the content of the responses based on the different perception of the participants on RAAs for both SWLIs and SWOLIs. Also, including the overall behavior in the interview and questions helped the researcher determined the tenacity of students’ poor reading performance, low reading grade, and unsatisfactory reading state-test results. The field note observations gathered by the researcher made the data more reliable and valid as it helped authenticate the participant’s responses to the interview and questions.

Research Questions

This qualitative research study addressed two main research problems:

RQ1. How do some teachers perceive reading comprehension accommodations for both SWLIs and SWOLIs in their reading, state test, and classroom behavior in both fourth and fifth grades?

RQ2. How do some parents perceive reading comprehension accommodations for their children when they take state tests for both SWLIs and SWOLIs?

Rationale, Relevance, and Significance of the Study

Reading is the key to success. Molaro and Haning (2014) stated that becoming a reader was choosing a book that suited a child’s interest and comprehension level. Students who read well have no fewer problems with oral and written language. However, fewer students were
competent readers as more and more continue to fall behind on their academic path because of reading failure—having difficulty understanding the essential ideas in reading passages or simple word recognition (Logsdon, 2017). The more students provided with passages and texts that were above their reading level, the more they struggled to read and comprehend those passages. This trend continued as students’ exposure to a learning environment where teachers assumed that all students learned at the same time and at the same pace. The result of this trend was that many students continued to fall into the category of “learning impaired.” SWLIs could catch up covering the same content and expected to have the same comprehension level of an average learner. Further, SWLIs had the same academic standards to meet as SWOLIs, with both types of students taking the same instruction, classroom testing, and even standardized testing.

In finding a solution to this dismal and ongoing situation, the government had issued mandates to help alleviate the deficit to bring SWLIs on par with the regular-education students, or SWOLIs. With the introduction of both NCLB and the reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act 2004 (IDEIA), SWLIs must be “included in all large-scale, statewide testing programs, thus increasing schools’ accountability for the academic achievement of all students” (McMahon, Wright, Cihak, Moore, & Lamb, 2015, p. 263). These initiatives led to drastic increases in the number of students now required to participate in such assessments which included students with learning impairment who were previously excluded for accountability reasons, thus making accessibility as becoming an increasingly desired feature of accountability tests in today’s K-12 environment (McMahon et al., 2016).

Also, Vygotsky’s practical theory which was known as the zone of proximal development (ZPD) was significant to help understand the uniqueness and comprehensiveness of scaffolding lessons for both SWLIs and SWOLIs. According to McLeod (2012), “Vygotsky believed that
when a student is in the ZPD for a particular task, providing the appropriate assistance will give the student enough of a "boost" to achieve the task” (p. 1).

One of the keys to SWLIs academic progress was accommodation. Accommodations vary and included text being read aloud, use of a calculator, small-group instruction, peer reading, modify, repeat, and model directions, reduce the number of items for tests, and extended time. Of the accommodations listed, reading aloud is the most impactful as “it can be used to develop story structure, increase vocabulary, and provide with materials for higher-level discussions” (Teacher Vision, 2018, p. 2). Also reading aloud is the “foundation for literacy development, and it is the single most important activity for reading success” (Teacher Vision, 2018, p. 1). Testing accommodations increased accessibility by removing construct-irrelevant variance caused by physical, cognitive, or sensory barriers preventing access to the assessment of materials (Hathcoat, Penn, Barnes, & Comer, 2016). One of the most frequently used types of testing accommodations was read-aloud accommodation (RAA), which typically involved a teacher providing a live reading of the test questions and answer choices to a student or group of students. RAAs had bee presented in the classroom, but SWLIs whose teachers do not implement accommodations will struggle to learn. Even with the provision of different accommodations, poor reading comprehension and poor behavior in the classroom were two of the contributing factors to this issue. According to Wrightslaw (2016), teachers needed to provide the appropriate accommodations for SWLIs such as differentiating lessons and instructions to reach individual needs, but the outcome of students’ achievement has not contributed enough because the results of their academic performance, grades, test results, and behavior do not say otherwise.

Moreover, to address student accountability, some teachers adapted to grades and standards-based environment. Max and Glazerman (2014) stated that the “recent federal initiatives
are designed, in part, to improve disadvantaged students’ access to effective teaching” (p. 1). The authors also made this additional statement:

Under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), states must ensure qualified teachers teach that poor and minority students at similar rates as other students in which according to the findings these types of students received less efficient teaching on average. (p. 1)

This results in teachers altering the grades of SWLIs to accommodate the policy’s demanded school administrators. Grades received by each SWLIs may not be an accurate representation of their learning as some leniency towards the part of the teachers were concerned. Keng (2016) examined the grading leniency choices to support the tolerance hypothesis which states that instructors’ lower grading standards were mainly a desire to fail fewer students than give higher grades. Teachers were also accountable for their teaching evaluation, and they often resorted to altering some data to improve the look of it regarding student achievement gap. The impact of this predicament was more disadvantageous to students who were already struggling in their academics most especially those in their primary years, particularly in their fourth-grade year. Chall (1996) examined the critical fourth-grade transition when students move from “learning to read” to “reading to learn.”

Mohler, Jorgensen, and Holmen (2014) described this phenomenon, was often referred to as the “fourth-grade slump” which the authors stated as critical for fourth-grade students. Childs (2013) agreed that the performance "slump" had not gone away, in fact, it continued to impact even the middle grades’ students. Childs (2013) stated that adding the low-income student’s achievement was comparable to that of the normative population second and third grade, but by fourth grade, some of their scores had begun to decline, starting in the area of vocabulary. The resolution to the problem could be if teachers’ and students’ role were in one accord. Teachers
needed to be better instruments of education by addressing what each student needed and provided the necessary accommodations for SWLI. Students must also do their part by achieving their task to the best of their ability so that when testing time comes, their results reflected the holistic view of their actual learning in the classroom.

This study may be significant because many researchers had shared insight on the significance of having RAAs in the classroom; no one had discussed its importance in the overall student performance in the school. Although some studies reviewed in Chapter 2 of this proposal describe the importance of RAAs for both SWLIs and SWOLIs, the researcher discovered none had focused on the different perception on the understanding of RAAs impact on both SWLIs and SWOLIs; literature was available that outlined the effects of RAA to the overall academic performance of SWLIs. However, the researcher did not isolate studies discussing the impact of RAAs on the overall academic performance of a fourth- and fifth-grade sample population. This result added to the understanding of the effects of RAAs on the overall academic achievement for both SWLIs and SWOLIs.

**Definition of Terms**

The commonly used terms of this study are defined as follows:

**Accommodations.** This term is defined as the changes in the way a student accesses learning, without changing the actual standards a student is working toward and using accommodations can be complicated—the goal is to find a balance that gives students equal access to learning without "watering down" the content” (The University of Kansas, 2017, p. 1).

**At-risk student.** This term is defined as "Any identified student who needs additional support and who is not meeting or not expected to meet the established goals of the educational program (academic, personal/social, career/vocational” (Iowa Department of Education, 2017, p. 1).
**DIBELS.** This term is defined as “The Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS) are a set of procedures and measures for assessing the acquisition of early literacy skills from kindergarten through sixth grade” (University of Oregon, 2017, p. 1).

**IDEA.** This term is defined as “The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) is the federal law that outlines rights and regulations for students with disabilities in the United States who require special education” (Mauro, 2017).

**Individualized Education Plan (IEP).** This term is defined as “A legally binding document that spells out exactly what special education services a child will receive; it includes the child's classification, placement, and related services such as a one-on-one aide and therapies, academic and behavioral goals, a behavior plan if needed, the percentage of time in regular education, and progress reports from teachers and therapists” (Mauro, 2016, p. 1).

**Perception.** This term is defined as “The act or faculty of perceiving, or apprehending using the senses or of the mind; cognition; understanding” (Dictionary.com, 2018, p. 1).

**NCLB.** This term is defined as “The No Child Left Behind law—the 2002 update of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act—effectively scaled up the federal role in holding schools accountable for student outcomes” (Klein, 2017, p. 1).

**A simple view of reading.** This term is defined as “This means that reading comprehension is the product of word decoding and language comprehension that makes independent contributions to reading skill” (Sparks & Patton, 2016).

**Students with learning impairment.** This term is defined as “A disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using spoken or written language, which may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell or to do mathematical calculations” (The Kurtz Center, 2012, p. 1).
**Title 1 school.** This term is defined as “Title 1, Part A (Title 1) of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, as amended (ESEA) provides financial assistance to local educational agencies (LEAs) and schools with high numbers or high percentages of children from low-income families to help ensure that all children meet challenging state academic standards. “Federal funds are currently allocated through four statutory formulas that are based primarily on census poverty estimates and the cost of education in each state” (U.S. Department of Education, 2015a, p. 1).

**Assumptions, Delimitations, and Limitations**

The researcher in this study assumed that all data gathered from some parents and some teachers to be genuine and correct. Further, the researcher considered robust data of the participants’ perception of the impact of RAAs for both SWLIs and SWOLIs. This study discussed the details of the expectations from the participants’ responses in the literature review of this document.

The present study had several numbers of limitations. First, using only a few numbers of participants and just one school in the district limits the results. Second, the researcher conducted an interview and questioning process within a limited timeframe. Third, field notes were dependent on the researcher’s knowledge and understanding of the participants’ actions. Cohen and Crabtree (2006) described field notes as a created record of the events, settings and participants’ behaviors, activities and other features of the participants’ behavior to produce meaning and understanding of phenomenon being studied. Thus, “using interviews as well as questionnaires added an in-depth to the results that would not have been possible using a single-strategy study, thereby increasing the validity and utility of the findings” (Tabassum, 2014, p. 3). Fourth, the determination of the perception of the participants’ responses to the research questions was from participants’ insights, efficiencies, feelings, and responsiveness.
Four boundaries delimited the study. The first delimitation of the study was to be able to have a similar grade level of participants either in an elementary, middle, or high school. The second delimitation was to have different sources other than interviews and questionnaire to help add more data to the thematic analysis and triangulation. The third delimitation was to explore different grade level which allowed the researcher to examine and compare the results from other schools in the district that have the same school category (such as Title 1) to determine if there was a significant difference in the results. The fourth delimitation was choosing one school to analyze the results which allowed the researcher to examine if the participants in the selected school, with their unique characteristics, may have different effects than the participants in another school even if the socio-economic conditions are similar.

Summary

This chapter introduced the research problem. It discussed the impacts of read-aloud accommodation to students both with and without learning impairment in the fourth- and fifth-grade students in the classroom setting. It explained the background, history, and conceptual framework for the problem in this first chapter to describe the full context of this research. The central objective of this study was to understand the different perception of the participants on the impact of RAAs for both SWLIs and SWOLIs. The study examined participants’ content of their answers to interviews and questions using the qualitative method with descriptive case study design. The research questions in this qualitative study to be investigated included 1.) How do teachers perceive reading comprehension accommodations for both SWLIs and SWOLIs in both fourth and fifth grades? and 2.) How do parents perceive reading comprehension accommodations for their children when they take state tests for both SWLIs and SWOLIs?

The study provided the rationale, relevance, and significance of the research. Also, the researcher defined some relevant definition of terms. Finally, assumptions, delimitations, and
limitations of the study were discussed to understand the different perception of the participants on RAAs for both SWLIs and SWOLIs.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Throughout the U. S., students live with learning impairments that lead to academic difficulties in reading (National Center for Education Statistics, 2018). Children with disabilities required the assistance of special education teachers to benefit fully from education through differentiation activities (Webster, 2017); thus schools often overlook these students because they require the assistance of special education teachers. One of the possible ways for students with learning impairment (SWLIs) to be academically successful was to have read aloud accommodations on their Individualized Education Program (IEP). RAAs was one of the most commonly used accommodations in the general education classroom to improve students’ comprehension and learning curriculum content (Li, 2014). While RAAs was one of the most common accommodations provided for SWLIs, they were also becoming more available to students without learning impairment (SWOLIs) because both types of students were placed in the general education classroom environment.

For SWLIs, the accommodation was selected based on the discussions and decisions made at the IEP team meetings. The IEP team meeting consisted of other designated representatives (ODR), the regular education teacher, the special education teacher, parent, and student. ODR personnel can be the school principal or the principal’s designee. Often, the inclusion of other related services such as physical therapist, occupational therapist, school or department nurse, speech pathologist, and adaptive physical educators in the IEP team meeting also affected the decision-making process. Teachers implemented IEPs and accommodations to students in the classroom due to the NCLB and IDEA mandates.

The reauthorization of both the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA 1997) and the passage of the NCLB Act of 2002 had promoted an increase in the use of state testing
assessments thus requiring highly-qualified teachers to teach the core content subject areas (VanCise, 2013). Teaching, especially in an inclusive setting ensured that every student could profit optimally from the lessons. Teachers could reach this goal only if they focused on the student’s different learning and performance requirements as well as the motivation of the individual students (Schwab & Hessels, 2015). The IDEAs of 1997 and 2004 acknowledged the crucial need for the IEP team to plan and document how they will monitor and communicate progress for SWLIs.

**Research Topic and Significance of the Study**

Many individual studies had been conducted (Salah, 2014; Li, 2014; Schissel, 2014) on the impacts of RAAs in reading achievement, grade reporting and adaptation, fairness and validity of state testing and results, and students and teachers perceptions of behavior, but no studies were available on how to understand the different perception of the participants on RAAs for both SWLIs and SWOLIs. If the researcher found that the lack of a strong reading foundation affects the students’ reading skills even with accommodations, knowing if it also affects students reading grade, reading state testing results, and overall classroom behavior will be significant. Also, knowing if SWLIs became successful in reading state assessments after regular education teacher provided RAAs in the general education classroom setting may be valuable, therefore; reading problems may evolve at any given point in the process (Salah, 2014).

The reading problem for SWLIs was socially significant because it impacted their reading comprehension and thus affects their reading achievement (Li, 2014). Low reading comprehension had many impacts on the influence of SWLIs’ learning. The mandate of NCLB (2004), which required all students to participate in yearly state testing and meet the academic proficiency standards each state sets, hold the school district accountable for students’ learning. Thus, potentially becoming a large problem for school administrators. The issue was that many SWLIs
and even SWOLIs were low-performing not only in reading but also in other core subject areas such as math, science, and social studies. This requirement could only lead to further lowering student’s academic performance in the classroom because they were already struggling to read in the early stages of their academic lives. One solution was the use of accommodations that can facilitate a positive test-taking experience for SWLIs, and school personnel must ensure such accommodations provides fair and valid test results (Schissel, 2014).

RAAs provided SWLIs the opportunity to succeed in the classroom on a day-to-day basis. RAAs served as an instrument to the link between SWLIs and their regular education teachers. Also, RAAs benefited SWOLIs as these students were in the same classroom with SWLIs. Although RAAs helped both groups, it did not give more effect on academic engagement with SWLIs. One significant transition in a reader’s life was when she or he moved from third-grade to the fourth grade. However, high numbers of children who were reasonably successful readers in the early grades later develop reading difficulties (Fisher, 2013). Chall and Jacobs (2003) referred to this circumstance as the fourth-grade slump. Students who experienced a reading slump may overcome the problem in time, but many students persistently continued to have difficulty.

In addition to data from reading achievement performance, data analysis of the different perceptions between reporting grades to state tests and behavior were also collected (David, 2014; Lovett & Leja, 2013; Nese, Tindal, Stevens, & Elliot, 2015; Swan, Guskey, & Jung, 2014; Thurlow, Wu, Lazarus, & Ysseldyke, 2016). Class grades earned by every SWLI are a depiction of satisfactory performance of the students and an indirect measurement of success of integration efforts in general (Nese et al., 2015). However, using RAAs for SWLIs and even for SWOLIs, may affect the validity of their reading grade. Understanding the nature of the impact of testing accommodations on the test performance of students with disabilities was critical to the overall efficacy of the test results (Lovett & Leja, 2013). However, teacher adaptation of grades was
helpful for SWLIs and SWOLIs in a standards-based environment because of modifications through the IEP or decisions by the IEP team.

For students in an inclusive setting, some classroom practices might put the SWLIs at either advantage or disadvantage as compared to SWOLIs. However, teachers nowadays had faced struggles in assigning just, correct, and meaningful grades without the thought of grade inflation to SWLIs, most especially those students placed in the regular education setting (Finefter-Rosenbluh, & Levinson, 2015). The lack of specific policies or recommendations leads most teachers to apply informal, individual grading adaptations for students which led to grade inflation (Schroeder, 2016). This problem became more rampant because of the combination of standards-based reforms with comprehensive programs that educate SWLIs in the regular education classroom.

Grades and report cards represented a primary source of that information. A standards-based report card contained grades or marks based on carefully enunciated learning standards in each subject area which provides every family with the detailed feedback they require to ensure that improvement efforts are suitably absorbed and more likely to succeed (Swan, Guskey, & Jung, 2014). Also, as more inclusion of SWLI in the regular education setting, apprehensions have arisen regarding the low reporting grades that the SWLI are likely to achieve which believed to be one reason for SWLIs drop out of school (Thurlow et al., 2016).

**Setting**

The research setting was in one suburban public elementary school located in Shreveport, Louisiana. The school population was about 600 during the 2016-2017 school year. The school serves pre-kindergarten through fifth-grade students. The school contained an office, classrooms, computer lab, music room, art room, physical education room, library, playgrounds, cafeteria, temporary buildings, speech therapist classroom, janitor, boiler room, and restrooms.
The school demographics were African American (96%), White (3%), and two or more races (1%). In 2016, the calculated average standard score for the school the researcher was studying was 8.84. The study was performed on all special-education and regular-education students at the fourth- and fifth-grade level (School Digger, 2017). All students experienced PARCC (Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Career) Assessment, DIBELS benchmark tests, and Aimsweb Plus tests. Also, only 50 exceptional students attended the school based on the special education records provided by the school principal. These students received services in inclusion, self-contained, and resource settings. Related services such as physical therapy, speech therapy, behavior interventionist, adapted physical educator, and occupational therapy was also housed at the school.

Fulfilling the school’s vision and mission, the school was sufficiently staffed to meet the needs of both SWOLIs and SWLIs. The researcher of this study focused on one primary school located in one school district in Louisiana. The school district where the study was conducted was a Title 1 school in Louisiana where the majority of students were performing below average in DIBELS (Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills), Aimsweb Plus, and the PARCC Assessment (Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Career). The DIBELS test served as a universal screener for students from kindergarten to third grade in the school where the researcher will conduct the study. The academic tests within Aimsweb Plus measures and address reading and mathematics skills of all students taking the test (Aimsweb Plus, 2017).

School Digger (2017) reported that 96.1% of students were receiving a free or discounted lunch. Also, in 2016, the school, where the researcher conducted the study, ranked worse than 94.6% of elementary schools in Louisiana as reported by School Digger (2017). For the fall DIBELS 2016 and Aimsweb Plus achievement tests, most SWLIs and SWOLIs had low scores and showed a small increase of points over their spring benchmark tests. The majority of students
achieved their goals in DIBELS and Aimsweb Plus at the spring benchmark. The problem began when these same students took the fall benchmark for the next school year on their fourth grade. The pattern seemed similar—low scores on the fall benchmark and increasing during the winter and spring benchmark. The reasons why such low ratings every fall benchmark in every new grade the students were in place remain to be discovered.

**Problem Statement**

The problem of this study was to seek an understanding of the perceptions of some teachers and some parents on the impact of read-aloud accommodations on students’ reading grades, high-stakes test in reading, and overall classroom behavior. Also, the researcher analyzed if both parents and teachers had the same perception of the impact of RAAs for both SWLIs and SWOLIs. The researcher also wanted to find out additional information about the participants’ concerns on the impact of read-aloud accommodations on students at home and at school as perceived by some parents and some teachers. To summarize, the study was designed to answer the following research questions:

**Research Questions**

This qualitative research study addressed two main research problems:

RQ1. How do some teachers perceive reading comprehension accommodations for both SWLIs and SWOLIs in their reading, state test, and classroom behavior in both fourth and fifth grades?

RQ2. How do some parents perceive reading comprehension accommodations for their children when they take state tests for both SWLIs and SWOLIs?

Knowing whether the learning that occurs in elementary school sets the stage for success as these two types of students to move on to high school. The success of these students also depends on how school leaders support the students’ need for quality education in the classroom. School
administrators and educators noted and analyzed the scores of every child and were concerned with the projected pattern of the students’ scores through the school has positive climate and culture based on teachers report (Davis, 2013).

**Organization**

This proposal contains five chapters. Chapter 1 includes the following: opening, research topic, content, the significance of the study, problem statement, and organization. Chapter 2 consists of a review of the literature as it related to the conceptual framework, reading achievement in a Title 1 school, Skinner’s operant conditioning, the five components of reading, students with special education needs, and the research questions. Chapter 3 illustrates the description of the methodology used in this study. The proposal receives approval. Chapter 4 contains the analysis of the data and results of the research conducted. Chapter 5 includes a discussion of findings, conclusions, and recommendations for future research.

**Conceptual Framework**

The purpose of this qualitative descriptive case study was to investigate the content of the responses of the perceptions of teachers and parents of the students’ reading comprehension accommodations impact on reading and high-stakes test in reading. There were various needs that every student must receive to master the necessary skills which are reading comprehension in the core subject areas, reporting grade in reading, high-stakes test in reading, and overall behavior in the classroom. In this same manner, there were different frameworks had been developed to analyze the problem.

**Education Frameworks**

*Vygotsky’s zone of proximal development.* Vygotsky framed a unique, comprehensive, inclusive, and humane practice theoretical framework for special education in a structured environment in the 20th century (Bainbridge, 2017). Vygotsky created the concept of the zone of
proximal development (ZPD). He stated that the practice of scaffolding strategy conveys the abilities that have been emerging and developing and thus exposes the crucial and obscured prognosis and diagnosis of a child’s potential. He argued that a disability was perceived as an abnormality only when and if it is brought into the social context. However, as education in the 21st century had evolved to incorporate federal and state mandates, students became more entangled between their sense of academic success, commitment, responsibility, and actual academic performance in the classroom.

All students deserve the right education, instruction, modification, and accommodation in the inclusive classroom setting where parents, school districts, communities, and most especially the state, expect academic gains. Lam (2015) stated that “Promoting students’ positive evaluations of disability may be helpful in increasing accommodation usage and student achievement through reinforcing students’ psychological empowerment and knowledge about available resources” (p. xii). If teachers provided the right tools and accommodations in the general setting, students with disabilities would be able to perform better as well as students without disabilities despite their reluctance to receive accommodations. Teachers needed to determine the rights and responsibilities of students with disabilities in an inclusive setting (Akalin et al., 2014). Also, educators must investigate whether they can utilize the IEP accommodations of SWLIs in the regular classroom setting. Identifying the categories of accommodations for students in an inclusive environment was another contributing factor for students with disabilities to feel comfortable in the general education classroom. Moreover, regular education teachers may lack the training to accommodate students with disabilities; therefore, administrators or the school district should provide professional developments opportunities to those teachers. These accommodations help students to understand better the lesson taught, most especially in reading.
If SWLIs did not receive the accommodations and classroom settings they need, they would struggle to succeed during regular testing basis and high-stakes testing?

**Simple view of reading.** Afflerbach, Cho, and Kim (2015) stated that reading was a complex task that involved numerous processes and abilities in mastering higher order thinking skills. In fact, a student’s disability may hinder or affected the acquisition of skills that could impact the child’s reading comprehension ability in many ways. After an extensive review of literature and consultation with an expert, Afflerback et al. (2015) used the simple view of the reading framework to begin to understand the complexities of reading comprehension. Reading comprehension was one of the main factors why students with disabilities continue to struggle. Abedi et al. (2012) expressed that “reading problems pose one of the greatest barriers to school success for students with disabilities; a disability may affect the acquisition of skills that could impact reading development and comprehension in disparate ways” (p. 83).

