

國立政治大學英國語文學系碩士在職專班碩士論文

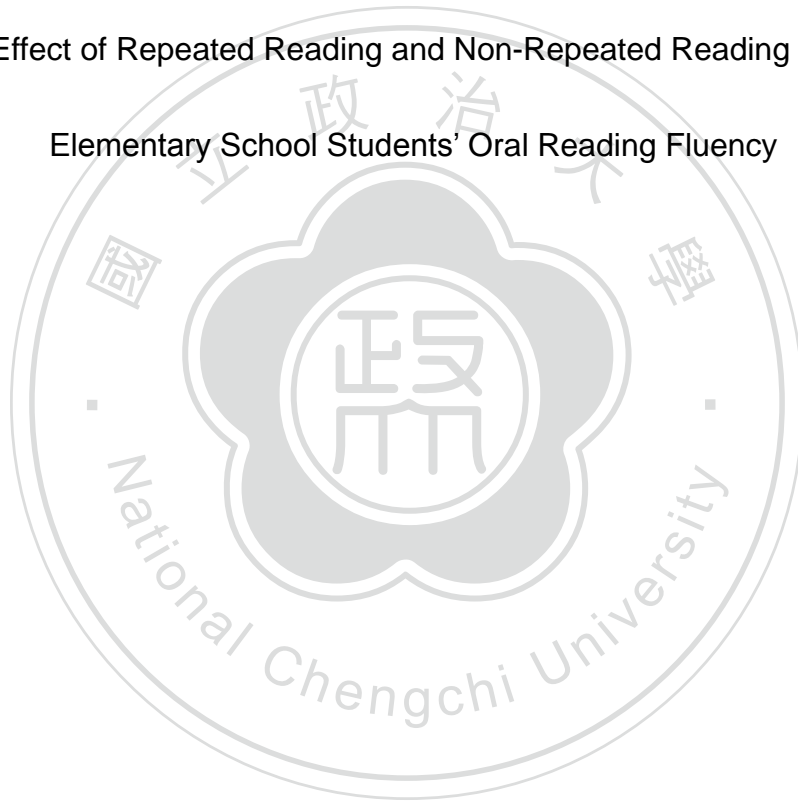
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重覆閱讀與非重覆閱讀對國小學童口語閱讀流暢度之效益研究

The Effect of Repeated Reading and Non-Repeated Reading on EFL

Elementary School Students' Oral Reading Fluency



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To Dr. Chieh-yue Yeh

獻給我的恩師葉潔宇博士



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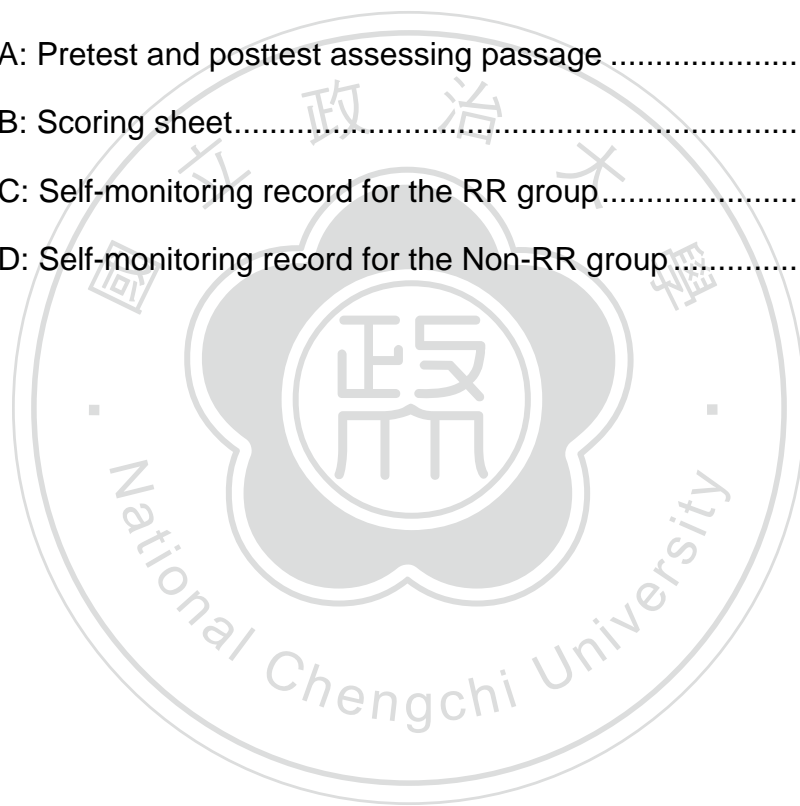
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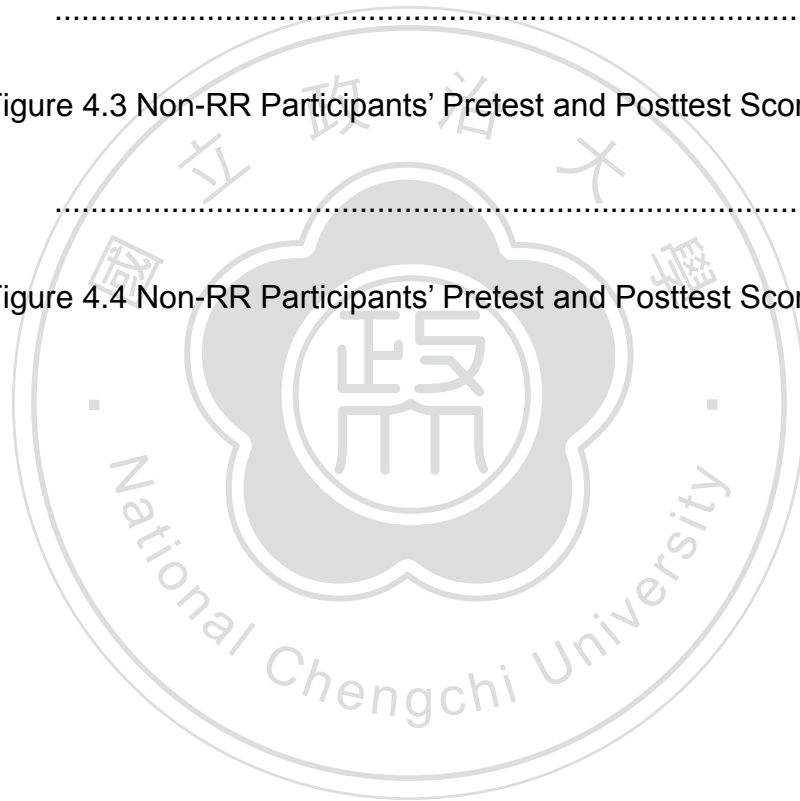
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國立政治大學英國語文學系碩士在職專班