With their simple view of the reading framework for reading comprehension, Gough, Juel, and Griffith (1992) showed that product of decoding (D) and oral comprehension (C) equaled reading comprehension (R). Many students with disabilities had demonstrated not only poor decoding skills but also very poor linguistic comprehension skills that have resulted in a severe reading comprehension ability. A deficit that students experience and struggle in reading even at a young age.

Teachers must investigate the contributing factors to poor reading comprehension in their students. The reasons may pertain to decoding (i.e., phonemic awareness, phonics, and fluency), comprehension (i.e., fluency and vocabulary) or some combination of both? Gough et al. (1992) expressed that decoding and comprehension were the skills necessary for independent reading in which students with disabilities have the most problem. The simple view of reading formula could be used by teachers to project a student’s reading comprehension score if decoding skills and
language proficiency comprehension abilities are known. Teachers faced challenges in building
the foundation of reading skills for students to master in preparation for taking the standardized
assessments starting in their third-grade year. However, alternate assessments were offered to
students with disabilities, especially when they are in a testing grade.

**Common Core State Standards and PARCC.** Trinkle (2013) stated that because
students were being included in the statewide assessments, many states across the nation have
allowed teachers to administer appropriate accommodations for all special education students who
take standardized tests. The Louisiana Common Core State Standards (CCSS) changed the course
of the Louisiana state-testing from Louisiana Education and Assessment Partnership for
Assessment for College and Career (PARCC) and was setting new curriculum and standards for
teachers and students. The new curriculum set the pace for more challenges for educators and
more responsibilities for students. Students with disabilities fall mostly on the Unsatisfactory and
Approaching Basic, if not a failing status with their test result. This status may result from
teachers not correctly implementing their lessons, teachers not utilizing the IEP accommodations,
or the behavior reinforcement’s teachers are providing to students with disabilities. According to
the National Center for Education Statistics (2013), for testing accommodations to be an effective
intervention for students with disabilities, they must be carried out with integrity, and even the test
itself must be carried out with fidelity.

**B. F. Skinner’s operant conditioning.** With suitable instruction, effective tools for
learning, appropriate assistive technology, and excellent teacher qualification and certification,
students’ grades, particularly in reading, would dramatically improve. As reading achievement test
scores increased, high-stakes tests results increased. Teachers who did consistently follow IEP
accommodations help SWLIs perform better in the classroom and reduce behavior issues. Vargas
(2013) stated that “B. F. Skinner illustrates the importance of form in his analysis of verbal
behavior” (p.1). Skinner’s operant conditioning theory for determining behavior states that there are two determining factors of behavior—positive and negative reinforcements. Operant conditioning quadrants, Skinner’s model, showed the different perception of these factors and the resulting change in frequency of the behavior. Most students, both with and without a disability had experienced positive and negative reinforcements depending on the level of the behavior displayed in the classroom.

Students with poor reading comprehension, tend to misbehave in the classroom due to students’ struggle in understanding the lessons the teachers are teaching. Teachers interpret this misbehavior in the classroom as being disrespectful to authority. Castelli (2018) suggested using time-out for students who feel overwhelmed with the lessons to lessen misbehavior of students. However, teachers’ perspective were fixated on their misunderstanding that all students learn at the same level making it more challenging for students with learning impairments. Students’ misbehavior in the classroom and teachers’ inaccurate analysis of this misdemeanor can result in students being penalized with either positive or negative reinforcement.

Teachers needed to be careful when giving support to a misbehaving child in the classroom especially to students with disabilities. The tendency to provide positive reinforcement in response to a child’s adverse actions only increases the likelihood of poor comprehension. Sun and Shek (2012) stated that “student misbehaviors delay the smoothness and effectiveness of teaching and also impedes the learning of the student and classmates” (p. 1). Moreover, research findings had shown that “school misbehavior not only escalated with time but also lowered academic achievement and increased delinquent behavior” (Sun & Shek, 2012, p. 1). Putting the child out of the classroom only enhanced the chance of more negative behavior because most of the misbehavior is meant to avoid work and is not solely about poor comprehension (Galuska, Mikorski, & Perone, 2012). Teachers must think first before handing out reinforcements to these
types of students. Students knew their capacity for learning and behavior might be used as a manipulation tool to force the teacher’s decision to put them out of the classroom which some students may prefer over the challenge of learning. The result was another missed opportunity to improve their reading.

**Reviews of Research Literature**

The impact of RAA on reading achievement, reporting grades, state testing, and behavior was encouraging, increasing, and improving for SWLI and SWOLI as perceived by parents and teachers (Pollete, 2014). Several reasons explained why RAA was useful for both types of students. Polette (2014) believed that RAA enhanced fluency, strengthened reading comprehension skills, developed critical reading skills, developed other essential reading skills, helped struggling readers, improved confidence level of students, and facilitated collaborative learning.

**RAA and Reading Achievement**

The first reason that the impact of RAA in reading achievement was perceived to be encouraging, increasing, and improving was that reading aloud increased reading test scores for both groups, but more so with SWLI (Buzick & Stone, 2014). The reason for the claim was its intention to remove construct-irrelevant barriers to accessing or responding to test items while retaining the ability to measure the expected outcomes (Jin & Yan, 2017). Educators applied accommodations within the instructional environment to provide equal access to curriculum content and to level the playing field between the SWOLIs and SWLIs (Li, 2014). The differential boost framework (Spiel, 2016) was often used by educators to evaluate the impact of RAAs. In this context, both SWLIs and SWOLIs were expected to benefit from the accommodations; however, SWLIs would have benefited differentially more than SWOLIs.
Further, as highlighted in Chapter 1, many state education boards had increasingly implemented accountability systems to ensure that schools were facilitating desired outcomes for students. SWLIs preferred the test accommodation as compared to the SWOLIs. Li (2014) indicated that RAAs helped students decode a word easier which further supported the student improved reading and reading comprehension.

Another factor for why the impact of RAAs in reading achievement was perceived to be helpful in improving student’s reading performance was that it increased time in the general-education classroom provides SWOLIs and SWLIs with opportunities to participate in large and small-group discussions across a variety of subjects (Lemmons, 2015). Previous quantitative, qualitative, and meta-analysis research had been conducted on the impact of RAAs on SWLIs’ and SWOLIs’ reading performance, but the results are mixed. According to Lemmons (2015), allowing SWOLIs and SWLIs more time in the general-education setting would give ample opportunities for small-and-large-group discussions across multiple subjects and reduced behavior office referrals.

For most of the SWOLIs and some SWLIs, a set of RAAs had only moderate to significant effect on performance task scores (Abedi et al., 2012). Both the NCLB and the IDEA of 2004 mandated that SWLIs meet the academic proficiency that their state's standards set. After all consideration of the positive claims on the impact of RAA in reading, a concern against the idea of RAA was that socially mediated, language-rich learning opportunities designed to foster understanding in SWLIs were limited (Abedi et al., 2012). As Abedi et al. (2012) stated, SWLIs may fail to portray their knowledge and skills adequately because some assessment characteristics may interfere with their actual ability to gain access to the content. However, changes in test scores associated with accommodation use were part of a broader collection of evidence to
evaluate scores improvement for making changes in the proficiencies of test-takers with
disabilities. Some students who needed accommodations will benefit, and others will not.

**RAA and Grading in a Standards-Based Environment**

Teacher adaptation of grades was helpful for SWLIs and SWOLIs in a standards-based
environment. Teachers needed to record students’ true performance in the classroom and provided
grade suitable for the students’ skills. One of the most challenging aspects for educators
implementing the standards-based reforms under ESSA, with its emphasis on accountability
through high-stakes testing, had produced many perverse results alongside documented
achievement gains (Desimone, 2013).

An additional challenge was that standards-based reforms were combined with general
programs that helped educate SWLIs in the general education setting. The grades students earned
to provide a direct measure of the successful performance of students and an indirect measurement
of the success of integration efforts (Bull, 2013). Bursuck et al. (1999) found that as school
districts developed grading policies, many were concerned about the grading standards and
SWLIs. To complicate matters, many regular education children were graded on similar standards
as SWLIs. Noting that modifications for SWLIs were determined through their IEP or decisions
by the IEP team is essential. Standards-based grading and reporting would improve education and
allowed teachers to report information on individual elements of learning (Muñoz & Guskey,
2015). Moreover, teachers find unique grading adaptations such as pass/fail, portfolios, various
grades, and grading for the effort which is helpful for both SWLIs and SWOLIs. Jung and Guskey
(2007) stated that “IDEA of 1997 and 2004 acknowledges this crucial need and requires that the
IEP teams plan and document how progress will be monitored and communicated to students with
disabilities” (p. 48).
Another issue with grade adaptations was that they demonstrate little about students’ actual performance or level of achievement (Jung & Guskey, 2009). Nevertheless, teachers used different processes to provide fair and meaningful grades to SWLIs and SWOLIs. Still, teachers may struggle in their efforts to do for SWLIs. There was some evidence that suggested that teacher adaptations of grades were helpful, but one aspect that may influence perceived teacher acceptability was student perception because students’ learning is dependent of teacher’s preparation for lessons (Kalnin, 2014). That was, teachers may be unlikely to use adaptations that students viewed negatively. However, student perceptions of adaptations may relate to the issue of fairness, and some assessment characteristic may interfere with the students’ ability to access the content. Fairness centers on the issue of equity. Students’ perceptions of adjusting report-card grading were mostly unknown; however, strong preferences were likely to exist in this area, particularly among high school students for whom grades often served as a passport to college or even employment.

**RAA and State Testing Assessments**

Inadequate information existed on the extent to which students received and benefited from accommodations during instruction, which may ultimately influence whether they derive benefits from them during testing (Witmer, Cook, Schmitt, & Clinton, 2015). Nonetheless, the impact of RAAs also showed a positive impact on state testing for both SWLIs and SWOLIs. While reading aloud was one of the most frequently used accommodations on statewide assessments, it was also one of the most debated and questioned because it can modify the construct being measured (Jin & Yan, 2017). One reason RAAs were beneficial for SWOLIs and SWLIs in state testing was their affectivity in which both groups benefited from the accommodation with no differential boost; if there was a differential boost, SWLIs benefited more than those SWOLIs (Witmer et al., 2015).
Interestingly, students with disabilities preferred test accommodations, whereas students without disabilities preferred not to have test accommodations. Li (2014) agreed with the statement by expressing that students who needed the accommodations were benefiting from them and students who did not need accommodations were not benefiting from them. Considering the impact of testing accommodations on the test performance of students with learning disabilities was significant to the overall validity of the test results (Crotts, 2013). Some students had challenges in understanding and learning from the text whereas some learners who had demonstrated reading problems from the early years they had not acquired mastery in their reading skills (Reed & Vaughn, 2012). Samuels (2013) stated that,

Rather than prohibit the so-called "read-aloud accommodation" entirely or allow reading aloud with no restriction, the Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers decided to permit text passages to be read to students, with a notation on score reports saying no claims can be made regarding the student's foundational reading skills. (p. 1)

This statement supports the idea that students needed a more flexible, individualized approach to accommodations. Test accommodations were intended to alleviate the impact of students’ disabilities, so that more appropriate and interpretable test score information is obtained (Stein, 2013). Accommodations did not substantially improve measurement comparability for students with reading disabilities because interaction impact was not significant (Stein, 2013). Federal legislation required that appropriate accommodations are provided to students with disabilities to participate in state and district-wide assessment; however, inadequate guidance is provided with this legislation about how to determine whether an accommodation is appropriate (Bolt & Thurlow, 2006). Educators and policymakers needed a different framework to understand the best use of accommodations in the classroom.
In the 20th century, Vygotsky framed a unique theoretical framework for a possibly used practice of special education (Bainbridge, 2017) — the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Vygotsky stated that the method of scaffolding conveys information about abilities that have been emerging and developing, thus exposes the obscured potential of a child, which is crucial for both diagnosis and prognosis (Bainbridge, 2017). He argued that disability is perceived as an abnormality only when and if it is brought into the social context (Bainbridge, 2017). This idea was counter to the claim that both groups benefit from an accommodation with no differential boost (Spiel et al., 2016). However, in agreement with Vygotsky is Li (2014), who stated that students who need the accommodations are benefiting from them and students who do not need accommodations are not benefiting from them. Different policies conveyed a general concern that the highly generous provision of RAAs may undermine schools accountable for teaching their student's foundational skills (Witmer et al., 2015).

Indeed, RAAs should not be used for a reading comprehension test or a vocabulary test. Reading the test may alter the nature of the construct being measured. An outcome that was inconsistent with the purpose of using accommodations differentially challenges the students. The construct-irrelevant difficulty was a pervasive problem for students with learning disabilities. While read-aloud was one of the most frequently used accommodations on statewide assessments, it was also one of the most debated and questioned because it can modify the construct being measured (Jin & Yan, 2017).

If a differential boost were present, only the scores of students with disabilities would be significantly different when assessed under experimental conditions (Overton, 2013). In one study, SWLIs and SWOLIs showed significant gains with oral accommodation, and student with learning disability increased significantly more than did the students without learning disability (Spiel et al., 2016). RAA should aid the students who have a reading deficit without giving them
the advantage over those who did not receive accommodations. Contrary to Handel, Lockl, Heydrich, Weinart, and Artelt (2014) expectations, a differential boost due to the testing accommodation of reading aloud was, however, only observed in regular students but not in students with special educational needs. In another view, the evolution of the number students categorized as learning impaired suggested that schools now own the accountability for moving and showing student’s academic growth (Opposs, 2016).

**RAA and Behavior**

Many students report high overall satisfaction with read-aloud accommodation supporting the idea that RAAs encourages, increases, and improves classroom behavior (Bernacki, Nokes-Malach, & Aleven, 2015; Allen, 2017). Students were satisfied because the academic achievement of SWOLIs and SWLIs had social-emotional implications. Self-efficacy theorists contended that individuals pursued activities and situations in which they felt competent and avoid those in which they lack competency (Bernacki, Nokes-Malach, & Aleven, 2015). Teachers’ perceptions of their teaching competence had been found to influence a myriad on their behavior and attitudes and mediate the impact of self-perceptions on those outcomes while also negotiating the impact of self-perceptions on those outcomes.

The effect of providing accommodations to students may, in turn, influence teachers’ perceptions and attitudes about students and their academic abilities (Allen, 2017). Some accommodations offered to students with emotional disorders do little to remediate a disability, thus resulting in the enabling continuance of the condition. However, the accommodations may delay the continuing process of instruction and do more damage than good by reinforcing lower expectations that affect a students’ achievement.
Review of Methodological Issues

Researchers conducted many studies on the individual results of the impact of RAAs on reading achievement, reading grade, state testing assessments, and even a few studies on teacher and student perceptions on RAAs provided to SWLIs. Teacher accountability in teaching SWLIs and the use of their teachers state assessment results as part of teacher evaluation had also been examined in several studies. However, researchers conducted few studies on new trends in special education, case laws on special education, and rights for parents of SWLIs.

The researcher in this study intended to determine whether RAAs impact students’ reading achievement, reading grade, reading state test results, and overall positive behavior as perceived by the participants. More studies were needed to inform policymakers and reformers in a research-based manner. The country’s commitment to providing equal educational opportunities for all highlights the constant need to evaluate the quality of curricula and instruction explicitly designed for SWLIs (Westlove, 2012).

Legislations on SWLI

Congress required the Department of Education to make annual reports concerning how well students with disabilities are performing in the classroom (U.S. Department of Education, 2014). Additionally, the provision for the right to an education was also made by Free-Appropriate-Public-Education (FAPE) for all SWLIs and the delivery of early intervention services even to infants and toddlers with learning impairments. This right to a free, appropriate, and public education is critical as millions of students in America had severe learning disability problems (Fuchs & Fuchs, 2015). The failure to achieve satisfactory academic performance persisted as a child graduates from kindergarten to elementary, middle school, and high school. Fuchs and Fuchs (2015) indicated the reason why SWLIs continues to show low achievement results from schools’ failure to provide sufficient intensive instruction. Schools did not willfully
withhold instruction, but they did not recognize the need to address the problem and lose the interest in providing for the needs of the SWLIs.

Over the years, much legislation regarding SWLIs had been passed, and many changes have occurred. The regulation on the least restrictive environment (LRE) within IDEA required that SWLIs were provided with access to the general education curriculum, including academic, extracurricular, and other school activities offered to both types of students (Dancer, 2013; Dretchen-Sirapiglia, 2016). However, even with accommodations, SWLIs continued to struggle with reading performance in class, achieving average passing grades in reading, passing English Language Arts and Reading state assessments and displaying an overall positive behavior in the classroom.

Local, state, and federal governments created legislation for addressing the educational needs of all students, including individuals with disabilities. ESSA and IDEA ensured these rights and adequately provide benefits by supplying states with guidelines for designing and offering special education and related services. Social service organizations and other nongovernmental organizations also helped students, and their families ensured that students with disabilities reach their potential. These strategies were intended to help students overcome challenges, but growing concern on the implementation of these strategies remained unclear (Westlove, 2012).

**Five Essential Components in Reading Instruction**

The objective of the 2001 NCLB Act was to improve reading outcomes for all students (U.S. Department of Education, 2004). Developing skills for basic early literacy was the foundation for the development of reading expertise and strategies. Determining an effective strategy to teach a young child to read was a critical need (Smith, 2016). Fortunately, educators were proactive in identifying and providing interventions for young students who are at risk for
reading failure (Luckner, 2013) because a reader who was successful early in their youth will be on the path to academic growth and achievement in school (Smith, 2016).

Child (2012) defined reading instruction as the fundamental life skill to success, and the components of reading instruction aided students in achieving their reading potential. Further, Child indicated that classroom teachers followed core reading programs that included explicit instruction on Luckner’s (2013) five components of reading instruction: (a) phonemic awareness, i.e., the alphabetic principle; (b) the mapping of print to speech, i.e., the blending of these letters into sounds; (c) accuracy and fluency; (d) vocabulary and oral language; and (e) comprehension. “It is now accepted as an evidenced-based practice that elementary teachers engaged in the teaching of these essentials of early reading instruction to prevent reading failure in young children” (Child, 2012, p. 1).

Luckner (2013) asserted that the ability to read is essential to achieving in school, being an informed citizen, succeeding in one's career, and being personally fulfilled. However, in America, most children were reading below grade level, and most special education referrals were due to student’s reading deficits (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2012a; NCES, 2012b). The Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services indicated that about half of SWLIs score at or below the 20th percentile on reading tests or screeners (U.S. Department of Education, 2002). As students continue to fall behind in the acquisition of reading skills, intensive intervention is needed to achieve the necessary level of reading accuracy (Denton, n. d.).

Unfortunately, struggling readers continuously lost practice time for each month and year they were behind, thus making it difficult to improve their reading. Echols (2011) highlighted that the reciprocal perception between reading activities explains these modifications. For the poor reader, the variance in reading ability followed a predictable pattern: a student began with difficulty in the foundational skills of reading which led to a lack of exposure to text. This lack of skill in decoding
and limited practice with writing inhibits reading for meaning. Ultimately this cycle impacted a student's purpose and motivation for reading.

All stakeholders in education including teachers, parents, community partners, and politicians continued to examine current reading instruction in schools (Castillo, 2013). Further, teachers must demonstrate improvement in reading skills instruction during their in-service training. However, these instructional lessons, which include phonics instruction, use of children’s literature, use of basal readers, writing instruction, and holding of literary discussions must be involved in reading instructions (Castillo, 2013; Serafini, 2011).

**RAA and Reading Achievement**

Tse et al. (2016) asked a relevant question about reading: Do reading practices make a difference? Globally, educators and policymakers accepted that proficient reading comprehension was a pivotal contributor to all-around scholastic attainment in primary schools. However, the impact of reading problems during the school year is that approximately 14% of adults in the United States cannot understand (NCES, 2012a). According to the U.S. Department of Education (2015), a significant number of young readers also struggle with reading.

When children grasped the critical developments of decoding and word recognition in their early years, their teachers’ attention focused on developing children’s ability to understand the meaning residing in various forms of text and using reading as a vehicle for the learning of subjects across the curriculum. Brown, Kim, and Ramirez (2012) contended that reading is a multifaceted task that involves multiple processes and abilities that include perceptual, cognitive, and language comprehension processes. Readers, then, use both low-level processing skills, such as word recognition, and high-order processing capabilities, such as accessing background knowledge, to bring meaning to the text (National Accessible Reading Assessment Projects, 2006).
A disability may affect the acquisition of skills that could impact reading development and comprehension in different ways (Abedi et al., 2012). Samuels (2013) stated that reading a reading test aloud which allows students to demonstrate the skills being assessed yet still provides information related to the underlying construct. Bolt and Thurlow (2007) expressed the item-level impact of the RAAs. The authors further explained that if the RAAs serve to remove external sources of reading struggle for students such that they can exhibit real math skill, one would expect that a RAAs would have a more significant influence on items with substantial reading requirements. Indeed, item-level studies of testing accommodation impact can help to improve effectivity of academic performance. Both theoretical and empirical evidence showed that students’ attitudes toward reading are causally related to their reading attainment although the causal link changes developmentally (Tse et al., 2016). Reed and Vaughn (2012) suggested a few strategies for effective comprehension instruction in all academic classes. These strategies included explicit vocabulary teaching, provision of comprehension strategy instruction, increased discussion time for words and texts, focused on the essential content of the subject, and supported for students’ motivation to read. Most importantly, for SWLI to understand disciplinary literacy instruction, teachers needed to instruct interdisciplinary lessons in a way SWLIs will comprehend without further complications.

**RAA and Reading State-Testing Assessments**

Until the mid-1970s, it was uncommon to see students with disabilities educated with or taking the same standardized assessments as students without disabilities (“The History of Special Education,” 2016). However, in 2017, special education students with many different impairments are taught in every school day in U.S. classrooms. One result of that change was that many researchers have explored the impact of RAAs in to SWLIs’ state testing evaluations (Barton, 2006; Crawford & Tindal, 2006; Deville & Frisbie, 2002; Dolan, Hall, Banerjee, Chun, &
Strangman, 2005; Elbaum, 2007; Lai & Berkeley, 2012; Meloy, Deville & Frisbie, 2000; Meloy, Deville, & Frisbie, 2002; Newman, 2006; Overton, 2009; Witmer et al., 2015). The results have been mixed.

Meloy et al. (2000) acknowledged that RAAs should help SWLIs without giving them the advantage over those who do not receive such accommodation, but Overton (2013) disagreed, contending that RAA creates controversy of the accuracy of results obtained from reading assessments when the test materials are read to the SWLI. Five studies supported the construct-irrelevant measures (Crawford & Tindal, 2004; Dolan et al., 2005; Elbaum, 2007; Huynh & Barton 2006; Meloy et al., 2000; Meloy et al., 2002;) as Meloy et al. (2000) stated. The research consensus was that RAAs should be considered a valid accommodation because it removes disability-relevant variance without affecting the construct-irrelevant variance (Crawford & Tindal, 2004; Elbaum, 2007).

Elbaum (2007) offered a cogent explanation of this concept: permitting students with motor difficulties to dictate their solutions and answers to mathematics problems to a writer addresses the student’s specific disability without affecting his or her mathematical skills. However, giving the accommodations to students without motor impairments would not change their test performance. Though accommodations were typically provided to offset construct-irrelevant difficulties that were assumed to be present solely for SWLIs, demonstrating that they differentially affected the performance of SWLIs when compared to SWOLIs was important (Bolt & Thurlow, 2006). If both groups of students could benefit with such accommodations, one could be argued that providing the accommodations only to SWLIs was unfair. The scores of SWLI’s should not have any effect on their test results, but other researchers claimed using the word “differential boost” to describe how a valid accommodation should have a more positive impact on scores for SWLIs than SWOLIs (Fuchs et al., 2000).
Many scholars had marshaled these findings to question the construct-irrelevant legitimacy of RAAs. Viewed from another perspective, these outlines of results highlight the need for greater variety and flexibility in the RAAs so they can be applied on a more modified basis (Dolan et al., 2005). In fact, not all SWLIs benefit from RAAs (Helwig, Rozek-Tedesco, & Tindal, 2002; Helwig, Rozek-Tedesco, Tindal, Heath & Almond, 1999; Sireci, Li, & Scarpati, 2003).

One study the use of a universal design of learning for test delivery (Dolan et al., 2005). “Universal Design for Learning (UDL) is a framework that is commonly used for guiding the construction and delivery of instruction intended to support all students” (Kennedy, Thomas, Meyer, Alves, & Lloyd, 2014, p. 1). Dolan, Hall, Banerjee, Chun, and Strangman (2005) along with Johnstone (2003) maintained that preliminary research findings suggested that SWLIs and SWOLIs may perform significantly better on tests in which universal design principles have been applied to traditionally designed tests. Theoretically, whereas the universal design for learning applies to traditional media and instructional approaches, technology is regarded by the user as a critical enabler because of its natural flexibility, which makes an approach more feasible (Dolan et al., 2005).

Teachers and SWLIs

Even as stakeholders from many sectors of society offered their opinions on academic matters, teachers were left with the full accountability of students’ academic achievement and overall academic success in the classroom. School districts blamed teachers if students do not perform well during testing. Teachers were held responsible for all aspects of learning for students to be successful and achieve academic growth year by year. Given these circumstances, education stakeholders paid close attention to the impact of the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), which went into full effect in the fall of 2017. The goal of ESSA is to lessen the pressure of standardized assessment scores’ effect on teacher accountability (Nelson, 2015). Teachers have felt the pressure
for all students to be successful on standardized assessments (Turnipseed & Darling-Hammond, 2015). Darling-Hammond, Amrien-Beardsley, Haertel, and Rothstein (2012) stated:

There is no impact or difference with regards to personal decision-making for teachers as reported by a few researchers and policymakers. Also, a viable compromise that evidence of teacher contributions to student learning should be part of the evaluations systems, along with evidence about the quality of teacher practices. (p. 1)

The NCLB legislation affected all school districts in the U.S. (Rosenberg, 2014), and teachers were held to a greater level of responsibility for the improvement of student performance because of the NCLB requirements. Special education teachers felt even more pressure because their students must take the same standardized assessments as their non-impaired peers (Walker, 2014). Consequently, the topic of including students’ standardized assessments scores on teacher evaluations has been a controversial issue for educators (Heitin, 2012). Including special education students’ scores to evaluate special education teachers became an even more complicated issue. The Council for Exceptional Children emphasized there should not be one evaluation system for all teachers. Heitin (2012) stated, “We don’t want to exclude these teachers any more than we want to exclude the child [they work with]” (para. 6).

The question remained whether standardized assessment scores should contribute to any teacher evaluation. SWLIs were required to take standardized assessments at their current grade level, although most SWLIs were not at their grade level academically, and some never will be. So, the future of SWLIs was left in the hands of the teachers. Teachers did their best to instruct, teach, and educate all children, but researchers, policymakers, and even school districts had a common ground unifying one idea that pushed the teachers to do more when they can only do so much for the education of all children.
Furthermore, Dretchen-Serapiglia (2016) indicated the current requirements for the special education teachers were limited to instruction, meaning no mandates required general education teachers received training in the special education procedures and laws. Despite the lack of mandated training, all teachers were legally responsible for complying with the law when teaching students with disabilities. As with any legal issue, ignorance of the law excuses no one (Tilson, 2011).

**RAA and Teachers’ and Students’ Perceptions**

McKevitt and Elliott, 2003 and Davis, 2010 studied students’ perception on the efficacy of RAAs on reading achievement tests, while Lackaye and Margalit (2006) and Brownell and Pajares (1999) studied teachers and students’ perceptions on RAAs efficacy. McKevitt and Elliott (2003) found that when students had two teachers, one that provided accommodation and the other who did not offer any accommodation, students preferred the teacher who provided the accommodation.

Students and teachers had different perspectives on accommodations. Teachers preferred to use accommodations they perceived to be efficient and feasible when implemented (McKevitt & Elliott, 2003). However, the effect of providing accommodations to students may, in turn, influence the teacher’s perceptions of and attitudes about testing which deserves further consideration. Lackaye and Margalet (2006) suggested that “academic self-efficacy beliefs represent the individual’s expectations and convictions about their competence” (p. 2). Furthermore, self and emotional perceptions provided additional significant factors for understanding student’s involvement in learning, however, for SWLIs, different sets of factors may predict effort. Brownell and Pajares (1999), stated that “teachers’ efficacy is circumstantial results of their capability to succeed in particular endeavors” (p. 1).
Self-Efficacy Theorists

Self-efficacy theorists contended that individuals pursue activities and situations in which they feel capable and evade those in which they do not (Brownell & Pajares, 1999; Lackaye & Margalit, 2006). The theory of self-efficacy was rooted in Bandura's social learning theory. According to Bandura (1977), self-efficacy referred to a person’s decisions about their abilities to organize and implement ways of action necessary to attain chosen kinds of performance. According to Bandura, efficacy expectations can influence how an individual initiates and persists in the face of obstacles and adversity. That is, when confronted with stressful situations, people with higher efficacy will continue, whereas individuals with lower self-efficacy will likely put forth less effort and may give up altogether (Bandura, 1977; Lackey, 2006).

Bandura presented two cognitively-based sources of motivation as part of the theory of self-efficacy: outcome expectations and efficacy expectations. Outcome expectation was defined as "a person’s estimate that a given behavior will lead to certain outcomes" whereas efficacy expectations refer to "the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior which will result in individual results" (Bandura, 1977, p. 193). The interaction of these two expectations determines the initiation and persistence of goal-directed behavior (Lackey, 2006).

General and special education teachers faced many challenges when ensuring students with disabilities are successful on standardized assessments (Cortiella & Horowitz, 2014). Teachers were required to enhance their expectations, shared ownership, collaboration, and attend professional development workshops to ensure the successes of special education students on standardized assessments.

Moore (2015) considered there to be several general dispositions and attitudes that prepared teachers to be useful: positive expectations for all students, care and concerns for all students, excitement about teaching, value in diversity, and fair treatment for all students; and
collaboration with all stakeholders including co-workers, community members, administrators, and families. These general guidelines help and assist educators to do their best in the classroom. Despite teachers’ efforts to educate and instruct all students as best they can, criticisms often put teachers’ performance and sometimes their jobs, at stake.

**Inclusive Settings for SWLIs**

The push for greater inclusion of students with disabilities in the general education classroom placed the responsibility to educate those students on both the regular education and special education teachers. General education teachers may feel unprepared and less confident in their ability to meet the needs of these students because of the lack of pre-service training preparation (Mader, 2017). The preservice preparation of special education teachers typically included specific training in instructional strategies and techniques for SWLI. It also required special education student teaching experiences, whereas most preservice general education programs usually do not contain any training in this area, nor do they incorporate required student teaching experiences in special education settings (Freytag, 2001).

Special education students must be provided fair, equal, and significant opportunity, and supports to enable them to succeed (Akintade-Ogunleye, 2012). Also, researchers believed that the majority of disabled students could reach and match the success of their fellow students at their grade level if they receive adequate support. The onus lies on teachers, administrators, and districts to provide adequate accommodations or modifications in the general education curriculum to aid students’ success. However, educators and administrators had not reached a consensus on how best to serve both SWLIs and SWOLIs, particularly in the application of data systems. Teachers, unlike administrators, were cautious in utilizing information, such as state testing data to make important decisions about their students’ strengths and weaknesses.
Synthesis of Research Findings

Findings from previous research on RAAs showed a variety of results. The push for more general settings for SWLIs created more complications than simplification. The problem called for teachers knowing how to handle both SWLIs and SWOLIs in the general education classroom. Mader (2017) stated that “the need for teachers who have both the knowledge and the ability to teach special-education students is more critical today than ever before” (p. 1). Most policymakers continued to emphasize the need for accommodations to all SWLIs, but the results of their demands showed little change. Mader (2017) stated that “the placement of SWILIs who in regular-education classrooms get more instructional time, have fewer absences, and have better post-secondary outcomes” (p. 1). However, as reading achievement of SWLIs continuously fell year after year, the drop created a domino effect of failing or barely passing reading grade, low passing score in reading state testing assessment, and increased displays of negative behavior in the classroom.

As a result, teachers removed more SWLIs from the classroom than SWOLIs. The behavior of acting out was triggered by their lack of reading skills to read grade-level materials in the classroom. To avoid struggling with this deficiency, students acted out in the school. “Recurring failures to succeed and self-concept issues often complicate a students’ ability to learn any of a variety of reading skills” (Mader, 2017). With this ongoing problem and little practice of reading, teachers often send SWLIs to school administrators to be disciplined.

Teachers and students did not have the same perceptions of situations in the classroom. Teachers felt the pressure with the state and school district mandates for educating all students on grade level materials. Alternatively, students may believe that teachers did not care enough about their learning nor themselves.
Research Findings on Reading Performance

Whereas the conclusions of a few researchers supported the findings of an increase in reading achievement, higher reading grades, and increased passing of state tests, other researchers who have studied similar topics remain unclear of the results. Even so, researchers have recommended their ways to provide support for SWLIs to be more successful in the classroom. Minou (2011) indicated that there are new international trends that have occurred regarding the education of SWLIs. These new trends focused on moving from special education to inclusive education, moving from seclusion setting to an inclusion setting and providing solutions that concentrate more on prevention, cure, and steps to make the experiences of SWLIs as normal as possible in the inclusive classroom (Minou, 2011).

Schwab and Hessels (2015) agreed with Minou (2011) on the importance of inclusive education for SWLIs. Even though both types of students received the same content of materials except SWLIs having IEPs, their performance differs in many ways. Test results indicated that for most SWLIs and some SWOLIs, packages of testing accommodations per their IEP documents had a moderate to significant effect on performance task scores; this circumstance was right even after expert reviewers rated their accommodations as both valid and fair (Elliott, Kratochwill, & McKeivitt, 2009). Bielinski and Ysseldyke (2000) also found that there was a substantial increase in the performance gap over time between SWLIs and SWOLIs across grades even after the reduction of the exemption rate as mandated by IDEA of 1997. This situation called for a significant decrease of performance gap across grades as both SWLIs and SWOLIs met the same expectations set for them in the classroom, and more so for the SWLIs who were not appropriately provided with accommodations.

To alleviate the ongoing issues of the lack of reading skills of SWLIs, different researchers advised similar suggestions to help resolve the issue. Fuchs and Fuchs (2015) suggested
developing and implementing intensive instruction. Reed and Vaughn (2012) recommended the integration of comprehensive instruction for students with reading disabilities such as improving reading outcomes for both types of poor readers and challenging readers to utilize school-wide instructional practices into different content areas such as math, science, and social studies. Abedi et al. (2012) concluded otherwise, suggesting a strategy for reading assessments accessibility for SWLIs. Abedi et al. (2012) explained that visual and textual features, which may depend on the individual’s learning styles, create a more significant impact on SWLIs and SWOLIs.

Fuchs and Fuchs (2015) suggested rethinking service delivery to address the problems of SWLI’s by developing and implementing intensive instruction. The authors stated that even with the implementation of instructional interventions, many SWLIs still did not see the benefit of the intensive instructions provided by their teachers. The reason for SWLIs lack of progress was the failure to implement the instructional programs by directly addressing students’ difficulties when moving from elementary to middle school. Other reasons were inconsistent instruction and strategies for addressing struggling students’ linguistic and cognitive limitations as well as lack of proper use of implementation features that could help optimize how students apply what they learn.

**Researchers’ Findings on Grading**

Many questions and concerns revolved around the grading practices. New grading policies, often vary from state to state and school district to school district. Bursuck, Munk, and Olson (1999) called for fairness in report card grading adaptations. For example, teachers might change grading criteria by “varying classification weights, modifying curricular expectations, using contracts and amended courses syllabi, or grading improvement” (p. 85).

Three groups of researchers considered a different solution to address the problem of grading (Guskey & Jung, 200; Jung & Guskey, 2007; Proulx, Spencer-May, & Westerberg, 2012).
These authors suggested a standards-based grading and reporting strategy that could help SWLIs improve their grades as compared to the traditional grading system. As the problem of fairness in grading arises, standards-based grading would mainly allow teachers to report only on individual components of learning. Further, general education teachers and special education teachers could both participate in grading SWLIs’ work thus setting a sound basis for assigning appropriate grades. However, the situation cannot be done at all times because of the regular and special education teachers’ roles overlap. For standardization, appropriate and suitable grades for students must be developed firsts (Guskey & Jung, 2009). For a standards-based education, grades are determined by students’ mastery of state standards determine their grades and benchmarks and are no longer based on traditional grading (Proulx et al., 2012).

One research group studied teachers’ fairness in interpretations of standards-based grading principles (Tierney, Simon, & Charland, 2011). Their investigation led to the conclusion that teachers’ decisions on assigning grades could have long-lasting social, emotional, and academic consequences for students. Mahrous and Kortam (2012) studied student evaluations on teachers’ effectiveness in assigning fair grades, where the demand for the requirement of quality instructional services in higher education is paramount. Hodges (2014) conducted a unique study on grade inflation and explained: “Grade inflation refers to giving higher grades to student work than our expectations for student achievement warrant” (Hodges, 2014, p. 1). Hodges explained the various reasons as to why grade inflation occurs. Two of the more obvious reasons for grade inflation was that teachers did not know what the set expectations were for their students or did not know precisely how to communicate those expectations to the students. Hodges suggested clarifying learning expectations to avoid grade inflation.
**Research Findings on Standardized Tests**

When a student has reading deficits, coping with the required academic standards is more difficult than the test-taking on grade-level standards (Overton, 2013). One problem for students who had reading deficits was able to participate in grade-level standardized tests. SWLIs continued to struggle as compared to SWOLIs. Therefore, many researchers shared different views on the reading ability and academic performance of SWLIs when state testing occurs the end of the year.

Even with accommodations, if a child continues to have a reading disability, measuring the actual performance of a child is more (Overton, 2013). Abedi and Faltis (2015) and Koretz and Hamilton (2000) studied assessments of SWLIs, and both groups concluded that inappropriate use of accommodations per IEP is one reason why SWLIs obtain low scores, if not fail the test altogether. Koretz and Hamilton (2000) found no reliable or consistent perception between test format and the performance of students. Abedi and Faltis (2015) addressed two concerns— the validity of assessments of SWLIs and English Language Learners (ELL). For both types of students, addressing and recognizing their academic needs is imperative; failure to do so will lead to an expanding performance gap will continue to extend and potential failure on their educational path. Further, Abedi and Faltis (2015) and Koretz and Hamilton (2000) suggested the development of a new generation of assessments that address the deficits of SWLIs and even SWOLIs which may include ELL students.

Abedi and Faltis (2015) also asserted that teacher assessments are necessary to address concerns about students’ failure in testing. The authors stated that teachers should have the knowledge and skills to understand the instructional strategies and students’ academic performance in school, but the teachers’ lack of understanding the tools to apply the knowledge during classroom instruction impeded students’ understanding of the assessment.
Several groups of researchers studied the impact of RAAs on standardized test scores for both SWLIs and SWOLIs. Their results showed similar findings which revealed that SWLIs yielded significant gains in their performance because of RAA. Results were identical in SWOLIs, but less so than occurred in SWLIs. The state of Louisiana, the setting for this study, uses the Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers (PARCC) test. Bowman, Wiener, Reavis, and Griswold (2014) explained the nature of the assessment:

> By applying principles of universal design, leveraging technology, embedding accessibility features, and allowing a broad range of accommodations, PARCC intends to provide opportunities for the most extensive possible number of students to demonstrate knowledge and skills while maintaining high expectations for all students to achieve the CCSS [Common Core State Standards]. (p. 1)

PARCC also addressed accommodations for SWLIs. This iterative process ensured that the accessibility featured and accommodations students received on PARCC-assessments provided a precise image of what they know and can do but do not alter the construct of what was being assessed. Lazarus and Thurlow (2016) further explained the reason for the PARCC assessment and why accommodations are still necessary for SWLIs, stating that “the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) confirmed the participation requirements for students with disabilities and added requirements for the involvement of English learners (ELs) in state-administered assessments” (p. 1).

Russell and Kavanaugh (2011) saw a different challenge and even developed strategies and techniques for assessing those students in the margin—“whose characteristics and needs differ from what the public thinks of as the general population of students” (p. 1). The authors presented developments and efforts in different areas:
The first area focuses on strategies for improving test validity through the provision of test accommodations. The second area focuses on alternate and modified assessments. Federal policies now allow testing programs to develop and administer alternate assessments for students who have not been exposed to grade-level content and thus are not expected to demonstrate proficiency on grade-level assessments. (p. 1)

Also in support of some testing differentiation, Jamgochian and Ketterlin-Geller (2015) specified that only a minimal number of children with the most severe or profound intellectual disabilities participate in a third-option alternate assessment which is an alternative assessment based on alternate achievement standards. Some students with persistent academic difficulties participated in a third option which was an alternate assessment based on modified achievement standards.

**Research Findings on Teacher Efficacy and Behavior**

Many researchers studied student behavior particularly with SWLIs with some authors sharing similar perceptions (Brownell & Pajares, 1999; Davis, 2010; Feldman et al., 2011; Lackaye & Margalit, 2006; McKevitt & Elliott, 2003; White, 2014). As more SWLIs are included in the regular education classrooms, teacher efficacy behaviors are even more critical to the academic achievement of these diverse student populations (White, 2014). Brownell and Pajares (1999) concurred that teachers’ efficacy is a contextual judgment of their capability to be successful in their instructional endeavor.

Lackaye and Margalit (2006) investigated different groups of SWLIs and their peers, with results indicating that achievement, academic self-efficacy, negative mood, and hope predicted the effort investment for SWLIs. Most importantly, Lackaye and Margalit brought some understanding of the significance of trust in most of the SWLIs. Feldman et al. (2011) indicated that testing accommodations might have had a positive effect on student’s testing performance by
improving test-related self-efficacy and motivation, most especially for SWLIs. In contrast, Davis (2010) and McKevitt and Margalit (2003) asserted testing accommodations have been hindering academic success and invalidating the effect of test scores for SWLIs. Moreover, assessment accommodation may do more harm than good because they lower expectations for most SWLIs, thus decreasing their academic achievement.

White (2014) further specified that “at the center of the teaching and learning process is student achievement. Teacher efficacy concluded that particular teacher attitudes and behaviors created the learning situations that could either improve the teaching and learning process or hinder it” (p. 7). Sorlie and Torsheim (2011) studied the different perception of teacher efficacy and problem behavior of students. Further, Sorlie and Torsheim (2011) stated that schools with high collective efficiency were expected to have fewer student behavior problems than schools with low collective efficiency, both concurrently and over time. Satter (2013) studied a conceptual framework of self-efficacy that analyzes the perspectives of students with challenging behaviors in the classroom that could significantly affect the teacher-student relationship. Satter’s (2013) findings suggested that service delivery models can create barriers to developing and sustaining positive teacher-student relationships. Moreover, Rew (2013) studied teacher efficacy given instructional leaders’ practices and teacher efficacy in the school. Rew stated that though school principals have an indirect influence on students’ academic achievement, school practices can still bridge the gap between student achievement and teacher efficacy.

Lilla (2016) conducted a study similar to Rew’s (2013) by also focusing on principals’ transformational leadership which impact teachers efficacy. Lilla’s findings revealed that “teaching efficacy was high when all six principal leadership behaviors were present; however, no perception emerged between personal teaching efficacy and principal leadership” (p. iii). In a study, of the perception between teacher efficacy and student behavior, Micek (2014) examined
classroom teachers’ “perceived self-efficacy, specifically regarding their behavior management strategies, before and after the implementation of school-wide positive behavior supports” (p.1). Micek’s findings revealed that there was an overall increase in self-efficacy concerning teachers’ more effective strategies for classroom management.

Critiques of Previous Research

Previous research failed to address the issue of the need for more data on the impact of RAAs to reading achievement, reading grades, reading state tests, and overall classroom behavior of SWLIs. Fuchs and Fuchs (2015) explained the reason for the failure to address the impact of RAAs was because of the low performance of SWLIs. Students continued to fail not because schools were providing less intensive instruction, but because schools are not recognizing the need for RAAs and the loss of the know-how to do it correctly to both SWLIs and SWOLIs. Subsequent legislation and educational practices were in one accord to provide the education these SWLIs needed to be successful.

Questions and Critiques about the Impact of RAA

Reed and Vaughn (2012) studied different subject areas such as math, science, and social studies to address reading disability. Their research culminated only in a summary of recommendations for teaching reading comprehension in each content area as a means of enhancing both readings for understanding and learning for students who have reading difficulties. Their article discussed the need for disciplinary literacy instruction for students with reading disabilities, which is valuable information for the reader. However, Reed and Vaughn (2012) did not specify research questions to be addressed in their research. Further, this article was more generic than specific, including details on students’ demographics and socio-economic status.

Schmitt et al. (2011) stated that there was no significant impact on factual or inferential comprehension from listening while reading or silent reading. Their findings revealed that even
after controlling for general reading ability, there was neither effect present for listening while reading nor interaction effect present for silent reading. Schmitt et al. focused primarily on remedial readers. However, there was a relevance to their study for SWLI. Most SWLIs were poor decoders. Therefore, SWLIs will also struggle to keep up with grade-level materials.

Minou’s (2011) study on RAAs set the stage for SWLIs, but her article was a simple elaboration of different and new trends in education. Hollenbeck (2011) suggested an instructional makeover to support the reading comprehension of students with learning disabilities in a discussion-based format presenting three different perspectives in comprehension instruction for SWLIs. The focus was on developing students’ metacognition and encouraging students to think in non-literal ways to comprehend the text the teacher presented. To be able to direct understanding in SWLIs, Hollenbeck (2011) suggested teachers take on the active role of engaging students of naming, explaining, and modeling strategy to use as well as engaging students in conversations. One of the strengths of Hollenbeck’s article was the suggestion that the teacher uses instructional strategies to develop questioning skills while slowly releasing the responsibility to the students to ask questions on their own. The strength came through grouping students according to their reading level and not by disability status. However, Hollenbeck did not provide a hypothesis to show evidence that the intervention did work and the poor presentations of the limitations of the interventions.

Li (2014) performed a meta-analysis study on the impact of RAA on students with and without disabilities. There was a positive effect for SWLIs while the effect size for SWOLIs was minimal. Elliott et al. (2009) considered only the impact of testing accommodations. Their study was an extension of a previous study conducted in 2001, but Elliott et al. compared the IEPs with accommodations teachers preferred to use. The findings showed significant results because of the packages of accommodations provided for both types of students.
Furthermore, Elliott et al. (2009) used hypothesized analysis instead of research questions regarding the validity and fairness of the use of accommodations during standardized testing and performance assessments. Schwab and Hessels (2015) used a two-step regression analysis. The results showed that SWLIs was the only variable to predict changes in both mastery orientation and performance-avoidance orientation. The authors’ presented study was an analysis of the goal orientations from both SWLIs and SWOLIs.

Indeed, a variety of results had been observed in the studies reviewed. These results may effect from the types of accommodations used for SWLIs, the manner in which they were presented, the familiarity of the students with accommodations provided, or the research design used, but still unknown was the understanding of the different perception of the participants on RAAs for both SWLIs and SWOLIs.

Questions and Critiques about Grading Practices

Most SWLIs struggled with their reading ability since they stepped into their early stage of schooling and their literacy skills continued to suffer while their teachers failed to address their specific needs. Students had different perceptions of their teachers who were trying to provide the instruction in the classroom. Many research had developed grading adaptations for SWLIs to augment their grades in comparison with SWOLIs. For example, Bursuck et al. (1996) conducted a study on report card grading and adaptations based on a national survey of classroom practices for elementary and secondary general education teachers. Their research indicated that SWLIs preferred letter grade and numbers and specific grading adaptations helped both SWLIs and SWOLIs.
Implications of Standards-Based Grading

Several researchers conducted studies that incorporated standards-based grading and also explored why the transition to standards-based grading was potentially beneficial to SWLIs (Guskey & Jung, 2009; Jung & Guskey, 2007; Proulx et al., 2012).

Guskey and Jung (2009) posited that the move to standards-based grading could potentially complicate efforts in assigning fair and accurate grades to SWLIs. Accuracy can be in jeopardy in cases of heavy grading adaptations for SWLIs. An inclusive classification model could also help determine if SWLIs achieved each step to advance in school. When and if all the steps were completed, the actual grade was then earned. Proulx et al. (2012) stated that accuracy is increased by basing grades on trend scores or what students know and can do at the end of instruction, rather than on an average of what they knew or did not know at various points during the learning process.

Fairness of Grading

Grades can have long-term implications for students. Whether teachers’ based students’ grades on what they deserved or through many possible adaptations of grading, students carry the reported grades all their life. Students can question the validity and fairness of their grades, but individuals who were concerned about grading included teachers. Fairness and validity must always be considered when grades were discussed as grades can be magnified or falsified. Researchers discussed the principles for standards-based grading which they claimed to be entirely different from policies for standards-based grading. In another view, Bursuck et al. (1999) considered some evidence to suggest why teacher adaptations of grades are beneficial based on their perceptions. For instance, sometimes teachers can apply too much grade inflation a student was known to come from an influential family in the community. Grading can always make a two-fold effect on a student—good grade with less knowledge or low grade full of knowledge.
Another way to clarify confusion is to demystify learning expectations to address grade inflation (Hodges, 2014). Hodges (2014) stated that general stress, time demands, and pressure from school administrators for quality teaching evaluations could potentially push teachers to inflate grades. When teachers had clear expectations from their leaders, they were less likely to inflate grades. Further, if teachers knew what they wanted their students to learn and earn, they can avoid grade inflation. Using rubrics, for example, may abolish subjectivity in grading. Essentially, helping students understand the value of their work, created fairness.

**Implications of Reading Aloud for Reading State Test Scores**

Buzick and Stone (2014) conducted a meta-analysis study that mainly focused on a summary of quantitative research on RAAs for K-12 assessments. Buzick and Stone (2014) revealed that the RAAs increases reading test scores for both SWLIs and SWOLIs, but more so for SWLIs. Elbaum (2007) also did a meta-analysis study which revealed that oral accommodations have a better impact on SWLIs than SWOLIs. Crawford and Tindal (2010) suggested using reading aloud modifications because students who take tests with changes are not considered participants, and their scores do not count nor are reported. However, some SWLIs were unable to participate in the state testing assessment under the standards administration.

**Summary**

No known available studies have evaluated, analyzed, investigated, or examined the different perception of the participants on the impact of RAAs for both SWLIs and SWOLIs. Previous research had shown significance on the impact of RAAs in reading, math, science, or social studies (Elliott at al., 2006; Li, 2014; Schmitt et al., 2011; 2009; Schwab & Hessels, 2015). Many researchers also indicated that teachers showed preferences when giving grades to SWLIs, used of grading adaptations to the point of grade inflation, or created a new paradigm of fairness and validity of report card grades using standards-based grading (Munk & Olson, 1999; Bursuck et
None of the research studies discussed the actual grades of SWLIs and SWOLIs after the provision of RAAs, modifications, grading adaptations, and alternative participation of testing for SWLIs.

Various researchers (Bolt & Thurlow, 2006; Buzick & Stone, 2014; Craford & Tindal, 2010; Elbaum, 2007; Huynh & Barton, 2006; Lai & Berkeley, 2012; Meloy et al., 2000; Meloy et al., 2002; Overton, 2013; Witmer et al., 2015) investigated many facets of using accommodations. These facets included the impact of RAAs on standardized test scores of both SWLIs and SWOLIs, either in reading or other subject areas; the impact of reading aloud modifications, item-level impact of the RAAs for SWLIs; comprehension examination using two-text types; patterns of statewide participation; impact of SWLIs’ perceptions and academic growth; research and practice on high-stakes testing accommodations; and meta-analysis studies. None of the studies discussed comparable scoring of state test results between SWLIs and SWOLIs.

Several researchers also investigated the impact and perceived consequences of RAAs on a reading achievement test, teacher efficacy, perceived success of SWLIs with behavior issues in an inclusive setting, impact of accommodations on adolescents self-efficacy in their test performance, comparison of self-perceptions, achievement gaps, and impact of accommodation for emotionally disturbed students (Brownell & Pajares, 1999; Davis, 2010; Feldman et al., 2011; Lackaye & Margalit, 2006; McKevitt & Elliott, 2003). However, these research studies failed to mention the actual behavior grades of SWLIs and SWOLIs, discipline history, and reasons for students being put out of the classroom.

Based on this review and the information contained in this chapter concerning points such as conceptual frameworks, education, legislation, and teacher-and-student self-efficacy, the researcher in this study believed the study would yield significant findings.
Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction to Chapter 3

The researcher’s purpose of this study was to gather in-depth information about the impact of read-aloud accommodations (RAAs) to both SWLIs and SWOLIs using descriptive case study and to analyze and investigate the validity, reliability, and utility of the content of the results. Durepos, Mills, and Weibe (2010) defined descriptive case study as “one that is focused and detailed, in which propositions and questions about a phenomenon are carefully scrutinized and articulated at the outset” (p. 1). The sample consisted of 15 parents and six teachers who were advocates for learning of all the elementary students (both SWLIs and SWOLIs) enrolled in an elementary school. The participants were purposely selected. The researcher used “purposive sampling technique that aims to achieve a sample whose units (e.g., people, cases, etc.) share the same (or very similar) characteristics or traits (e.g., a group of people that are similar in terms of age, gender, background, occupation, etc.)” (LAERD Dissertation, 2012, p. 2). Also, the researcher used “purposive sampling technique to show an interest in the normality or typicality of the units (e.g., people, cases, events, settings/context, places/sites) the researcher is interested, because they are normal or typical” (LAERD Dissertation, 2012, p. 2). Both types of students had access to RAAs from their regular education teachers and special education teachers during the whole group reading classes in the classroom and receive reading aloud accommodation at home from the student’s parents. The researcher focused only on one primary school located in a school district in Louisiana.

The researcher used a qualitative method descriptive case study instead of a quantitative approach to this research. Descriptive case study was used to study the participants’ content of their responses to the interviews and questions. Quantitative method sought for statistical measurement of specific data whereas qualitative method allowed for direct analysis of the two or
more groups on multiple outcomes. In this study, the researcher used descriptive case study over grounded or phenomenological theory due to the limited time frame of the study. Also, the researcher studied only the participants’ responses based on their understanding and knowledge of the research questions and not based on individual culture or behavior. The researcher wanted to understand the various perceptions of the participants on the impact of reading aloud accommodation to both SWLIs and SWOLIs and not on seeking measurable and statistical data measures. Baxter and Jack (2010) explained that “qualitative case study methodology provides tools for novice researchers to study complex phenomena within their contexts” (p. 1). The process used for collecting data is triangulation. Blythe, Bryant, Carter, DiCenso, and Neville (2014) defined triangulation as,

> Triangulation refers to the use of several methods or data sources in qualitative research to develop a comprehensive understanding of phenomena. Triangulation also has been viewed as a qualitative research strategy to test validity through the convergence of information from different sources. (p. 1)

This was an appropriate method to collect data because the researcher chose to determine the insights and ideas from participants if there were changes between the two groups on several outcome variables in addition to the researcher’s field notes observations on the participants’ behavior during the interviews and questions. “Triangulation increases the confidence in research data, creating innovative ways of understanding a phenomenon, revealing unique findings, challenging or integrating theories, and providing a clearer understanding of the problem” (Tabassum, 2014, p. 3). The data were collected, analyzed, investigated and cross-verified.

The purpose of this qualitative descriptive case study was to seek a better understanding of the content of the responses of the participants’ perceptions of the students reading comprehension accommodations impact on reading, high-stakes test in reading, and overall classroom behavior of
students. Also, participants’ responses were analyzed for its impact on students’ overall reading performance. All SWLIs in the chosen location received RAAs; however, even SWOLIs can indirectly benefit from RAAs most particularly during whole-group lessons and testing.

The Louisiana State Standards comprised all the grade level standards a student was expected to learn. Each day, teachers must teach at least two or three grade-level standards, and SWLIs and SWOLIs have to learn the skills taught thoroughly. To assess learning, students took a weekly test in reading and had to earn passing marks. A passing grade meant the child was ready to learn the next grade-level standard. Also, as a way to test students’ retention of knowledge of specific grade-level standards, the Department of Education of Louisiana provided an end-of-the-year statewide assessment to all students in the state. The assessment was a good indicator of whether students had mastered the skills and the grade-level standards taught within the academic year. The data was taken from the participants in the school where the researcher works, participants answers to interviews and questions.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this qualitative descriptive case study was to seek a better understanding of the content of the responses of the participants’ perceptions of the students’ read-aloud accommodations’ impact on students. Also, the researcher wanted to study the impact of RAAs on reading, high-stakes test in reading, and classroom behavior of for fourth- and fifth-grade students. The researcher wanted to know additional information on the concerns of the participants on read-aloud accommodations to students at home and at school as perceived by some parents and some teachers.

**Research Questions**

This study utilized different sources to collect data. Based on the design and the variables, the data analysis used to test the research questions was a descriptive case study. All interview and
questions responses will be analyzed and described in addition to the field notes observations recorded by the researcher. This qualitative research study addressed two main research problems:

RQ1. How do some teachers perceive reading comprehension accommodations for both SWLIs and SWOLIs in their reading, state test, and classroom behavior in both fourth and fifth grades?

RQ2. How do some parents perceive reading comprehension accommodations for their children when they take state tests for both SWLIs and SWOLIs?

Research Design

To understand the different perception of the participants on RAAs for both SWLIs and SWOLIs, the researcher selected qualitative research design mainly descriptive case study. The researcher wanted to uncover whether some parents and some teachers’ perceptions of reading aloud accommodation has a high impact on both SWLIs and SWOLIs. This was done by analyzing the content of the responses of each participant and find similarities and commonalities of ideas. Durepos, Mills, and Weibe (2010) defined descriptive case study as “one that is focused and detailed, in which propositions and questions about a phenomenon are carefully scrutinized and articulated at the outset” (p. 1). Furthermore, the researcher explored whether students with SWLIs had less need for RAAs than SWOLIs and how field notes observations from the researcher will further authenticate participants’ behavior towards the impact of read-aloud accommodations to students in the classroom and at home.

Target Population, Sampling Method, and Related Procedures

The target population of the study was the fourth- and fifth-grade teachers and parents in Title 1 schools in Louisiana. The participants were from a suburban school district in Shreveport, Louisiana. Most of these parents are of low socio-economic status. Parents showed low-to-moderate support for their children’s academic situation. There were a total of 21 participants
included in the research study; this was a reasonable number for collecting, analyzing, and gathering data due to limited time. Also, it would be able to provide a holistic and thorough explanation of the data due to the limited timeframe. The qualitative data was rich with descriptive information which offered accurate results of the participants’ perception of RAAs for both SWLIs and SWOLIs. It also enabled the researcher to carefully examine and provided an in-depth explanation of the data within the specific content. The data elements to be used in this study were raw data from interview and questionnaire answers from participants. The researcher needed to apply the descriptive case analysis for this study particularly the use of data triangulation. Barbour (2001) stated that “triangulation addresses the issue of internal validity by using more than one method of data collection to answer a research question” (p. 3).

**Instrumentation**

Interviews, questionnaires, and field notes were part of the instrumentation of this study. The researcher conducted a semi-structured interview and provided two different sets of questionnaires to participants. Doyle (2017) defined a “semi-structured interview as a meeting in which the interviewer does not strictly follow a formalized list of questions” (p. 1). The interview occurred via face-to-face without audio and video recording. The researcher brought paper, pens, and computer to take notes of the interviewees’ responses during the interview. The researcher asked more open-ended questions, allowing for a discussion with the interviewee rather than a straightforward question and answer format (see Appendix C). The researcher wanted to cover an in-depth one-to-one interview with the participant in 45 minutes. A questionnaire (see Appendix D) was a research tool consisting of a series of questions to gather information from participants (McLeod, 2018). The researcher wanted to obtain participants’ opinions and information on the series of questions being asked. Interviews can be carried out face-to-face, by telephone, computer or post (McLeod, 2018). Data from the interviews and questionnaires were validated by
comparing the responses against field notes and observations that the researcher recorded. This process provided a means for establishing the credibility of the data.

**Data Collection**

First, the researcher obtained permission from the school administrator via letter to disseminate questionnaires and to conduct interviews with teachers and parents in the school. Also, the researcher provided the participant’s consent form before doing the interview and questioning. Information on the letter was added to the index data of this research (see Appendices A and B). The interviews and questionnaires provided to the participants were read and explained. Some parents and some teachers both signed consents to be able to take part in the interviews and questions. It was a one-on-one, face-to-face process. The researcher conducted the interview using notes, pens, interview, and questionnaire handouts, and computer to be able to take down critical points of the interviewees’ responses without harming reliability, validity, and transparency. The researcher used the Individually Focused Interview (TIFI) as an alternative way to find the immediate discourses that were attached to the main issue as discussed by Clausen (2012).

Clausen (2012) further added that during the interview, a consensus would be reached with the individual participants concerning of his or her statements should be written down. The author added that the individual participants’ responses were written down in keyword format, preferably using the expressions, words, and phrases from the individual participants.

In some cases, an entire quote can be written down if there was an agreement that the sentence was accurate and apt for the theme in questions. Also, Loubere (2017) stated that he is also in accord with conducting interviews without audio-video transcriptions. Loubere (2017) reported that verbatim transcriptions could limit the kind of information that may be considered valuable as data, and delay the process of data reduction and analysis, separating the researcher from the fieldwork event. Loubere (2017) introduced an alternative way to collect, categorize,
code, and analyze qualitative data: the systematic reflexive interviewing and reporting (SRIR). The SRIR method utilized semi-structured and unstructured interview conducted by two or more researchers. After completing the interviews, the researcher engaged in reflexive dialogue with the interviewee and jointly write the interview and analyzes the reports, in this process the SRIR method began the process of coding and analysis in its original form, thus facilitating critical engagement themes during the fieldwork rather than afterward. Al-Yateem (2013) also stated that while recording helped researchers keep accurate records of interviews, which in turn assisted them during their data analysis” (p.1). Also, Al-Yateem (2013) further stated that she noticed that “recording affected the ease with which participants exchanged data with me and their comfort levels during the interview” (p. 3). Although there is significant literature about the recording of interviews (Fernandez & Griffiths 2007; Given, 2004; Stockdale, 2002) that recommended its use, there is a lack of information about any effect such recording might have on the interviewee and consequently on the quality of data obtained. Also, according to Woods (2015), the author stated that it is not mandatory to make audio recordings of interviews. Asking participants to comment on notes or summary is often a good practice when it is feasible, but it is not necessary. Kumar (2018) agreed that the interviewer could either write the response at the time of the interview or after the interview. “Recording answers can be done through taking notes, audio-recording, or both” (Evaluation Toolbox, 2010, p. 1). One of the constraints to audio-recording is whether the respondent will feel at ease answering questions. Taking notes was generally seen as less threatening, and it also kept the interviewer involved in the process. Taking notes allowed the interviewer to “highlight key points to prove further, and also may make the production of the final notes and its evaluation quicker as there is no need to wade through large files of transcripts” (Evaluation Toolbox, 2010, p. 2). Further, in both unstructured and semi-structured interviews, a method of documenting the responses is required. This can be by digital recording or note taking
(with the informed consent of the interviewee). In either case “the interview process is a flexible one, with the emphasis on the answers given by the interviewee” (The Open University, 2018, p. 2).

All data was collected at the same school which served as the research site. The data collected were investigated and were stored on a password-protected computer and encrypted storage media. The documents were secured for three years and will be deleted after the three years pass.

Data Analysis

Conducting a qualitative descriptive case study required different sources of information such as interviews, field notes, and questionnaires. The researcher conducted a semi-structured interview and provided questionnaires to participants. The researcher presented a detailed descriptive explanation of the data using Yin’s (2011) thematic analysis. These steps were followed by the research methodology and analysis part of this research. Yin’s (2011) thematic analysis steps are as follows: the first step is data review as the transcription process is performed. The second step is disassembling of codes and data. The third step is reassembling and a constant review of the data to identify recurring patterns of information and emerging themes. The fourth step is the analysis and interpretation of data. The fifth step is an interpretation of themes.

Data Analysis Procedures

The study used multiple data sources (interviews and questionnaires) which were common for this type of data analysis and field notes from the researchers. Then, the data sources were triangulated to see patterns and consistency of ideas. The researcher of this study relied on the participants’ responses. Analysis of the documents took 60-90 minutes for each participant’s response. Then, the researcher began coding each transcript to find specific themes and sub-themes to provide a relationship between the variables and factors to create a reasonable and
logical chain of evidence (Creswell 2009). The researcher looked for similarities and differences between the codes to begin grouping the words into a hierarchical structure. The new themes and sub-themes were created to capture the meaning of groups of initial codes. This process was repeated for each participant’s response until new themes were sufficiently abstracted to describe and explain all the initial themes and sub-themes. After all the repetition of the process, the researcher was able to translate the participants’ responses and coded them accordingly.

Interview data analysis. Interviews were used to determine participants’ understanding or misunderstanding of the impact of reading aloud to student’s overall reading performance. An initial interview was conducted, and participants were physically visited and invited to conduct the interview and then set the time and date for the interview to happen. Then, the researcher took down notes from the participant’s responses noting key points and details from the researcher. During the interviews, the researcher took notes and wrote comments as they occurred.

Additionally, the researcher wrote any new questions or specific thoughts that occurred immediately following the interview. The interview data were transcribed in the researcher’s laptop and asked the participant for a member check right after each meeting to check of its accuracy and to ensure the validity of the data for answering the interview questions. After all of the interviews were conducted and responses typed onto a laptop, the researcher printed all of the scripts to do manual coding. Interview results were analyzed both at individual and aggregate levels. The similarities and differences of the participants’ opinions helped the researcher to code out particular themes and sub-themes as emerging patterns of themes and sub-themes were identified. Appendices A and B are related to the consent to conduct interviews and are found at the end of this research document. Appendix C represents the interview list of questions for the participants.
**Questionnaire data analysis.** Questionnaires were used to verify the likelihood of participants’ agreement or disagreement on the impact of reading aloud to students’ overall reading performance. Each participant was asked to answer 10 questions which he/she was asked to provide as much details on the questions. Participants were asked for clarifications on some of the keywords in the questions in which the researcher explained it simply. The responses were then transcribed and typed into the researcher’s laptop. After typing, the researcher printed the scripts. The results from the questionnaire were analyzed both at individual and aggregate levels. The researcher used highlighters to find out patterns of emerging themes and sub-themes. The data was reviewed and read several times to see patterns of similar categories. The similarities and differences of the participants’ opinions helped the researcher to code out particular themes and sub-themes as finding out emerging patterns of themes and sub-themes were initialized.

Participant’s responses to this questionnaire provide additional information to answer the researcher’s research questions. Appendices related to the questionnaires are found at the end of this research document. Appendix D represents the list of questions for the participants.

**Participants’ field notes analysis.** Field notes were used to write transcripts of observations or conversations held during the data collection process (Thorpe & Holte, 2008). The researcher kept field notes on the participant’s responses during the interview. The researcher took field notes right after every meeting of the participants to be able to carry out raw data and observation from the participants. The researcher was able to document observations, both of specific individuals and of the overall setting of the participants during their formalized meeting times. These notes contained information that provided evidence with which to address the research questions being investigated. Some participants understood the questions, and some asked for more explanation. Some asked questions that were not part of the questions or
interviews. Few participants also showed concerns about their child’s academic performance in school. Overall, the participants answered the questions to the best of their ability.

**Triangulation method.** The triangulation method of collecting data was from sets of questionnaires, interview questions, and field notes. Participants’ responses were raw and robust data. Cohen and Crabtree (2008) explained triangulation as “a single method that can never adequately shed light on a phenomenon in which using multiple methods can help facilitate deeper understanding” (p. 1). The researcher used the triangulation method to conduct the thematic analysis. All of the responses from each participant was reviewed, read, re-read, and interpreted to be able to find out emerging themes and sub-themes in conducting thematic analysis using Yin’s approach. Utilizing Denzin’s (1978) basic types of triangulation. Also, the researcher employed data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation, and methodological triangulation. Data triangulation using several sampling strategies was employed. For example, the researcher compared questionnaire responses data with the interview data. The researcher compared what was said during the interview morning sessions with what the participants told during afternoon sessions for consistency over time. Also, the researcher used visualization and brainstorming strategies to tabulate patterns of emerging themes and sub-themes. As discussed by Denzin (1978), within-method triangulation and investigator triangulation involved cross-checking for internal consistency. This type of triangulation allows the gathering of data at different times, in different social situations, and from various participants. Theory triangulation was employed by using multiple perspectives to analyze and interpret the data. Finally, methodological triangulation allowed the researcher to confirm ideas, patterns, and themes in the data by identifying them using multiple methods. Also, data triangulation validated data and research by cross verifying the same information; henceforth, it strengthens the research study because the data has increased its credibility and validity (Writing Content Solution, 2018). Once all the entries were gathered,
analyzed, and cross-verified, the data will be ready for an in-depth analysis using thematic analysis.

**Thematic analysis.** The thematic analysis followed after all of the participants’ responses from triangulation of data sources were transcribed to a password-protected computer. Using Yin’s (2011) thematic analysis model, the researcher performed the following steps: For the first step of the thematic analysis, each data source was reviewed as the transcription process was completed. Initially, the interview documents were the first to be transcribed into a blank text, followed by the questionnaire responses, and then the field notes respectively. Next, each data source was analyzed individually. At this point, the researcher was reviewing, reading and rereading only the documents using visualization and brainstorming strategies to see patterns of words, phrases, or sentences need to be placed in a similar category. The researcher repeated the same process until a pattern of emergent themes and sub-themes occurred.

Yin’s coded model (2011) suggested the disassembling of codes and data as the second step. Disassembling in this study included organizing transcribed data in individual folders and assigning a file name for each data source. Disassembling involves data reduction. During the disassembling step, some of the participant’s responses were reduced as it was found unrelated and redundant to the research questions. The entire disassembling step incorporated highlighting the participant’s significant words, phrases, and patterns of thoughts to merge into codes.

During this process, the researcher color coded ideas. Similar ideas were grouped into headings. The other ideas that were part of the big ideas were placed as sub-headings. The researcher used letters and number combinations to group similar categories and sub-categories. Also, the researcher used multi-color highlighters and pens to color code ideas. Then, the transcripts were drafted in another blank document grouping similar categories for themes and sub-themes and then saved to a password-protected computer. The same procedures occurred for the
questionnaire responses and field notes when searching for themes and sub-themes. The data assembling from different data sources confirmed participants’ convergent thinking was providing evidence of triangulation from the data sources.

The third step involves Yin’s reassembling (2011) and a constant review of the data to identify recurring patterns of information and emerging themes to uncover meanings and evidence of the development of critical thinking from participants. Yin (2011) described reassembling as “playing with the data” (p. 191). During the reassembling, patterns from the sources and codes were revisited, interpreted, and related to other information from the data. Codes were refined and combined to develop selective codes and themes. At this point, the researcher reviewed the saved data and identified recurring patterns of ideas. The researcher reorganized ideas on the same headings and sub-headings to check and balance the unity and solidity of topics on the same category. The researcher reduced, deduced, and combined patterns in the data into similar ideas during this process.

The fourth step of the analysis involves the interpretation of data (Yin, 2011). After all the deliberation of the first three steps, the researcher was able to provide the interpretation of the results. The researcher grouped the general ideas for themes and sub-themes. The final themes and sub-themes gathered an in-depth analysis and interpretation of the researcher’s understanding of the participants’ responses to all the data sources.

The final step allowed for the interpretation of the themes into the inquiry’s finding that answer the two research questions. During this process, the researcher was finalizing the analysis of themes and sub-themes ready for presentation. The triangulation of all data sources yielded repeated patterns of information that were relevant to answer the two research questions. Yin’s model (2011) incorporated the concluding phase of the analysis. The data sources provided initial and refined codes that were interpreted as themes and sub-themes of the study. The findings
yielded a total of five themes and twelve sub-themes that answered the two research questions. Details on the explanation of each theme and sub-themes are discussed in Chapter 4.

**Limitations and Delimitations of the Research Design**

This study contained several limitations. The timeframe to conduct the interviews and questions was limited. Using only a few numbers of participants and just one school in the district limits the results. The perception of the participants’ responses to the research questions was determined from participants’ insights, efficiencies, feelings, and responsiveness. In this descriptive case study, the findings could be subject to other interpretations. Tabassum (2014) stated some limitations to triangulation can include that it is time-consuming to collect data, data requiring greater planning and organization, possible disharmony based on the researcher’s biases, conflicts due to behavioral frameworks, and the lack of understanding on the reason of using triangulation design.

The delimitations of the study were to choose two grade levels only and have some parents and some teachers to be interviewed. Another delimitation was the use of the results from the interviews, questions, and field notes in searching for themes and sub-themes. Also, the study was conducted only on a one Title 1 school where students had similar age-group.

**Internal and External Validity**

The data for this research study came from descriptive responses of the participants mainly from interviews and questionnaires and field notes observations from the researcher. Participants’ responses were raw, empirical, and natural. There were two research questions in this study. The data from these three sources were analyzed using thematic analysis for internal validity and results were investigated based on the research questions. The participants’ responses and field notes observations were fixed and cannot be altered. If a participant withdrew to participate in
data collection and analysis, the number of variables might change, but the data was still intact for the remainder of the participants who take part in the research study.

**Expected Findings**

There were two research questions in this study. RQ1: How do teachers perceive reading comprehension accommodations for both SWLIs and SWOLIs in both fourth and fifth grades? RQ2: How do parents perceive reading comprehension accommodations for their children when they take state testing for both SWLIs and SWOLIs? For RQ1, the researcher expected some teachers to have high perceptions and high expectations in reading comprehension accommodations for both SWLIs and SWOLIs in both fourth and fifth grades. For RQ2, the researcher expected that some parents have high perceptions in reading comprehension accommodations for their children when they take both SWLIs and SWOLIs. Additional findings were expected as the researcher gathered and analyzed data from all participants.

**Ethical Issues in the Proposed Study**

Ethical issues are present in every kind of research. Researchers must think of the safety of the participants at all times. In this study, there was little to no risk or harm to the participants’ information or researcher who takes part in this research. Also, there was no negligible act of alteration of data or data information such as gender and responses from the interviews and questions. The researcher will keep the collected data for three years to determine if the participants have proven or disproven the research questions. The data collected will be stored on a password-protected computer and encrypted storage media. The data will be secured for three years and then be deleted soon after the three years was over.

**Chapter 3 Summary**

This chapter contained a descriptive explanation of the researcher methodology used to understand participants’ perception of the impact of RAAs to both SWLIs and SWOLIs. The
chapter also included the researcher’s rationale for the methodological decisions for this research study. Further, the chapter contained a discussion of the target populations, sampling method, power analysis, and related procedures for retrieving and analyzing study-related data. The purpose, methodology, and methods helped illuminate the various complexities included in this qualitative study. Additionally, the chapter included a discussion of the researcher’s data collection process, the operationalization of variables, data analysis, delimitations and limitations of the study, internal and external validity, and expected findings. Finally, the chapter contained a review of the potential ethical issues in this research study.
Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Results

Introduction

The central purpose of this descriptive case study was to investigate the content of the participants’ responses based on their perception and knowledge of the impact of read-aloud accommodations (RAAs) on both students with and without learning impairments’ reading grade, reading state-test result, and overall classroom behavior. By utilizing a descriptive case study research design drawn by Yin’s (2011) thematic analysis framework, participants’ perceptions are systematically described, analyzed, and coded into different themes to evaluate the impact of reading aloud accommodation to students with and without learning impairment, especially for fourth and fifth-grade students. This was done through rigorous analysis of the details of the content of each participant’s responses to the interviews and questionnaires.

Brief Overview

This chapter examines the perceptions of the participants understanding of the impact of read-aloud accommodations on students as perceived by some parents and some teachers. Key to this study was the participants’ involvement in the study and the knowledge, understanding, and perceptions they shared of the impact of read-aloud accommodations. This study used purposeful sampling to obtain “information-rich cases from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research” (Patton, 1990, p. 169). According to LAERD Dissertation (2012), “the main objective of purposive sampling is to focus on specific characteristics of a population that is of interest, which will best enable the researcher to answer the research questions” (p. 2). Also, this descriptive case study design addressed two research questions which provided abundant information on the participants’ perspectives on the impact of read-aloud to fourth- and fifth-grade students. This study used a triangulation of interviews, questionnaires, and field notes. Interviews and questionnaires allowed the participants to share
their knowledge and understanding of the content of the questions asked based on the impact of read-aloud accommodations for students. The data collected were examined using thematic analysis to find recurring patterns of themes and sub-themes. The researcher hypothesized that all participants had a similar understanding of the impact of read-aloud to students at school and at home.

**Description of Purpose**

The purpose of this qualitative descriptive case study was to investigate participants’ understanding of the perceptions of read-aloud accommodations and its impact on students’ overall reading performance. This was done by studying the content of the responses from each participant. Also, the researcher wanted to study the impact of RAAs on reading and high-stakes reading tests for fourth- and fifth-grade students. The researcher wanted to know the content of each of the participant’s responses based on their perceptions on which accommodations impact the most on both SWLIs and SWOLIs. This qualitative research study addressed two main research questions:

**RQ1.** How do some teachers perceive reading comprehension accommodations for both SWLIs and SWOLIs in their reading, state test, and classroom behavior in both fourth and fifth grades?

**RQ2.** How do some parents perceive reading comprehension accommodations for their children when they take state tests for both SWLIs and SWOLIs?

This chapter presents with a brief introduction and description of the purpose of the study followed by the overview of the summary of the data analysis and findings. Next, the chapter described the research population and sample. An explanation of the research methodology and analysis were then discussed followed by a full report of the manual coding process, and the method of using Yin’s 2011 model was presented. Here, each research question was addressed,
and this included an analysis of the perspectives of participants about their knowledge and understanding of the impact of read-aloud accommodations to fourth- and fifth-grade students. A summary of the findings and presentation of the data based upon the results of themes and sub-themes that emerged followed. Finally, the results and analysis of the interview and questionnaire transcripts using the codes were discussed. In Chapter 5, the interpretation of the study’s findings in light of the literature, as well as future recommendations for investigation, is presented.

**Overview Description of Data Analysis, Results, and Findings**

Through the process of triangulation and the use of Yin’s 2011 thematic analysis model, participants described their understanding of the impact of read-aloud accommodations based on their perceptions and experiences. The research findings that this chapter reported were based on an analysis of the following data sources: semi-structured interviews, sets of questions, and field notes. Descriptive data were collected from data sources, which provided some information that is reported in the findings section.

**Researcher’s Role**

The researcher’s role in this study necessitated the identification of personal values, assumptions, and biases during the design phases of this study. After 10 years of working with different administrators, teachers, parents, and students at the elementary-middle school level, the researcher noticed the lack of understanding of the administrators, teachers, and parents on the use of read-aloud accommodations to their students. The researcher noticed that in the classroom teachers felt overwhelmed on their roles and parents left misguided with their responsibilities for their children as well. The researcher observed that majority of the teachers and parents were valuable assets that were an underutilized resource by the school system to assist with the proper implementation of the useful resources the school district provided. The researcher used a purposeful sampling of teachers and parents to address the typical school experience of students on
a day to day basis. It was not because there was something special or unusual in any way, but it was typical to have parents and teachers in a school setting. Palys (2008) stated that “one will engage on purposive sampling signifies that one sees sampling as a series of strategic choices about with whom, where, and how one does one’s research” (p. 697). The researcher realized to utilize some teachers and some parents to participate and answer interviews and questions as they had been dealing with children on a day to day basis. Also, the teachers knew their students and parents knew their children. Both parents and teachers could share what they learned on the subject as the interview and question process began. Parents and teachers were stakeholders of the school and community. However, the researcher had found that when working with both SWLIs and SWOLIs, students seemed more receptive and students appeared to be more committed and involved in the individualized instructions provided. Also, when both regular and special education teachers collaborated in teaching, the students felt more successful in the classroom.

The researcher often wondered if re-creating and re-utilizing the co-teaching model in the school would build higher self-esteem and greater academic success of all students in the school. With a background in special education, the researcher continued to be interested in providing quality education and services to all students in need. The researcher attended several workshops on special education and strategies to make students successful. The researcher saw the lack of every teacher, whether regular or special education to attend workshops to implement better policies that work for all students. When the researcher accepted a position as lead teacher in special education in a small suburban town in Louisiana many years ago, the researcher hoped to create awareness for teachers to utilize their varied teaching experiences and be an advocate for students’ success most especially the at-risk students. The researcher’s knowledge of special education studies and its scope enhanced awareness, knowledge, and understanding of the issues addressed in this study. Although every effort was made to ensure objectivity, personal bias undoubtedly shaped the way
data collections collection was viewed and understood. This personal bias may be a potential limitation in this study. With this in mind, the researcher has worked to control this bias in the analysis and presentation of results.

**Description of the Sample**

The descriptive data that follows pertains to the participants who participated in the interview and data collection for this research study. The data provided is demographic, and no interviews and questioning occurred until after the Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval on March 21, 2018. There were no identifying markers regarding the sample in the study. All participants remained anonymous and used pseudonyms to keep their names confidential. The researcher was interested in the participants’ knowledge and understanding of the impact of read-aloud accommodation to students’ overall performance.

**Participants’ sample.** There were a total of 21 participants (six teachers and 15 parents) in this study. Though the research is a small sample size, these participants were purposely selected. All participants are adults. All participants are from South Louisiana. Majority of the participants are female. Most of the participants were African-American, and only three participants were Caucasian. The parent participants are purposely selected. The teachers of fourth- and fifth-grade students were all selected to take part in the research. All of the teachers participated in the research interviews and questions.
Table 1

Descriptive Demographics of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Parents</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Parents</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African-American</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research Methodology and Analysis

Description of Analysis Method’s Fit for the Study

In Chapter 1, the researcher introduced the study by providing an overview of the reasons students struggle with reading despite the federal and state provisions and mandates. The chapter also discussed the purpose of the study, and the background, context, history, and conceptual framework; rationale, relevance, and the significance of the study to provide an in-depth of understanding of the several reasons underlying students’ struggle in overall reading performance.

In Chapter 2, the researcher presented a review of the relevant literature beginning with a brief introduction of the need of accommodations for students with learning impairments (SWLIs) and the possible benefits it gives to students without learning impairments (SWOLIs). The researcher focused on different current and relevant literature reviews about the significance of RAAs and its benefits to both SWLIs and SWOLIs. In Chapter 3, the researcher primarily emphasized utilizing a single case study approach. However, after the data were synthesized, areas of future research
were found and are discussed in Chapter 5. Transcripts from all interviews were coded and analyzed for the prevalent themes and sub-themes to reveal the experiences and reflections of the participants’ responses to the interviews and questions.

Chapter 3 provided detailed information regarding the participants and the procedures utilized to gather the data for this study. It also described the specific steps employed throughout the study to collect the most accurate information to address the research questions. The results of the research study are presented in this chapter, which begins with a description of relevant participants demographics. In the additional sections, the data gathered are shown for each of the study’s two research questions. This chapter provides the results that were revealed through qualitative methods and aligned with the original issues this study sought to answer. The degree to which the results meet the goals and purpose of the study are discussed in the conclusion of this section. The researcher acknowledges that this descriptive case study, with its limited number of participants from the data, were collected, will only serve to provide general information that may inform future program effectiveness concerning addressing the research questions. Descriptive data were utilized and analyzed in this study.

**Case Study**

As discussed in the previous chapters, the overarching analytical approach for this study was a descriptive case study using Yins’ 2011 thematic analysis model. Durepos, Mills, and Weibe (2010) defined descriptive case study as “one that is focused and detailed, in which propositions and questions about a phenomenon are carefully scrutinized and articulated at the outset” (p. 1). Zainal (2007) further explained descriptive case studies as a “set to describe the natural phenomena which occur within the data in question, for instance, what a reader uses different strategies and how the reader use them. The goal set by the researcher is to describe the data as they occur” (p. 3). The participants provided detailed information to be able for the
researcher to do thematic analysis using Yin’s (2011) thematic analysis framework. Transcripts of the interviews, questionnaire responses, and field notes from participants were highlighted and coded to identify recurring themes and sub-themes that reflected participants understanding of the questions. All data sources were read and reread, labeled and relabeled, and reviewed and interpreted in the process of arriving at the themes from the participants’ findings of the study. The research questions of how the participants framed their responses supported the researcher’s analysis of the data sources and the researcher’s interpretation of the themes from those sources.

**Participants’ interview.** An initial interview was conducted for two weeks during the interviewer’s lunch, planning period, and after-school time. The time allotted for the interview was about 45 minutes for each participant. Teacher participants were physically visited in their classrooms and invited to be interviewed; a date and time were set for the interview. The researcher reviewed the consent forms from the parents who agreed to participate in the study. The teacher participants and the majority of the parent participants stayed on the interview schedule. Two participants rescheduled the interview for a later date and time. However, as the interviews were completed, the researcher’s faculty advisor told the researcher to conduct a follow-up interview due to the information of the interviews were insufficient for data analysis. Another two weeks were spent on the follow-up interviews with all the participants. Again, they were conducted during the lunch, planning, and after school hours of the researcher. The interview lasted about 45 minutes for each participant. The interviews were conducted in the researcher’s classroom to maintain privacy and confidentiality during the meetings. Then, the researcher took down notes from the participant’s responses noting key points and details from the researcher. The interview was transcribed in the researcher’s laptop during the follow-up interview and asked the participant for a member check right after each meeting to check of its accuracy and to ensure the validity of the data for answering the interview questions.
Participants’ questionnaire. Each participant was asked to answer 10 questions which he/she was asked to provide as much details on the questions. The questionnaire was completed right after the interview for each participant. Participants asked for clarification on some of the keywords; the researcher explained and clarified each term they had questions about. Participant’s responses to this questionnaire provided additional information to answer the researcher’s research questions.

Participants’ Field notes. The researcher kept field notes on the participant’s responses during the interview. The researcher took field notes right after every meeting of the participants to be able to carry out raw data and observation from the participants. Some participants understood the questions, and some asked for more explanation. Overall, the participants provided information that helped to inform the best of their knowledge. Data from field notes provided additional details and information the research questions.

Triangulation method. All of the participants’ responses to interviews and questionnaires, in addition to the field notes, represented the triangulation of data sources for this study. Participants’ responses were raw and robust data. The researcher used the triangulation method to conduct the thematic analysis. All of the responses from each participant were read and re-read to be able to identify emerging themes and sub-themes in conducting thematic analysis using Yin’s approach. For each page of the script, the researcher took the critical pieces of relevant information, writing code on each statement using different colored pens. The researcher continued this process until the researcher had sorted through all the notes. Then, the researcher began the process of matching traits and characteristics from the observation data to other collected data. This triangulation of data allowed me to narrow and refine the data matching the most robust similar concepts and ideas from each data source. The researcher color coded these fundamental concepts using highlighters as headings and sub-headings. The researcher re-read and
re-label all research data sources while color coding the underlying concepts to ensure that the researcher has not missed any data.

**Coding Process Overview**

In this section, the researcher explained the process of the coding of the transcribed interviews and questionnaires. This coding process began with highlighting similar topics from each script. From here, the researcher recorded a set of codes that emerged from reading the interviews and questionnaires scripts, and then to process of coding and analyzing the data through a repeated process. Next, the researcher examined the codes and searched for ways to use to categorize the data.

**Creation of Initial Codes**

The data from the interview and questionnaire sources were coded and recoded, and they provided different perspectives for the themes that emerged. This data analysis consisted of examining, categorizing, tabulating, and recombining data obtained from the research. After each narrative, the researcher read and sorted participants’ responses into categories placing similar responses into the same category. These responses were coded with letter and number combination and placed in a table format. This allowed for the sorting of responses under appropriate headings. The letter and number combinations also allowed the researcher to organize and view the data. These initial codes included: RAAs benefits to students, teachers and parents’ role in RAA, RAAs benefits to state testing, parents’ role in RAA, and frequency of support.

**Emergent Categories**

Another group of codes emerged from the reading, coding, and analyzing of the data. These emergent codes were the parents’ expectations, parents’ concerns on RAA, the impact of RAAs, limited background, non-exposure to text, limited parents’ education, and parent-teacher relationships that arose from the data and were different from the initial codes. These codes
required clarification and explanation for clarity. A system to organize the codes and a systematic way to categorize the data to make sense of the phenomena was presented. Codes were organized both by descriptive codes and codes based on direct quotes. A collection process utilizing multi-color highlighters, pens, and papers were the method of categorizing data initially.

**Organizing and Verifying the Data**

As coding continued, the researcher began coding for various themes. These themes consisted of grouping the codes into more significant categories of a similar concept. Categories were developed and labeled. Next, patterns were noted, and as repeated comments occurred, they were grouped. This continued until all ideas had been categorized or excluded from the final analysis. Once all the comments had been classified or excluded, data saturation had been achieved. Burmeister and Aitken (2012) explain that a researcher cannot assume data saturation has been completed just because the resources have been exhausted. Data saturation was reached because there were no new themes or categories to emerge, no new data, and no new coding (O’Reilly & Parker, 2012). The primary goal of the initial stages of the coding procedure was to establish categories that could be used to describe the data and serve as a basis for the analysis of this study. The preliminary stage began with intensive reading and study of all transcribed interviews, question responses, and field notes. The outcome of this initial stage was a set of categories and a description of the data according to these categories. This stage of the analysis indicated similarities between the participants in their perceptions regarding their concerns for the students and the impact of read-aloud to their children. The data were compared to find the similarities and differences in how participants expressed their perceptions and understanding of the impact of RAAs to students. The researcher engaged in a thorough reading of the transcripts and comparison of the first categories to the data to assess, reformulate the categories, or generate new categories from the data from each interview. Then, the researcher returned to the data to
determine whether or not the coding was accurate and precise. This process went on until no further categories could be formulated. Then, the categories were described. If categories were precisely similar, they were combined. Here, a clear picture began to develop regarding the perception of participants on the impact of read-aloud as described on the themes discussed in this chapter. Then, repeated the same process of looking for any additional data or potential categories by explicitly looking at each interview question and the data from each interview question with each mentor. The result of this procedure was a multi-category system with which the similarities and differences of the perceptions of each participant could be described.

**Triangulation by Method**

All data were triangulated to strengthen the study and to gain an enhanced representation of the phenomena under investigation. The researcher achieved triangulation by analyzing data from several data sources, including interviews, surveys, field notes, and review of documents. According to Creswell and Miller (2000), triangulation is a process of looking for “convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study” (p. 126). Triangulation of data about the experiences of both participants helped to confirm or disprove commonalities of experience. Figure 1 represents the triangulation in this study.

![Triangulation by Method](image)

*Figure 1.* This simple path model, demonstrates the triangulation among the interviews, questionnaires, and field notes in this study.
The initial stages of the coding procedure established categories that both described the data and served as a basis for the analysis of this study. The preliminary stage began with intensive reading and research of all interviews, questionnaires’ responses, and field notes. The outcome of this initial stage was a set of codes and a description of the data according to these categories. This stage of the reading of the data indicated similarities and differences between the participants’ perceptions regarding their participants’ understanding of read-aloud accommodation to students’ overall reading performance.

**Thematic Analysis**

The thematic analysis was done after all of the participants’ responses from triangulation of data sources were typed to a password-protected computer. “Thematic analysis is the process of identifying patterns of themes and sub-themes within qualitative data” (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017, p. 2). Then, the documents were printed to be able to conduct a manual coding of data. The researcher used highlighters to code a similar idea and grouped those ideas until one distinct theme came up. Then, the researcher continued highlighting similar topics to the group as sub-themes to the themes found during the coding stage. The process was repeated until all of the participants’ responses were highlighted and coded. The final step was to find emergent themes and sub-themes. It resulted in a total of five themes and 12 sub-themes.

This descriptive case study design addresses two research questions about the impact of reading aloud accommodation to both students with and without learning impairment in fourth-and fifth-grade students. During the interview, the researcher mentioned that there is a consent form to be signed for the interview to go on. The contents of the consent were thoroughly explained. The permissions are signed before any interview was conducted. Finally, the researcher completed all the required number of participants both for teachers and parents.
Teacher participants cooperated and understood the endeavor of the researcher to conduct interviews and questions. The teachers were very supportive and gave up their planning and lunchtimes for the discussion and questions to take place. For the parents, the researcher had to be more patient and understanding of their attitude towards the interview and questioning process. Key to this study were the experiences of the researcher to conduct the interview and questions as the researcher also took field notes based on observation of the participants’ behavior and composition during the process. An additional focus addresses how the participants react to every interviews/question that is asked—a little change in facial expressions are entirely observed and noted. One benefit was that the participants lived within the school perimeter, so it was easier for participants to do the follow-up interviews. The teachers did not have any issues or problems with the follow-up interviews and questions. All of the teachers were present during the week, so they were the first to finish the follow-up interview. For the parents, some of them did not have work, and few had jobs. As a researcher, I had to obtain their time availability and work around their schedule. None of the parents declined the request to be interviewed or questioned for research purposes. Also, they were very supportive of the researcher’s role in the research.

Thematic analysis of the words in the data sources was used to identify significant themes and sub-themes. The transcriptions were manually coded and interpreted. Manual coding was completed when the final themes produced the findings of the study. The results represent the researcher’s interpretation of the themes from the research which involved the participants’ responses to the interview questions, follow-up questions, and questionnaires. Generation of final themes of the study went from open coding to axial coding, to selective coding (Yin, 2011). Initial words or phrases created from the data sources were open coded. The researcher looked for words or phrases that were of similar content all throughout the data sources. Axial code furnished a link between the initial codes and subcategories coded. In this process, the researcher, guided with the
initial codes, linked the other ideas to see their similarities or differences. Also, those ideas that were relevant to the big ideas were placed as sub-headings and ideas that were not relevant fell into data saturation (Burmeister & Aitken, 2012). The selective codes represented interpretations of the final themes of the data sources and findings of the study. In this process, the researcher finalized the search of the themes and sub-themes. The findings resulted from the interpretation of the themes within the context of the participant's responses from the interviews and questionnaires.

**Data management steps.** Raw data was transcribed into the researcher’s laptop. All data was uploaded to a password protected laptop owned by the researcher. The data for the participants’ interview and questions and the researcher’s field notes were all typed and placed into different folder names. Each participant’s interview and responses were separately saved in a file folder. Field notes were also filed in a separate file folder. All participants used their chosen pseudonym to keep their name confidential. The participants’ responses were numbered and coded to protect participants’ identifiable information. All the hard copies of the data were placed in a locked file cabinet and stored in a private safe place.

**Summary of the Findings**

As discussed in Chapter 3, the research design primarily utilized a descriptive case study using thematic analysis. The researcher provided a detailed descriptive explanation of the data using Yin’s model (2011) thematic analysis framework. “Thematic analysis is the process of identifying patterns or themes within qualitative data” (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017, p. 2). Braun and Clark (2006) suggested that it is the first qualitative method that should be learned as “it provides core skills that will be useful for conducting many other kinds of analysis” (p. 78). As previously discussed in the data analysis procedures in this chapter, Yin’s (2011) thematic analysis framework. Yin’s (2011) thematic analysis model was used to review participants’ data for recurring patterns of information of emerging themes and sub-themes. After all the reading and re-
reading of the participant’s’ transcripts and field notes, analysis and interpretation had been made. It was found out that there were five themes and 12 sub-themes that answered the two research questions.

**Presentation of the Data and Results**

The IRB approval was received March 21, 2018. There was no interview and questionnaire conducted until after the IRB approval. Each participant was given a schedule for the interview and the questionnaire. Before each interview, informed consent was presented and explained to each of the participants. Each participant was given a set of interview questions with follow-up questions and ten sets of questions for the questionnaire. All participants were asked to provide as many details as they could during the interview and questionnaire responses. Also, field notes observation were added and noted by the researcher after every interview of each participant.

Four main themes and 10 sub-themes emerged when addressing the two main research questions from the participants’ interviews and questionnaires. As the researcher gathered and analyzed the participants’ data, there was one theme and two sub-themes considered as additional findings that supported the two main research questions. Each theme and sub-themes were thoroughly explained as each research question was discussed. Also, accurate details for the additional findings had been explained. The following were the results of the participants’ perceptions of the impact of RAAs for SWLIs and SWOLIs.

**Research Question One. How do some teachers perceive reading comprehension accommodations for both SWLIs and SWOLIs in both fourth and fifth grades?** Teacher participants answered the interviews and questionnaire that were specific to their experiences and comprehension of the researcher’s follow-up questions. The findings resulted in two themes and seven sub-themes. The following presents an overview of the teacher participants’ responses based
on each theme within the research question number one as shown in Table 2 provided participants’ information to support the theme found in answering research question one.

Table 2

*Teachers’ Perception of Read-aloud accommodations to Students*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Read-aloud accommodations (RAAs) is beneficial to students. | 1. Read-aloud accommodations benefit reading grade.  
2. Read-aloud accommodations benefit students’ state-test scores.  
3. Read-aloud accommodations benefit students to lessen misbehavior in the classroom. |
| 2. Teachers’ role is significant in conducting RAAs in the classroom. | 1. Teachers as the sole provider of RAAs in the classroom.  
2. Teachers as a motivator in the classroom.  
3. Teachers as a good role model of RAAs in the classroom.  
4. Teachers’ need for professional development training. |

Theme 1 of research question one from the data sources is reading aloud accommodation (RAAs) is beneficial to students as stated by majority of the participants. Most teachers stated that they do RAAs daily for all of their students. Some teachers reported that RAAs benefits students with cognitive engagement, social-emotional and increase student performance. Few teachers said that it depends on student’s intrinsic motivation. Other teacher stated that it helped close the gaps while another teacher expressed that the stress of reading is removed, it helps develop listening comprehension skills, and students who need it the most can benefit the most.

Three sub-themes emerged in theme one of research question one—RAAs benefits reading grade, RAAs benefits students’ state test scores, and RAAs helps students lessen misbehavior in the classroom. When teachers were asked about the RAAs and their opinion about such accommodation, each teacher has similar perceptions about it. Majority of the teachers are in favor of the read-aloud accommodations, and these teachers stated RAAs is beneficial for children.
Most of the teachers indicated that read-aloud accommodations are helpful for students to increase their overall reading performance. When teachers were interviewed and asked about their insight on why students struggle with reading, they provided similar responses. Table 3 presented the direct quotes from the participants to support the emergence of theme 1. Therefore, the teachers’ responses summed up to their answers to the research question one with the idea that even with read-aloud accommodations, students still struggle, and provided an explanation that all teachers settled with similar perceptions on the benefits of RAAs to students both with and without learning impairment.

Table 3

*Teachers’ perception to support the emergence of theme 1*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Pseudonym</th>
<th>Teacher Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aretha</td>
<td>For me, they lack decoding and comprehension skills. They are deficient in vocabulary; they haven’t been read to as well.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lynette</td>
<td>I think that because when students come to school, a lot of them lack the oral language. Students have a limited vocabulary. With older children, they lack the foundational skills for decoding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maria</td>
<td>Another teacher also commented that “I think it is due to poor or lack of exposure, and lack of phonics skills with our students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amalia</td>
<td>I believe students struggle mainly because they are not read to at a young age, and they are not exposed to books. Therefore, they are not exposed to enough words early on compared to students that are read and are exposed to books. Therefore, causing them to be struggling readers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tina</td>
<td>I think they struggle because they do not practice reading outside of schools. Therefore, they do not see it enough to become proficient.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subtheme 1 of theme 1 of research question one is read-aloud accommodations benefits reading grade. Majority of teachers agreed that read-aloud accommodations served as an aid to help increase students’ reading grade. “I believe that the read-aloud accommodation should be used as an aid to help increase student’s reading grade if it proves that it is working. I believe it should be used appropriately and consistently for it to be beneficial” (Amalia). “Its fine to do
accommodation is for students. SPED can go as far as they go with reading aloud accommodation. Some instances, it can help. Sometimes not, but with language and processing problem, a student can’t. Helps a child who can comprehend, it doesn’t help with those who can’t” (Aretha).

“Reading aloud accommodation does enable students to perform better on assignments/test in the classroom. Reading accommodations allow students to focus more on concepts/skills instead of attempting to decode words. I am concerned that students with read-aloud accommodations maybe hindered in transitioning from school to real-life work experiences where they have to perform somebody have to read aloud to them” (Lynette). “I think it will help with a student’s grade; they can focus on the content” (Maria). “Read-aloud accommodations may help, but students still need to be able to comprehend the lesson of the text” (Tina). “It helps students understand concept/meat the concept to understand the text. Reading strategies/modeling, apply in the future (Rebecca).

Subtheme 2 of theme 1 of research question one is read-aloud accommodations benefits students’ state test scores. Also, most of the teachers believed RAAs are beneficial to help increase students’ state test scores. Amalia stated that “If the read-aloud accommodation has been used as an aid all year and it has proved to be beneficial, and it doesn’t hinder the student then it absolutely should be used on state testing.” “It’s good. Now, it’s the machine is reading—fidelity is strong. It gives a child chance. Decoding plus comprehension and someone reading to a child” (Aretha). “Those passages are so long that students may get discouraged. I think read-aloud accommodations on state test may help with motivating students to do their best” (Tina).

Subtheme 3 of theme 1 of research question one is read-aloud accommodations benefit students lessen misbehavior in the classroom. Most teachers stated that RAAs is beneficial to decrease misbehavior in the classroom. Lynette noted that “Read-aloud accommodations tend to decrease student’s inappropriate behavior because they can perform with success.” “Yes,
behaviors may be caused by embarrassment (poor reading)” (Maria). “It does. Tracking words, lessen misbehavior because it helps students stay on track and focused on the teachers. It helped students take notes and pay attention to words they don’t know. As the teacher reads, the student learns to pronounce it” (Rebecca).

Theme 2 of research question 1 is that the teachers’ role is significant in conducting RAA in the classroom. When teachers were asked about what teachers can do in the classroom to help struggling students in the classroom, teachers provided similar responses. Most teachers stated that as teachers, they should serve as a good role model providing RAA to both students with and without learning impairments in the classroom and with good classroom management and discipline so students can learn better in the classroom. In a Title 1 school, teachers stated that they need to double their effort in teaching the students as students lack the foundation and skills needed for their academic achievement. The challenge for teachers in a Title 1 school is doubled therefore teachers stated that they need to step up for students to become successful in their overall performance in school. One teacher stated that “I make sure I am firm with and consistent with them. They know I don’t play, so they listen and follow. But sometimes, they test you. The behavior of the students is unpredictable”. When asked if the teacher was able to send a child to the discipline office, the teacher stated:

I did send once. But, I make sure I handle the situation well in the classroom. But, children these days are challenging as well. You see how they behave in the cafeteria. You need to be strong and firm with them. (Aretha)

Another teacher stated students test teacher’s classroom management due to readings struggle. “Part of it may be. With me being good in classroom management, still I can see some students who will test my patience because of that reading struggle, so I can that it is probably part of the reason” (Amalia). Aretha stated that “Absolutely, as a teacher, I need to have strong classroom
management and discipline, so students follow our rules and expectations.” The teachers provided more lists of possible teachers’ role in helping students succeed in the classroom with the aid of RAAs. Another teacher stated that RAAs are provided to all students in the classroom regardless of having disabilities or not. Lynette stated:

I don’t think so if you are willing to help students, it does not matter who you are helping. Whether with accommodations or not. Our job as teachers is to help students most especially the ones who struggle the most. We, teachers, don’t have to limit our support to students. That’s why we are called teachers because we teach and educate students. We fix the students need.

Subtheme 1 of theme 2 of research question one is a teacher as the sole provider of RAAs in the classroom. The subtheme supported the finding that teachers have a role to play in conducting RAAs in the school. A teacher stated that the regular education teachers need to be present at the IEP meeting if it is perceived to be the service provided for reading. Another teacher reported that for kindergarten and first-grade students, they mostly look up to their teachers and look for coping skills in an upper grade. Some teachers indicated that they like the idea of having teachers do the RAA for children.

Subtheme 2 of theme 2 of research question one is teachers as a motivator in the classroom. When teachers asked what they can do to help students feel encouraged to do their work and read, teachers stated that they need to be a motivator for the students to be able to uplift students’ spirit in the room. In doing so, students may feel motivated and encouraged to try their best in doing their daily tasks in the classroom. Amalia stated:

I said it because some students don’t try because nobody encourages them that they will learn how to read. Some teachers ignore the students and leave them where they are. Me, as a teacher, I try to encourage my students to at least try their best to
read, participate, or even do their work because sometimes, these students rarely get motivation at home. They need encouragement from time to time.

Maria also commented that:

Exactly. Because teachers are one of the ways that students can become successful.

If they need it, give it to the students. In that way, you leave off some heavy burden on your part, and you are helping the students as well.

Rebecca also stated that “Probably so. As their teacher, I see to it that I take care of their other needs as well as academics”. Amalia stated that “Teachers need to encourage struggling readers because most of their problem is confidence and motivation.”

Subtheme 3 of theme 2 of research question one is teachers a good role model of RAAs in the classroom. When teachers were asked what teachers can do to project RAAs in the school correctly, the teachers stated that they need to be a role model of doing the RAAs in the classroom.

One teacher said that:

If teachers do the modeling of how to read the passage with fluency, students will also learn from it. Students will learn how the sentence is going to be read. Will it be slow, fast, or average reading and stuff like that? Also, some students are afraid to read out loud, for me, it is not only teachers reading aloud, but it is also students who need to read aloud so the teachers will know and give immediate feedback to the student if they don’t read well the words. (Tina)

Another teacher state that “I mean, I do read the text daily. Though I teach math, hey, we still need to read…I read the passage or word problems to the students, and we do the work together so that they can understand more and better” (Maria).

Subtheme 4 of theme 2 of research question one is teachers’ need for professional development training of conducting RAAs in the classroom. Almost all of the teachers stated that
they need in-service or professional development training on student’s accommodation particularly read-aloud accommodations. Amalia stated that “Yes I feel the need to have an in-service or professional development training on student’s accommodations especially the read aloud one.” Then, Lynette expressed her concerns and said “Absolutely. Training should be provided, and knowledgeable people should frequently check the implementation of reading aloud. Some people do it with fidelity. Some don’t.” Tina stated that “I believe there is a need for training. Some teachers don’t know how or what to do.” Maria also stated that “Yes, the better a teacher is prepared to help, the more effective the teacher can be in the classroom.” Rebecca stated that:

Yes. Absolutely, people think reading aloud accommodation is only an extension of activity or ordinary stuff when actually it is about the modified text, lexile, materials, on grade level, audio and visual—including multiple intelligences, DAKT—helps children be successful.

Most teachers had similar responses stating that as teachers their role is to provide the RAAs with fidelity to students in the classroom. Overall, teachers noted that in-service training on conducting RAAs is genuinely beneficial, so teachers know the appropriate ways of doing RAAs in the school. Teachers are willing to attend in-service on RAAs since they know how useful it is for students and themselves as well.

**Research Question Two. How do some parents perceive reading comprehension accommodations for their children when they take state-testing for both SWLIs and SWOLIs?** Parent participants answered the interviews and questionnaires that were specific to their experiences and comprehension of the researcher’s follow-up questions. This resulted in two themes and three sub-themes. The following presents an overview of the parent participants’ responses based on each theme within the research question number one as shown in table 3 provided participants’ information to support the theme found in answering research question one.
Table 4

*Parents’ Perception of Read-aloud accommodations to Students*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Read-aloud accommodations are beneficial to students’ state testing.</td>
<td>1. Parents’ frequency of reading support at home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Parents’ role in conducting RAAs in preparation for state-testing of their child/children.</td>
<td>1. Parents’ expectations of RAAs in the school and at home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Parents concerns of RAAs at home and at school.</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Theme 1 of research question 2 is read-aloud accommodations is beneficial to students’ state-testing. Most of the parents believed that RAAs could benefit students’ state test scores. “Good” (Betty).  “Yes, I do believe it would because if there’s no assistance, they can’t get an answer the questions because they can’t read the passage themselves” (Carla). “Yes, it will help him good like understand the text though not at all “(Lovella). “The more exposure to grade level appropriate text and the more activities like graphic organizers used the state test scores should improve “(Lucylle). “Yes, because it helps to understand more the concept” (Martha). “I believe it will help” (Sea Crest). “I think that read-aloud accommodations as an aid will help increase all students’ state test score. I personally notice that whenever I re-read a question to a student or my child, they are twice as likely to get the question correct” (Tori). “Yes, I think it’s very helpful” (Wakanda). Some of the parents thought that RAA is an aid to help increase students’ test scores but with certain conditions. “Only effective with modified passage below grade level” (Aida). “It could. Some students may not understand the long paragraph” (Karry). “Only if the student has a disability and cannot read very well” (Lionel). “I think it would help if they had accommodations with to help increase the test scores” (Nala). “I find that as students get older & increase in classes, the loud reading is a problem. In testing students in three or four grades still read aloud”
When parents were asked about the importance of RAAs to their children and on state testing, parents had similar views on RAAs benefits to their children at home and school. To support the theme 1 for research question 2, parents were asked the frequency of doing a reading or reading aloud to their children at home. Most of the parents viewed reading and reading aloud as also beneficial to their children at home and what other means parents provided for their child enhance their reading skills through practice at home.

There is one sub-theme for theme 1 for research question two—parents’ frequency of conducting RAAs at home. Most of the parents stated that they provided RAAs to their children at home. Parents provide reading aloud at home by reading a book, borrow a book from the library, use flashcards, sentence strips, magazine, or even using computers to enhance their child’s reading skills. When asked how frequent RAAs are conducted at home, one parent stated “I do it on a daily basis. Also, I try to encourage them to read books or borrow books so they can get AR points at school” (Aida). Another parent stated that “By at least making them read one book daily” (Carla). Even bringing to the public library for their children to be exposed to books or borrow books, most parents did it for their children. Betty stated “I take them at least once a week. They can go there and borrow books. I like it when they look around and observe the decorations and stuff”. Mamba stated that “I know. We go, to the library and sometimes we also borrow DVDs and books and others”. Martha also stated that “Yes, my children will tell me to go to the library right after they come home from school. They are excited to borrow books”. Parents stated that they wanted to give what is best for their children. They wanted their children to do well at school.

Theme 2 of research question two is parents’ role in conducting RAAs in preparation for state-testing of their child/children. Parents play a great role in their children’s life and education.
When parents were asked what they can, do to help their child succeed in school, most parents stated that they support their children, they care for their children’s education, they read to their children at home, and they have good parental support to their children. One parent stated that “As a parent, I would like to let her know that she can do it, encourage the child and take time…I am excited for them. I hope they will pass the test” (Martha). Nala stated that:

I mean as a parent, I know that my child can’t read some big words, so I practice reading big words to her…like I use flashcards or sentence strips so she can read better. I also ask the teachers what help I can give to my child and what specific needs I need to work with my child.

Pink Panther stated that “It is important for parents to spend time with their children…like practice reading at home. It is important for parents to do that because the child often needs guidance.” Sea Crest also stated that “By reading with them at home, and leading by example in reading themselves.” Most parents stated that by reading to their children or exposing their children to reading materials it helps their children enhance, their reading skills and in that way, the skill of reading is used in taking their children’s state test with their absolute best.

Sub-theme 1 of theme 1 for research question two is parents’ expectations of RAAs in the school and at home. Parents expressed some expectations of RAAs at school and home. Most parents revealed that they wanted teachers to do RAA at school for their children. Some parents preferred both human and the computer RAAs to their children at school. Some other parents stated that they are okay with RAAs done at home to their children. Many parents also indicated that they expected teachers and parents to be in one accord with RAAs so children can have the same understanding of RAAs done at school and home. Wakanda stated that “I expect the teachers to teach the students.” Tori stated that “To improve reading performance in school, educators should set aside time for reading, encourage students to read independently and encourage students
to choose their books.” Pink Panther stated that “Reading aloud at home gives parents an idea of the progress of their child. At the school, students read aloud. Teachers can teach the students to read at a quick pace.”

Sub-theme 2 of theme 2 of research question two is parents’ concerns of RAAs at home and school. Many parents have stated they understand read-aloud accommodations for their children regardless of having an impairment or not. Regardless of how RAAs are conducted at home and school, most parents shared their concerns on RAAs at home and school if they do it correctly or not. In the questionnaire, parents were asked if they wanted to attend in-service training for conducting RAAs. The majority of the parents stated that they wanted to attend in-service training for students accommodations particularly RAA. “Yes, would be helpful for all staff” (Aida). “Yes” (Betty). “Yes, because I feel like parent needs to understand what’s going on in classroom and support at home” (Karry). “Yes, I feel that we need to have training on a professional level so we will know how to help our students. This will help the students and teacher not to become frustrated in the classroom” (Lionel). “Yes, so I know what I will do at home with my child with reading aloud accommodation” (Lovella). “Yes, which would help parents/children understand how to do accommodation” (Martha). “Yes, that’s good to have in-service and training on student’s accommodation” (Nala). “I do feel it would be a good idea to have an in-service or professional to help some students learn at a faster pace” (Pink Panther). “I think any type of training that could help the students to learn more effectively is useful” (Sea Crest). “I feel that every educational institution could benefit from annual in-service or professional development training on reading aloud accommodation. This in-service could help reach the lower performing students and raise their test score” (Tori). “Yes, some teachers don’t understand accommodations” (Stephanie). “Yes, very helpful” (Wakanda).
Parents are in the consensus of attending in-service training on conducting RAA’s if the school district offers it. In that manner, parents will know how to do RAAs to their children and their concerns to disappear. Also, in addition to the training, some parents expressed they wanted teachers to do more for their children and not just do RAAs more than a parent. Wakanda stated that “Parents can also teach their children at home, but I see that students do not get enough help from the school.” Nala affirmed that:

It means that whoever is helping the child, that person knows what the child needs to improve on. If it says reading aloud accommodation because the child cannot read on her own, the person knows how to deal with the skill deficit of the child.

Carla stated that “because of the children…they haven’t been taught how to read properly”. When asked what she meant, the parent stated that “Like if children are taught the ways of reading correctly, then they won’t be struggling. Teachers are just doing their thing and read the words, but the proper way to read is not there” (Carla). Another parent stated that “I mean a teacher should know how to help a child read and not handicap more” (Lionel). One parent stated that her daughter’s teacher did not do the RAAs correctly at school for many months until she complained to the school principal. Stephanie stated:

It is because the teacher said she does not understand the accommodations written on the documents for my daughter. I had another one telling me that she didn’t have time because she had too many students to teach in the classroom.

When asked how she felt about the teacher didn’t do the appropriate accommodations for her daughter, she stated she felt sad because as a parent, she expected for everybody to know or understand the accommodations for each student that needs it in the classroom. Another parent also stated that “Teachers have a lack of patience for the students” (Karry). When parents were asked if they have concerns with RAAs at home, most parents stated that they do reading and
RAAs with their child/children at home at least more than once per week. It is with teachers that parents have more concerns about with regards to reading and RAAs at school.

**Additional Findings Revealed**

As the researcher gathered and analyzed the participants’ data, there were additional findings that supported the two main research questions. The findings revealed that participants answered the interview and questionnaire that were specific to their understanding of the impact of RAAs for both children in the classroom. This resulted in one theme and two sub-themes. The following presented an overview of both parents and teachers’ participants’ responses based upon each theme and sub-themes within the additional findings analysis as shown in Table 5.

Table 5

*Most impactful accommodations at home and at school as perceived by participants*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. RAAs as the most impactful accommodations for students at home and at school. | 1. Factors affecting the impact of RAAs in the classroom.  
2. Students’ other learning disabilities are affecting the impact of RAAs in the classroom. |

Theme 1 of the additional finding revealed that RAAs as the most impactful accommodations for students. There are other accommodations available for students such as small group, extended time, modify, model, or repeat directions, use of manipulatives, use of large prints, reducing a number of items for the test, peer reader, and the use of a calculator (National Center for Learning Disabilities, 2018). It is RAAs that is most impactful for students in school and at home as stated by the majority of the participants. It is because students struggle most with reading and RAAs help students understand concepts or ideas based on RAAs provided by teachers or parents. Findings revealed that most teachers stated that RAAs benefit students with cognitive engagement, social-emotional and increase student performance. Few teachers reported
that it depends on the student’s intrinsic motivation. Other teacher said that it helps close the gaps while another teacher expressed that the stress of reading is removed, it helps develop listening comprehension skills, and students who need it the most can benefit the most. Most parents stated that RAAs helped students get good ideas from the story, understand, build confidence, independence, responsibility, trust, encouragement. Other parents noted that RAAs helped students see how the reading is done, hearing how it should be done, and how to say complete sentences. A parent stated that RAAs helped students connect with the text, build comprehension, and build a positive classroom culture.

Subtheme 1 of theme 1 of the additional findings revealed the factors affecting the impact of RAAs in the classroom. Participants are hopeful of RAAs for students and asked the reasons why students continue to struggle in reading even though they have RAAs; teacher participants stated numerous factors that affect the impact of RAAs in the classroom. Parent participants indicated that students lack reading foundational skills since lower grade. Students are not taught before they go to school, students lack the exposure to text, lack of fluency, and students are not learning that much at school. Teachers’ participants stated that students are not read at a young age, parents did not expose their children to words at a young age, and no reading practice outside of schools.

A parent stated that passages are generally above grade level. Another parent reported that students do not listen or do not understand the content of the story. Some students have different cases, disability, and diagnosis as expressed by some parents. Lack of attention from some parents and some teachers could also be a few of the reasons and could be just that students don’t understand the words or meaning of the words. Most of all a parent stated that it might be the home situation that caused the struggle in reading. Some teachers said that students continue to struggle with reading even though they have RAA due to teachers not allowed reading the text as it
is. Other teachers stated that it is due to lack of foundation for reading. Another teacher reported that students need intense reading instruction while a teacher said it is another year of missing content which results in a lack of knowledge. The other teachers expressed that the text was not on the level, the Lexile or reading level is too high, and no daily reading practice.

When parents were asked about the best reasons why students still struggle in reading despite having RAAs, most of the parents stated that students’ inattentiveness to details is the reason why they still struggle with reading even with accommodations. Few parents stated that students were unprepared to learn. Some of the parents stated that students’ lack of understanding the lesson could be the reason. Few others stated that students’ disinterest with the lesson could be the potential reason for struggling reading even with RAA.

When teachers were asked about the best reasons why students continue to struggle in reading despite having RAAs in the classroom, most teachers choose student’s inattentiveness to details as the reason why students continue to struggle in reading despite having reading aloud accommodation in the classroom or at home. Some other teachers also stated that student’s unpreparedness to learn is the reason why students continue to struggle with reading despite having reading aloud accommodation in the classroom or at home. Few teachers stated that student’s disinterest with the lesson is the reason why students continue to struggle in reading despite having reading aloud accommodation in the classroom or at home. Another teacher stated that students’ lack of understanding the lesson is the reason why students continue to struggle with reading despite having read-aloud accommodations in the classroom or at home.

Subtheme 2 of theme 1 of the additional findings revealed the students’ other learning disabilities affecting the impact of RAAs in the classroom. Parent participants stated that students have an undiagnosed learning difficulty such as dyslexia, ADD, and ADHD. Lionel noted that “Sometimes student’s undiagnosed learning difficulty is to blame, students who struggle with
dyslexia. Issues with decoding sound out words. Poor comprehension, ADD, ADHD.” Students have some learning disability that might be unknown to parents. A certain disability such as ADD or ADHD impedes students reading ability. Some students are speech delayed, pronunciation and vocabulary difficulty. For example, a parent stated:

Yeah…I’m concern about his speech delayed…that is what I’m trying to let him say…but he can say it word for word…he doesn’t say it out loud …he don’t get it out loud like he is supposed to…like you and me talking…he does not do that…like in the classroom, he acts like he is good, but he is not doing it correctly…I need him to get a lot of help with saying the words in complete sentences. (Lovella)

Students have issues with spelling and writing. Mamba stated that “I think student struggle in reading because of lack of decoding skills.” They also lack decoding and fluency skills. Tori stated that “I think that students struggle with reading due to their lack of fluency. I mean, fluency is when someone can read a word or sentence without sopping, saying it correctly, you know”.

Teachers’ findings revealed that students have lack of decoding and comprehension skills as stated by Aretha. Aretha added that students are not reading the way they should and most of the students are not interested in learning. Rebecca stated:

Students have lack of foundational skills, so many achievement gaps, parents don’t know how to read, we have a lot of drop-out parents, and the curriculum does not match the level of our students, giving struggling readers’ higher curriculum that is believed to be not on their level.

Students have deficits in vocabulary. Lynette stated that “I said limited vocabulary because when students are exposed to such words and read it in text or passage, they have no clue of what it means.” In other words, students’ interest is not on academics. Students don’t try as hard enough
to learn. Students give up reading difficult words. They get frustrated in reading. The students’ level of understanding is low, and their functioning level is not on grade level.

Chapter 4 Summary

The focus of this qualitative descriptive case study was to increase the overall in-depth knowledge of the impact of RAAs to both SWLIs and SWOLIs in fourth- and fifth-grade students. The participants’ responses helped the researcher found the answers to the research questions. Furthermore, how the impact of RAAs mean for most of the participants and how RAAs impact students in both home and school.

Qualitative methodologies were used in the study to establish research saturation, triangulation, and validate the experiences of the participants (Patton, 2002; Yin, 2012). The semi-structured interviews along with questionnaires and field notes observations were utilized to provide in-depth evidence of the participants’ perceptions of RAAs in the classroom for both students with SWLIs and SWOLIs. The researcher manually transcribed the interview into written transcripts (Yin, 2012). The researcher coded the transcribed interviews and identified 5 emergent themes and twelve sub-themes due to recurring words and patterns (Patton, 2002; Yin, 2012). The researcher repeated the coding process to ensure accuracy and validity through intra-rated reliability (Yin 2012). Triangulation was achieved through content analysis, study saturation, and thematic analysis (Patton, 2002; Yin, 2012). Yin’s 2011 model of thematic analysis was used to find themes and sub-themes.

Four distinctive themes and 10 sub-themes emerged from the two research questions, these were identified through data analysis. An additional one theme and two sub-themes were found as the data were gathered and analyzed which supported the two research questions. Each theme and sub-themes were thoroughly discussed and explained in the data and results of this chapter. Two themes and seven sub-themes emerged from the participants’ responses to research question one.
Theme 1 is that reading aloud accommodation (RAA) is beneficial to students. Theme 1 supports the findings of the similarities of perceptions of the participants believe there are many benefits RAAs offer to students in the classroom. Sub-themes for theme 1 are: read-aloud accommodations benefits are reading grade; read-aloud accommodations benefit students’ state test scores and read-aloud accommodations benefit students to lessen misbehavior in the classroom. These three sub-themes support the findings of theme 1, RAAs benefit students overall reading performance in the classroom. Participants’ perceptions summed up together as they believed that RAAs are benefiting their children and students in both home and school. Participants thought that RAAs are benefiting their children and students in reading, state-testing, and helps in decreasing behavior issues in the classroom.

Theme 2 of research question one revealed the significance of the teachers’ role in conducting RAAs in the classroom. This theme supports the findings that teachers have a big key role to play in the classroom most especially in implementing RAAs for all students in the classroom. Four sub-themes emerged on theme 2 of research question one. These are teachers as the sole provider of RAA in the classroom; teachers as a motivator in the classroom; teachers as a good role model of RAA in the classroom; and teachers’ need of professional development training of conducting RAA in the classroom. Tori stated that “To improve reading performance in school, educators should set aside time for reading, encourage students to read independently and encourage students to choose their book(s).” Tina indicated:

I just told my students to keep trying. Ask for help if they need to…do not be ashamed to ask advice if they don’t know how to read such words or passage. Also, I encourage them to borrow books from the library or at least try to read any reading material at home too. In that way, they are helping themselves to read words daily.
The sub-themes revealed that though teachers are considered sole providers of RAAs in the classroom, they need to implement RAAs appropriately and be good role models to students in doing the reading with fluency, decoding, and writing correctly. Rebecca said:

It is very beneficial to children watch examples on how teaching accommodation should be read fluently, thinking should go, prepare children to do on their own, modeling good readers should read/think, ask questions/read before, during, and after reading.

It is also perceived that other adults in the classroom can also do RAAs if they have the license to do it. Students are great emulators, so teachers are expected to do RAAs accordingly. Also, it is perceived that most teachers need to attend in-service training for conducting RAAs correctly.

Two themes and three sub-themes emerged in research question two. Theme 1 revealed that RAAs is beneficial to students’ state-testing. Most participants stated that RAAs is beneficial for their children during state-testing. This is only beneficial for SWLIs and not for SWOLIs as just the ones receiving accommodations can avail of such RAAs during state-testing. Overall, participants stated that their comfortable for their children receiving RAAs during state testing.

Sub-theme of theme 1 is parents’ frequency of reading support at home. Parents stated that most of them did RAAs and reading to their children at home at least once in a week and some other parents also revealed that they do RAAs and reading daily to their child at home. Parents did their part in supporting their child at home as far as trying to help with homework, reading the book, and reading assignments at home.

Theme 2 is parents’ role in conducting or implementing RAAs in preparation for state-testing of their child/children. Parents stated that they did their best in implementing RAAs at home. Participants stated that they support what their children need at school and try to do a follow-up at home by helping the child read in the best way parents can do.
Sub-themes are parents’ expectations of RAAs in the school and at home and parents’ concerns about RAAs at home and school. Parents expected other adults could do RAAs to help their children at school. Parents revealed that teachers did not do enough to help their child at school. Other parents also expected that teachers should set aside time for students to choose and read their books. Parents concerns noted that it is unknown to them if they have done RAAs correctly. Many parents stated they wanted to attend RAAs workshop if it is offered to them because they wanted to know how it is done. A parent was also upset knowing that her daughter’s teacher did not implement the RAAs correctly.

One theme and two sub-themes emerged as additional findings that supported the two research questions. Theme 1 is RAAs as the most impactful accommodations for students at home and at school. Participants stated that RAAs is the most impactful accommodations at home and at school as it helps the child learn to understand using listening comprehension skills strategies. Participants indicated how RAAs help close skill gaps that students experience in the classroom. Participants stated how RAAs could help students understanding the gist of the story, building self-confidence, and a sense of trust and responsibility by the adult implementing RAAs to them.

Lucyille stated,

Because not all children can read well, and children need somebody to guide most especially in reading…it may not be that reading aloud accommodation is for all, but if a teacher is doing it for the sake of the other children who also have difficulty understanding, then it can benefit every child in the classroom.

The two sub-themes are factors affecting the impact of RAAs in the classroom and students other learning disabilities concerning the impact of RAAs in the classroom. Participants revealed that there are several factors affecting the impact of RAAs in the classroom such as the lack of foundational skills in reading, lack of exposure to text, students are not taught and exposed to
reading when they were young, and students didn’t have any practice of reading outside of school and not enough help at school. Sea Crest stated that “Because children learn best at a young age, if a child is not learning at a certain age, then it will be hard to learn when a child gets older.” Aida indicated that “I think students struggle with reading due to lack of foundation, reading disability, and no desire.” Wakanda also said that “It’s not enough to help with the children at school.” Participants also revealed their concerns to parents are also struggling readers themselves. Martha stated that she cannot understand many words and that her daughter is helping her other child practice reading. She also revealed that she brought her children to public libraries to borrow books. Majority of parents and teachers participants revealed that students’ inattentiveness is also one of the factors students struggle in reading despite having RAAs in the classroom and at home.
Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

Introduction

This study addressed the perception of teachers and parents on the impact of RAAs for students with learning impairments (SWLIs) and students without learning impairments (SWOLIs). Federal, state, and local government created legislation that addressed the educational needs of all students including the SWLIs. Even the non-profit organizations also helped families and their children to ensure that SWLIs reached their potential.

This study was a descriptive case study using thematic analysis. This was done by analyzing the content of the responses of each participant. This study used purposeful sampling to obtain “information-rich cases from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research” (Patton, 1990, p. 169). “The rationale of purposeful sampling is to select information-rich cases whose study will illuminate the questions under study” (Patton, 1990, p. 169). Triangulation was used to collect different data sources such as the interviews, follow-up interviews, questionnaires, and field notes observations from participants. The semi-structured interviews were taken from the researcher’s notes using key points and details and did a member check to make sure of the validity and reliability of the data. Clausen (2012) stated that “under certain conditions, audio transcriptions of qualitative research interviews can be replaced by taking notes, with no harm done to reliability, validity, and transparency” (p. 1). The interview questions were open-ended. Loubere (2017) stated that in extensive semi-structured interviews, it prompted her to consider how crucial but unrecorded, information could be collected, valued, and adequately analyzed alongside other types such that recording can close off essential areas of inquiry for more exploratory options of participants. The interviews were then transcribed and coded. The questionnaires were transferred to a blank word document, and field notes were also written every after meeting of the participants to make sure the raw data was written.
A total of four themes and 10 sub-themes emerged after analyzing the coded data. Also, one theme and two sub-themes discovered and were considered as additional findings that supported the two main research questions. This study used Yin’s model (2011) of thematic analysis. The findings were collected from the 21 participants who participated in the study. All participants had the same perception on all of the research questions based on the themes emerged in the results of the triangulation of data. All participants had alignment of their responses on all of the interviews, questions, follow-up questions, and field notes. Both participants had an alignment of their perception based on the research questions and the purpose of this study.

**Summary of the Results**

Over the years, the local, state, and federal governments created legislation for addressing the educational needs of all students. ESSA and IDEA ensured these rights and adequately provide benefits by supplying stated with guidelines for designing and offering special education and related services to students at the school. Much regulation regarding SWLIs had been passed, and many changes have occurred. The ruling on the LRE within the IDEA required that SWLIs were provided with access to the general education curriculum, including academic, extra-curricular, and other school activities offered to both types of students (Dancer, 2013; Dretchen-Sirapiglia, 2016).

Also, the objective of NCLB 2001 was to improve the reading outcomes for all students (U. S. Department of Education, 2004). Determining effective strategies to teach a young child to read was a critical need (Smith, 2016). Luckner (2013) stated that the ability to read is essential to achieve in school, being an informed citizen, succeeding in one’s career, and being personally fulfilled.

As previously mentioned, there were two research questions of this study. These were:

RQ1. How do some teachers perceive reading comprehension accommodations for both
SWLIs and SWOLIs in their reading, state test, and classroom behavior in both fourth and fifth grades?

RQ2. How do some parents perceive reading comprehension accommodations for their children when they take state tests for both SWLIs and SWOLIs?

All two questions were addressed as participants unveiled their answers. The research questions called for the review of the mandates of the NCLB and IDEA on the impact of RAAs for students.

As discussed in Chapter 2 of this study, it was stated that RAAs as the most common accommodations in the general education classroom to improve students’ comprehension and learning curriculum content (Li, 2014). While RAAs are one of the most common accommodations provided for SWLIs, they were also becoming more available to SWOLIs in the classroom because both types of students were placed together in the regular education classroom at some point of the day.

The reading problem for SWLIS was crucial because it impacted their reading comprehension and thus affected their reading achievement (Li, 2014). Low reading comprehension had many impacts on the influence of SWLIs’ learning. It used to be SWLIs struggled in reading, but based on the researcher’s observation, regular education students also struggled in reading as well—a term called dyslexia by many. The International Dyslexia Organization explained dyslexia (2018):

It is characterized by difficulties with accurate and fluent word recognition and by poor spelling and decoding abilities. These difficulties typically result from a deficit in the phonological component of language that is often unexpected about other cognitive abilities and the provision of effective classroom instruction. Secondary consequences may include problems in reading comprehension and reduced reading experience that can impede the growth of vocabulary and
background knowledge. Most students with dyslexia will receive the reading and writing help they need outside of the general education classroom, but there are many things a general education teacher can do to help students with dyslexia not only avoid situations but thrive in your classroom. (p. 2)

While learning disabilities are rampant around the world, dyslexia is considered to be a real kind of dysfunction of a students’ mind as well as stated by Sandman-Hurley (2014). Parents and teachers had a great role to play in educating their children as current findings, and results of the research studies revealed that they had the same concern for students’ reading level and reading skills. Both wanted to show support to these students by doing their job at school and home. Parents stated they wanted to show they care for their children at home by reading to them using books and magazines, practicing reading using flashcards and other aids, and bringing their children to the library to borrow books.

Meanwhile, teachers stated that they provided RAAs to all students so they can improve their listening and reading comprehension skills. Most teachers also reported they read to the students most of the times of the day so the students can learn better in the classroom. In summary, both parents and teachers agreed that they all gave support to the students at school and home to improve and increase their overall reading performance and they both perceived that RAAs impact students’ academic performance in school.

Discussion of the Results

The current qualitative descriptive case study aimed at analyzing and understanding the different perceptions of the participants on the impact of RAAs for both SWLIs and SWOLIs. By analyzing the content of the responses of each participant, patterns of themes and sub-themes emerged. This study also sought to address whether some parents and some teachers had the same
understanding on RAAs for both SWLIs and SWOLIs. Further, the researcher gathered robust
data on which accommodations were most impactful for both SWLIs and SWOLIs.

Thematic analysis was used to find emerging themes and sub-themes of the participants’
responses to the interviews, follow-up interviews, questionnaires, and field notes observation.
Thematic analysis was chosen as the most appropriate method for this study, particularly because
the interview transcripts were transcribed. This is a method for identifying, describing, analyzing,
and reporting themes and patterns within data (Braun & Clark, 2006). Triangulation was formed
from different data sources on the interviews, follow-up interviews, questionnaires, and field notes
is an attempt to map out or explain the richness and complexity of human behavior fully by
studying it from more than one standpoint” (p. 254). Overall, there were four themes, and 10 sub-
themes emerged to capture the impact of RAAs to both SWLIs and SWOLIS in fourth- and fifth-
grade as well as participants’ perception of RAAs to students based on the research questions. One
theme and two sub-themes also transpired and were considered as additional findings that
supported the two main research questions. Based on the data collected in Chapter 4, the
conclusion will be summarized, the results of each research question, and the revelation of the
additional findings were addressed.

**Research Question One. How do some teachers perceive reading comprehension accommodations for both SWLIs and SWOLIs in both fourth and fifth grades?** As stated in
Chapter 4, the results of the teachers’ perception of the impact of RAAs for both fourth- and fifth-
grade students and the results of the findings in Chapter 5 were similar. Majority of the teachers
perceived reading comprehension accommodation as helpful and beneficial to all students in the
classroom. Teachers perceived RAAs as useful to students’ reading grade, students reading
performance, students’ lessening of misbehavior, and students’ state tests. Each teacher had the
similar perception that RAAs supported students’ cognitive level and it helped increase reading comprehension. Though teachers faced challenges such as misbehavior of students in and outside the classroom, they still believed that with RAAs, students could improve their reading skills. All teachers stated that if RAAs proved to be working for students, it should be provided to the students on a daily basis. All teacher agreed that RAAs allow students to focus more on the concepts/skills instead of attempting to decode words. All participants stated that RAAs could be done with and without the teacher reading it to the students.

Teachers believed that other than the human reader, computers can do RAAs which was also beneficial for students. The majority of the teachers agreed the use of computers do the RAAs as they stated it pictured the official results of the students’ performance, only very few teachers reported that they still preferred human reader for RAAs as they can adjust the pacing of the reading of the text. None of the teachers indicated that they disliked RAAs for all students. All of the teachers said they did RAAs to all students— with and without learning impairments. They stated that with RAAs, even the regular education students could benefit from it. All students can be at the same pace at the same time when teachers start reading a passage or students take a daily test. Teachers stated that RAAs can be done daily in the classroom and can be done by other adults authorized to do the RAAs for students. Other adults meant that related service personnel in a campus like the speech therapists, para-professionals, physical therapists, instructional specialists, and even the school administrators who will have a read aloud with the child.

Teachers’ role is also revealed in the findings. Teachers believed they did their best to help educate the children in school. All teachers stated that they constantly monitor students in the classroom. They had good classroom management and checked students for understanding. Some teachers encouraged students. Others needed to demonstrate a good understanding of “good
reading” for students. Teachers fixed students’ needs in the classroom, teachers cared for academics, and teachers are motivating students to succeed.

The only misconception for the teachers was that the most teachers did not believe that RAAs can help increase students’ DIBELS scores. Since teachers were more knowledgeable about DIBELS, they knew how it was used. They knew that DIBELS was used as a universal screener and it was not mandated that RAAs will be used at all when conducting the assessments, so all of the teachers stated that they did not believe that using RAAs for DIBELS can help increase the scores because they stated that RAAs were not used at all.

One thing that teachers needed to be able to implement RAAs in the classroom was to attend in-service training on RAAs. RAAs professional development can be provided by the school district or by the Department of the Exceptional Children. All teachers agreed that if RAAs training is offered again in the future, they wanted to sign-up to further enhance their knowledge on the proper implementation of RAAs in the classroom. Figure 2 represents the chart that summarizes RQ1.
Research Question Two. How do some parents perceive reading comprehension accommodations for their children when they take state testing for both SWLIs and SWOLIs? As stated in Chapter 4, the results of the parents’ perception of the reading comprehension accommodations for their children when they took state testing and the results of the findings in Chapter 5 were similar. All parents perceived that reading comprehension accommodations for their children were beneficial and useful when their children took the state-testing. All parent was concerned about their students’ reading level and were thankful for the
accommodations their children received during state-testing. All parents stated that they were excited about their children taking the state-testing in the spring. They were anxious about how their children perform during the test. They were more concerned with the results of the tests. Most of the parents were excellent support for their children during state testing. Few parents stated that they wished their children good luck during the week of testing, some parents reported they encouraged their children to do their best during testing.

The only misconception of parents was that reading comprehension accommodations were only available to all students during classroom discussion, classroom testing, and other classroom activities, but it is not possible for all students during standardized testing. Despite the misconceptions, all parents still believed that RAAs were beneficial and helpful to their children. Parents perceived RAAs as useful to students’ reading grade, students reading performance, students’ lessening of misbehavior, and students’ state tests.

One issue that some of the parents stated were their reading level. Martha and Karry were two of the parents who indicated that they had reading struggle themselves. Though all parents indicated that they did RAAs at home, few parents said that their reading struggle hindered them in conducting RAAs at home. These parents reported that they also had reading issues and that most of the times it was their children reading to their other children due to them lacked the skills of doing a one-on-one reading to their child. Parents did not have a clear understanding of what read-aloud accommodations truly meant. Parents misunderstood the true meaning of read-aloud accommodations. Despite the misconception of RAAs, parents were not bothered by its confusion as they continued to provide RAAs they best understood it could be delivered to their children.

Another finding revealed that most parents expected that teachers would do more of RAAs for the students. While it was true that teachers did much RAAs for children at school, teachers were also hoping parents to do their part—conduct RAAs at home—to their children. In that way,
both parents and teachers were in one accord for the benefit of educating the children. All parents agreed that to be able to conduct RAAs at home; teachers needed to tell parents of the progress of their children so they would be updated of their child’s performance in school. One parent stated that she expected teachers to teach her children at school. While it was true that teachers were scheduled to the teacher the children at school, parents needed to understand they are necessary to continue teaching their children at home to be able to connect all the parts students need to be academically successful.

One thing that parents stated they needed to do to be able to implement RAAs at home was to attend in-service training on RAAs. RAAs professional development can be provided by the school district or by the Department of the Exceptional Children. Majority of the parents were in agreement that if RAAs training is offered again in the future, they wanted to sign-up to further enhance their knowledge of the proper implementation of RAAs in the classroom. Figure 2 represents the summary of information found in Research Question 2.
Figure 3. This simple chart model, demonstrates the summary of the information found in Research Question 2.

**Additional Findings and its Results**

Current findings revealed that parents and teachers had the same perception of the positive impact of RAAs for students in the classroom and at home. Both parents and teachers believed that RAAs support and help students’ comprehension in the school and at home. Both participants also agreed to open communication between parents and teachers to be able to communicate a child’s progress positively and need at school. Most parents’ participants stated that they wanted their child’s teacher to call them anything that their child did at school. In agreement were also the teachers who wanted to call parents to update them on their child’s academic performance and behavior while at school.
Both parents and teachers also agreed that RAAs was the most impactful accommodations among other accommodations for students in the classroom. Both participants’ also decided that constant practice and exposure to text and books helped students improve reading skills. Some parents and some teachers agreed that RAAs lessen misbehavior of students in the classroom. All participants agreed that RAAs increase reading performance of students in the school and most of all RAAs helped students improve their state-test results. Also, all participants perceived that classroom management was vital for teachers to have excellent instruction in the classroom.

All participants stated that they needed to attend for RAAs professional development in case it is offered by the school district or in the Department of Exceptional Children. All participants said they wanted to know how RAAs are appropriately conducted to be able to apply it correctly to the students at school and at home. Also, all participants stated they wanted positive communication between parents and teachers so they would be in one accord with educating the children.

There was little disagreement with RAAs as an aid to help increase in DEBILS scores for both parents and teachers. All parents believed that RAAs helped students improve their DIBELLS scores, but the majority of the teachers stated differently that DIBELS was used as a universal screener to see the actual results of students and that if RAAs was applied it changed the effect of the scores for the child. Therefore, some parents and some teachers were on opposite ideas on DIBELS with regards to using RAAs for the children at school. Figure 4 represents the summary of the information found in the Additional Findings and its Results section.
Parents and Teachers’ Perceptions

Figure 4. This simple chart model, demonstrates the summary of the information found in the Additional Findings and its Results section.

Discussion of the Results in Relation to the Literature

The results of this study revealed that five things stood out among the issues discussed by all of the participants. These results demonstrated the alignment of the research questions positive findings. All of the participants agreed that RAAs impact students’ overall reading achievements. All of the participants decided that they needed additional training for the proper implementation of RAAs in the classroom. The following details were the current findings and how the results related back to the literature of this study.

In the current findings of this study, it was found that RAAs were said to be beneficial to students. RAAs as the most impactful accommodations for students in the classroom. In the literature review of this study, RAAs were considered one possible way for students to be
academically successful was to have RAAs in the classroom. RAAs were one of the most commonly used accommodations in the general education classroom to improve students’ comprehension and learning curriculum content (Li, 2014). While RAAs was one of the most common accommodations provided for SWLIs, they were also becoming more available to SWOLIs because both types of students were placed in the regular education classroom setting.

In the current findings of this study, it was found that RAAs were said to be beneficial to students’ reading grade. The literature review of this research revealed that the issue was that many SWLIs and even SWOLIs were low-performing not only in reading but also in other core subject areas such as math, science, and social studies. Jung and Guskey (2007) stated that the IDEA of 1997 and 2004 acknowledged the need and required IEP team to plan and document how SWLIs’ progress be examined and communicated. Class grades earned by every SWLI were a depiction of satisfactory performance of students and an indirect measurement of success of integration efforts in general (Nesse, Tindal, Stevens, & Elliot, 2015). For students in an inclusive setting, some classroom practices put the SWLIs at either advantage or disadvantage as compared to SWOLIs. However, teachers nowadays had faced struggles in assigning meaningful grades without the thought of grade inflation to SWLIs, most especially those students placed in the regular education setting (Finefter-Rosenbluh & Levinston, 2015). Teachers were thought to give grade adaptations according to how students perform in the class which led to grade inflation (Schroeder, 2016). Even if a child did not deserve a passing mark, due to RAAs, teachers were expected to give a passing grade for SWLIs. Teachers were questioned for a failing score assigned to a student because the child had accommodations in his or her IEP. If teachers continued to provide low passing scores to a child, it was believed to be one of the causes of student dropped-out from school (Thurlow et al., 2016).
Vygotsky’s concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) might help a child who was struggling to learn in the classroom as teachers learned to scaffold a lesson for the child to understand (Bainbridge, 2017). Despite the scaffolding method, students’ disability hindered the processing of skills to understand better the concept most especially for students processing higher order thinking skills questions. Abedi et al. (2012) stated that reading problem was one of the reading barriers for students’ success.

In the literature review of this study, the idea of construct-irrelevant barriers was mentioned to access or respond to test items while retaining the ability to measure the expected outcomes (Jin & Yan, 2017). However, it was not the case in the current findings, as the researcher was looking at the perception of the impact of RAAs to students and that the researcher was not looking at the students’ scores for any construct-irrelevant barriers. One thing for sure in RAAs was that the increased time of implementation in the general education classroom provided both types of students with the chances of small group discussion participation (Lemons, 2015).

In the current findings of this research, it was found that RAAs beneficial to students’ state test scores, but the literature review of this research stated that RAAs showed a positive impact on state testing for both types of students. The other reason for RAAs affecting students was it benefited both types of students from the accommodations without a differential boost; if there was, it benefited more SWLIs than SWOLIs (Witmer et al., 2015). The debate was that RAAs could modify the construct being measures as stated by Jin and Yan (2017). Witmer et al. (2015) stated that RAAs were still beneficial for both types of students with no differential boost; it there was, then SWLIs benefited more than the SWOLIs. Though teachers and parents’ participants stated that they preferred RAAs for all children, in the literature review, it was reported that only the SWOLIs wanted the accommodations and the SWLIs did not want it. So, Li (2014) expressed
that students who needed such accommodations benefited from it and those who did not wish for such accommodations, did not benefit from it at all.

The reauthorization of both IDEA 1997 and the passage of NCLB Act of 2002 had promoted an increase in the use of state testing assessments thus requiring highly qualified teachers to teach the core content subject areas (VanCise, 2013). Also, Trinkle (2013) stated that since students were included in the state assessments, teachers were allowed to administer the appropriate accommodations for all SWLIs who take standardized tests. The mandate of NCLB (2004) which required all students to participate in yearly state testing and meet the academic proficiency standards sets, hold the school accountable for students’ learning, thus potentially becoming a significant problem for a school administrator. Teachers were required to be highly qualified to be able to provide quality instructions to children fully. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2013), testing accommodations needed to be implemented with integrity and fidelity for it to be effective.

In the current findings of this research, it was found that RAAs beneficial to lessen students’ misbehavior, in the literature review of this research, it was stated that teachers who consistently followed the IEP accommodations helped SWLIs perform and act better in the classroom. Vargas (2013) indicated B. F. Skinner’s operant conditioning theory. Vargas (2013) stated that students performed depending on positive and negative reinforcement provided by the teacher. However, Castelli (2008) expressed that in case students misbehave in the classroom, the time-out option is available for students instead of giving the wrong reinforcement.

The reason for students’ satisfaction with RAAs was that the academic achievement of both types of students had social-emotional implications. In Chapter 4, some parents and some teachers stated that they preferred providing the accommodations to the students because it helped them in their classroom management, time, and pace in class instruction. In such a way students would
behave in the classroom due the teachers learned how RAAs were conducted for the students during the day. Participants stated that it made students felt they belonged to the group and not felt embarrassed for not reading well in class. However, in the literature review, teacher perceptions of their competence could influence the students in the classroom. The effect of the accommodations affected teachers’ perceptions and behavior to students (Allen, 2017), but in the current findings, the teachers stated that they put out few of the students for misbehavior, but all teachers did say that overall RAAs was a considerable help in lessening misbehavior in the classroom.

In the current findings of this research, it was found that RAAs were not used for universal assessments most particularly in DIBELS. It did not help increase DIBELS scores for students. In the literature review section of this research, it was found out that the simple view of reading depicted the DIBELS theory. DIBELS checked for students five simple opinions of text. Gough, Juel, and Griffith (1992) stated that for students to be a reader, one had to have proper decoding, oral comprehension to have good reading comprehension. Most of the students in the current findings as stated by the teacher participants, most of the students lacked either decoding of oral knowledge. Therefore, the students lacked reading comprehension. Other than poor decoding, the teacher participants stated that students lack the foundational skills in reading, required exposure to texts, lack vocabulary, writing, and spelling skills due to parents’ non-exposure of their children to places, words, and more on-grade level books.

The objective of the 2001 NCLB Act was to improve reading outcomes for all students (U. S. Department of Education, 2004). Skills for basic early literacy were the foundation for the development of reading for students. Smith (2016) stated that finding effective strategies to teach a child to read was a crucial need. The five essential components of reading instructions were mentioned in the literature review. These were: phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. In the current findings, all teacher participants stated that most
children lack either three or four of the essential components in reading. It was one of the reasons why students struggled so much in reading due to lack of the vital elements. Parents stated that they wanted RAAs conducted for DIBELS. They said it because of the lack of knowledge about DIBELS, but teachers knew more about it than the parents, so the teachers stated RAAs was not useful at all. Castillo (2013) and Serafini (2011) advised that all stakeholders in education needed to continue to examine current reading instruction in schools and that the instructional lessons which included the five essential components of reading be involved in understanding instructions.

In the current findings of this study, it was suggested that teachers and parents need to attend professional development training of conducting RAA in the classroom. Participants were asked if they had done RAAs appropriately in the school. Most parents stated they did it the way they understood it. Most teachers believed they did RAAs based on the IEP the teachers provided to them. Some teachers noted that the school counselor did not give guidelines on how RAAs were conducted during practice tests. Much confusion arose on the implementation of RAAs, but one thing sure was that all participants stated they held RAAs daily to the students. In the literature review of this research, the need for teachers to attend training on RAAs was mentioned. Regular education teachers may lack the discipline of proper implementation of RAAs to students; therefore, school districts or administrators were asked to provide in-service training for these teachers. In the same manner, the majority of the participants agreed with such findings. They were also in agreement with attending RAA professional development training.

**Limitations**

Current findings may provide information on the impact of RAAs to all fourth and fifth-grade students on their overall reading performance. The small number of sample population limited the collectivity of the depth of the data. Studies utilizing larger samples would be able to provide stronger evidence for the generalizability of the findings, while follow-up interviews and
observations would indicate if and how any of the above actions may have an impact on RAAs for students in the classroom.

Different sources other than interviews and questionnaire could have added more data to the thematic analysis and triangulation. Also, the participants’ responses were based on their personal experiences and knowledge of RAAs. Parent participants had limited knowledge on RAAs, DIBELS, and the other information in during the interviews and the questions listed on the questionnaire, so parents made an assumption of their answers based on their personal opinion and understanding. Teacher participants knew the effectivity of RAAs in the classroom, but teachers had limited knowledge of its full and proper implementation. Also, the lack of time to conduct the interviews and questions triggered the researcher to expedite the whole process without jeopardizing the quality, validity, and reliability of data.

Since this was a descriptive case study, the goal was not to establish generalizable findings that exhaust the data. In that sense, this study contributes to the growing tradition of conducting small-scale qualitative investigations involving different stakeholders within the field of educational assessments (Howley, Howley, Henning, Gilla, & Weade, 2013). The explicit aim of this study was to tap into the different perceptions of participants to get a glimpse of their experiences and reflections of the implementations and benefits of RAAs to all students in the classroom. Needless to say, whether participants agreed on RAAs impact on students or not, their responses depend solely on their personal experiences, background, and knowledge.

**Implications of the Results for Practice, Policy, and Theory**

Public school districts in many states are required to demonstrate an increase in student academic achievement through annual academic learning gains via standardized tests scores while maintaining highly qualified teachers (Johnson, 2012). Johnson (2012) stated that the most critical factors in student learning gains are teachers. However, several implications can be assumed even
at this early stage of the research. First, since reading is crucial for students and honing the reading skills is essential for all children, it is beneficial for students if both parents and teachers collaboratively work together. By collaborative effort meant it would increase meaningful instructional practices that would be used to improve students’ learning in the classroom in addition to using RAAs to all students. Second, since some parents and some teachers are unaware of the correct usage of RAAs for all students, it is imperative that parents and teachers need to attend RAAs training to be able to implement RAAs effectively to the students at school and at home. Third, both parents and teachers need to work together in positively communicating students’ academic and behavior progress on a daily basis. Both participants need to be in one accord in providing quality education to all students. It means that teachers do their job in educating the students in the classroom and use any possible accommodations available to the child to lessen reading a struggle.

Similarly, parents must do their job in making a follow-up of their children’s education at home by supporting and helping students do their homework and other assignments assigned to the students. Fourth, all participants are required to provide motivation, support, encouragement, and support so students will feel the need to study more and practice reading well in the classroom and at home. It is imperative that both parents and teachers need to show consistent support and motivation to students regardless of the situation in the classroom. Fifth, since the five essential components of reading, were not properly understood by parents, it would be necessary for parents to attend training on DIBELS so they will have an awareness and knowledge of what DIBELS is and how it impacts their children’s reading.

Also, it would be useful if the school district mandates all stakeholders in the community who has involvement in the life of students to attend in-service training on the proper implementation of RAAs to students. In that way, all stakeholders are in one pace in providing
quality accommodations to students, and that helps students improve on their overall reading performance.

This descriptive case study was small regarding the number of participants with only 21 respondents and only a few data sources for triangulation. Yet, the results reinforced the conceptual and education framework of the literature review; Vygotsky’s ZPD framework; Gough, Juel, and Griffith’s five essential components of reading instruction; CCSS and PARCC, B. F. Skinner’s Operant Conditioning, NCLB, IDEA, IDEIA, and ESSA mandates; and it also reinforced the review of the research literature by providing information on RAAs benefits on reading achievement, grading, state-testing assessments, behavior, and five essential components of reading instruction which comprised DIBELS theory. All these information produced positive results in analyzing the overarching themes and sub-themes for thematic analysis of data.

The practical implications of this research study are that all stakeholders need to learn how RAAs impact students’ reading comprehension. It means that all stakeholders must have an awareness of the effect of RAAs it provides to the students who need it the most. Teachers, in particular, must, in turn, implement RAAs and other accommodations available to students with fidelity. Teachers must understand that dyslexia, lack of reading foundation, lack of spelling, vocabulary, writing, and spelling skills are real for students who struggle in reading. Teachers and parents’ responses revealed RAAs need to be acted seriously in the classroom and at home. Reading Rockets (2018) stated that:

Reading aloud is one of the most important things parents and teachers can do with children. Reading aloud builds many important foundational skills, introduces vocabulary, provides a model of fluent, expressive reading, and helps children recognize what reading for pleasure is all about. (p. 1)
RAAs should be used by all adults who have authority to use in the classroom and parents should use RAAs for their children at home any time of day. If parents and teachers do RAAs at home and school, it helps students build their self-confidence in reading and elevate their reading level as assessments and test screenings come. To give the best education to students, parents and teachers must read-aloud to students as it not only form quality time, it supports students’ love of reading.

**Recommendations for Further Research**

The results of this study support future research. To further answer the study research questions, future research studies could be conducted with a more significant number of participants across multiple schools within the school district and use various sources of data to be able to use triangulation method widely in order to determine consistency within the findings and overall generalizations (Creswell, 2012 and Ormrod, 2014). Other studies with larger populations could also research if there is an impact of RAAs for SWLIs and SWOLIs in different grades such as all elementary, middle, or high school students. Also, other studies with more significant populations could research on finding what accommodations are most impactful as perceived by parents and teachers’ skills on the reading comprehension scores for their children in both SWLIs and SWOLIs. This can be done using the quantitative, qualitative, or mixed method. These results could provide further information on how RAAs could impact students at all levels and different schools.

A mixed methodology research study that also included a more significant number of teachers and parents within different schools, district, or other states could utilize questionnaires and interviews to compile data on the impact of RAAs to SWLIs and SWOLIs. Although the subjective experience was tested against some objective indicators in the existing study, after all, it is of great importance in itself. Further, triangulation may generate more complicated and potentially more useful findings in the study.
In addition to improving the recording and transcription abilities, further research could also use the audio-video recording to make sure that time is used efficiently, and the ideas are entirely captured from the participants’ responses. Also, the use of software to transcribe and code data for emergent themes could be possible for future research. This information can be used by any administrators, educators, and school districts to check the impact of RAAs’ proper implementation in the classroom and its benefits to students.

**Conclusion**

This study sought to analyze the impact of RAAs to fourth and fifth-grade students on their overall reading performance. The literature review revealed the gap in the research that informs how students struggle in reading despite many legislations and mandates from the federal, state, and local government institutions. Despite the mandates from NCLB, IDEA, IDEIA, and ESSA, students experienced struggle in reading across the nation. Even with the current implementation of accommodations as stated by the students’ IEP, students still have reading issues in the classroom. Though RAAs are widely used in the school (Li, 2014), many students are still functioning below grade level in reading; below average in their reading performance; and unsatisfactory in their state tests results.

Due to these issues in reading, the role of a school leader has evolved even more drastically (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). School administrators are given accountability from the states. Administrators are mandated to provide professional development training to teachers and parents on RAAs. If teachers and parents implement RAAs effectively, it must reflect on students’ overall reading performance. Through proper knowledge on, government legislation, and guidelines, behavior, DIBELS, RAAs, and other accommodations available for students, all stakeholders must have total awareness of students’ need for reading and uplift the struggle in their reading ability. Teachers are mandated by school leaders to give quality instruction to the students to have
proficient skills not only in reading but other core courses as well. Parents, on the other hand, are expected to do their job in educating their children. The expectations for both teachers and parents in providing RAAs to students are set on high. It is the accountability of all stakeholders to ensure high-quality instruction, provide RAAs when needed, and provide support at all times to students whether in the classroom or at home.

As John Dewey (1938) stated, “Education is not preparation for life; education is life itself” (p. 1). Thus, all stakeholders must be encouraged to empower themselves and the students they serve.
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Appendix A: Parent Informed Consent

Date____________________ Preference: Personal___ Via Phone ___

Dear Parent,

I am Marlyn Pangatungan. I am a researcher and a student at Concordia University – Portland, College of Education.

I am conducting a research about the Effects of Read-Aloud Accommodations on the Overall Reading Performance of Elementary Students With and Without Learning Impairment.

For this study, the researcher, me, will ask your consent to participate for my research. There are two things you will do: participate in a brief interview and answer a short questionnaire regarding the effects of reading aloud accommodation on the overall student’s reading performance.

Your personal information will not be included in the research. ONLY your responses will be gathered and analyzed for research purposes.

The benefit of this research is that the researcher is verifying the participant’s understanding and ideas on the effects of reading aloud accommodation to all students in the classroom.

Thank you very much for your participation!

Please contact me, the researcher, by phone or email, if you have any questions or if you want to say “no” to this study. Saying “no” will not affect you or the researcher in any way.

Sincerely,

Investigator/Researcher: Marlyn Pangatungan
Concordia University - Portland
c/o: Faculty Advisor: Dr. Jillian Skelton
Phone: [redacted]
email: [redacted]

School: [redacted]
Phone: [redacted]
email: [redacted]
Appendix B: Teacher Informed Consent

Date____________________ Preference: Personal___ Via Phone ___

Dear Teacher,

I am Marlyn Pangatungan. I am a researcher and a student at Concordia University – Portland, College of Education.

I am conducting a research about the Effects of Read-Aloud Accommodations on the Overall Reading Performance of Elementary Students With and Without Learning Impairment.

For this study, the researcher, me, will ask your consent to participate for my research. There are two things you will do: participate in a brief interview and answer a short questionnaire regarding the effects of reading aloud accommodation on the overall student’s reading performance.

Your personal information will not be included in the research. ONLY your responses will be gathered and analyzed for research purposes.

The benefit of this research is that the researcher is verifying the participant’s understanding and ideas on the effects of reading aloud accommodation to all students in the classroom.

Thank you very much for your participation!

Please contact me, the researcher, by phone or email, if you have any questions or if you want to say “no” to this study. Saying “no” will not affect you or the researcher in any way.

Sincerely,

Investigator/Researcher: Marlyn Pangatungan
Concordia University - Portland

c/o: Faculty Advisor: Dr. Jillian Skelton

Phone: [ REDACTED ]
email: [ REDACTED ]

School: [ REDACTED ]
Phone: [ REDACTED ]
email: [ REDACTED ]
Appendix C: Semi-structured Interview Guide

Pseudonym: _________________________

Check One: ___Parent    ___Teacher          Date: _______________________

Qualitative Research Interview Questions:

The researcher would like to find out about your ideas and insights on the effects of read-aloud accommodations to the student’s overall reading performance. Results will be grouped and individual comments and answers will be anonymous. Please answer as honest as possible.

1. What do you think is the reason why students struggle in reading?

2. How do parents or teachers help students improve their reading performance in school?

3. What do you think is the impact of read-aloud accommodations to the student’s reading performance at school?

4. How do you perceive teachers as the sole source of read-aloud accommodations to students at school?

5. What are your concerns about read-aloud accommodations to students at home? At school?
Appendix D: Questionnaire

Pseudonym: ______________________

Check One: ___ Parent    ___ Teacher    Date: ______________________

Qualitative Research Questionnaires:

The researcher would like to find out about your ideas and insights on the effects of read-aloud accommodations to the student’s overall reading performance. Results will be grouped and individual comments and answers will be anonymous. Please write a detailed explanation of your answers as honest as possible.

1. **What do you think about read-aloud accommodations as an aid to help increase student’s DIBELS scores?**

2. **What do you think about read-aloud accommodations as an aid to help increase student’s reading grade?**
3. What do you think about read-aloud accommodations as an aid to help increase student’s state test scores?

4. What do you think about read-aloud accommodations as an aid to help decrease student’s misbehavior in the classroom?

5. Do you feel the need to have an in-service or professional development training on student’s accommodation particularly read-aloud accommodations?

6. How often do you provide reading aloud accommodation to the students or to your child?
7. Why do you think student’s struggle in reading even though they have read-aloud accommodations?

8. How do you think students perceive teachers as the service provider for their reading?

9. What do you think students benefit the most with reading aloud accommodation?

10. Which do you think is the best reason why students continue to struggle in reading despite having reading aloud accommodation in the classroom or at home? Check all that apply.

   ______ Student’s inattentiveness to details.
   ______ Student’s unprepared to learn.
   ______ Student’s disinterest with the lesson.
   ______ Student’s lack of understanding the lesson.
Appendix E: Gatekeeper permission

Marlyn T. Pangatungan

Mrs. [redacted],

October 18, 2017

Dear Mrs. [redacted],

I currently am working on my doctorate degree at Concordia University in Portland, Oregon with the dissertation title “Effects of Reading Aloud Accommodation on the Overall Reading Performance of Elementary Students with and without Learning Impairment”. I am writing to ask for permission and clearance to access the data from the JCAMPUS Reporting portal for all third through sixth-grade students for three consecutive school years. No human subjects will be contacted. I will also be using public data posted on the [redacted] particularly JCAMPUS web site to understand the significant correlation of students data. In this connection, I would ask for approval to access the all third through 6th grade data on DIBELS, all nine-week grade report, Reading Par/iLEAP/LEAP scores, and discipline history records for the school years 2014-2017.

Approval of this request will in turn be submitted to Concordia University in Portland, Oregon and to the Institutional Review Board (IRB). This data will be used to determine the effects of reading aloud accommodation on the overall reading performance of all elementary students with and without learning impairment. This study will only utilize pre-existing data for causal comparative research design and no human subject is impacted by any form of actual research.

I hope for a positive response in this matter.

Sincerely,

Sgd. Marlyn Pangatungan

Letter to ask permission to access data

From: PANGATUNGAN, MARLYN
Hello Ms. XXXXXX,

Please view attachment for my letter to ask permission to access data of our elementary grade students at XXXXXX. XXXXXX gave her approval last year about data access for my dissertation, but she left XXXXXX this school year. With you being my new principal, it is just right to do things the right way. Data access is key to proving my research study to be probable or not. Further details are on my letter.

Your response is highly appreciated. I am hoping for the best. Thank you very much XXXXXX.

Sincerely,

Mrs. Pangatungan

Principal’s Response:

Thu 10/19/2017 3:19 PM

To: 
PANGATUNGAN, MARLYN;
Cc: 

Good afternoon,
Ms. Marlyn Pangatungan has been granted permission to access grades 3-6 2014-2017, student assessments and discipline data from JCampus for the purpose of her doctoral studies through Concordia University.

[Redacted], Principal

[Redacted]

[Redacted]
Appendix F: Statement of Original Work

The Concordia University Doctorate of Education Program is a collaborative community of scholar-practitioners, who seek to transform society by pursuing ethically-informed, rigorously-researched, inquiry-based projects that benefit professional, institutional, and local educational contexts. Each member of the community affirms throughout their program of study, adherence to the principles and standards outlined in the Concordia University Academic Integrity Policy. This policy states the following:

**Statement of academic integrity.**

As a member of the Concordia University community, I will neither engage in fraudulent or unauthorized behaviors in the presentation and completion of my work, nor will I provide unauthorized assistance to others.

**Explanations:**

**What does “fraudulent” mean?**

“Fraudulent” work is any material submitted for evaluation that is falsely or improperly presented as one’s own. This includes, but is not limited to texts, graphics and other multi-media files appropriated from any source, including another individual, that are intentionally presented as all or part of a candidate’s final work without full and complete documentation.

**What is “unauthorized” assistance?**

“Unauthorized assistance” refers to any support candidates solicit in the completion of their work, that has not been either explicitly specified as appropriate by the instructor, or any assistance that is understood in the class context as inappropriate. This can include, but is not limited to:

- Use of unauthorized notes or another’s work during an online test
- Use of unauthorized notes or personal assistance in an online exam setting
- Inappropriate collaboration in preparation and/or completion of a project
- Unauthorized solicitation of professional resources for the completion of the work.
Statement of Original Work

I attest that:

1. I have read, understood, and complied with all aspects of the Concordia University-Portland Academic Integrity Policy during the development and writing of this dissertation.

2. Where information and/or materials from outside sources has been used in the production of this dissertation, all information and/or materials from outside sources has been properly referenced and all permissions required for use of the information and/or materials have been obtained, in accordance with research standards outlined in the *Publication Manual of The American Psychological Association*

Marlyn Pangatungan

Digital Signature

Marlyn Pangatungan

Name (Typed)

October 20, 2018

Date