碩士論文摘要提要

論文名稱：重覆閱讀與非重覆閱讀對國小學童口語閱讀流暢度之效益研究

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論文摘要：

本研究旨在了解並比較重覆閱讀及非重覆閱讀對於國小四年級學童的口語閱讀流暢度的影響。本研究以台灣北部某國小四年級中的兩個班級為研究對象，共為 59 人。此閱讀能力相近的兩個班級經隨機分派指定為重覆閱讀組及非重覆閱讀組。在為期 16 週，每週一節的實驗教學中，重覆閱讀組以重覆閱讀法每週閱讀同一本英文讀本，而非重覆閱讀組以非重覆閱讀法每週閱讀兩本讀本。兩組皆於教學前及教學後接受口語閱讀測驗，以了解接受不同教學法的學童在口語閱讀速度及正確性是否有差異。測驗所得的資料以成對樣本 t 檢定及獨立樣本 t 檢定分析進行統計分析。

研究結果顯示重覆閱讀與非重覆閱讀皆能顯著提升研究對象的口語閱讀速度及正確性。此外，非重覆閱讀與重覆閱讀對於受試學童的口語閱讀流暢度顯示相似的成效。此研究結果盼能提供教學者彈性的運用此兩種閱讀教學法並更加重視口語閱讀流暢性的重要。



ABSTRACT

The study aims to examine and compare the effect of assisted repeated reading (RR) and non-repeated reading (Non-RR) approaches on EFL young learners' oral reading rate and accuracy rate. Two classes with homogenous reading level consisting of 59 fourth graders were selected from one elementary school in northern Taiwan and were randomly assigned to two groups, the RR and Non-RR group. During the 16-week instruction, one period of class per week, the RR group practiced reading aloud on one reader with assisted repeated reading approach, whereas the Non-RR group practiced reading aloud on two readers with assisted non-repeated reading approach each class. The data collected from the pretest and posttest assessing the participants' oral reading rate and accuracy rate were analyzed by paired samples t-tests and independent samples t-tests.

The results revealed that the RR and Non-RR groups performed equivalent growth on their reading rate and accuracy rate with significant improvement. It is hoped that the findings provide a deeper understanding on the effect of assisted repeated reading and non-repeated reading on EFL young learners' oral reading fluency and are applied in classrooms.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background and motivation of this study

During these years, early literacy has been one of the focuses in second language or EFL environment. As a trend, formal English courses have been implemented in schools in Taiwan starting from primary education. In addition, in 2010, the Educational Bureau of Taipei County (2010) announced that two periods of additional English class would be implemented into elementary schools in Taipei County and reading is one of the major emphases. As a result, emergent reading instruction has received increasingly emphasis in Taiwan.

Phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and text comprehension are reported as the five components of learning reading in the National Reading Panel (2000). The importance of reading fluency lies on the high correlation with reading comprehension. According to LaBerge and Samuels' automaticity theory (1974), learners who read fast and effortlessly are able to shift their attention from word recognition to comprehending the texts. Based on the automaticity theory, Samuels (1979) proposed a reading fluency approach, repeated reading, to help students read automatically.

Evidence has shown promise that repeated reading is one of the most effective methods to advance students' reading rate and accuracy (Samuels, 1979), yet some drawbacks exist (Logan, 1997). Meanwhile, previous studies (Homa, Klesius, & Hite, 1993; M. Kuhn, 2004; Perfetti, 1985) comparing the effectiveness of repeated reading (RR) and non-repeated (Non-RR) reading demonstrated similar effect on students' oral reading rate and accuracy rate. Nevertheless, little research has been found on the context of L2/ EFL environment. Accordingly, there is a need to conduct a research comparing repeated reading and non-repeated reading approaches on EFL students' reading fluency.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is to examine the effect of assisted repeated reading and non-repeated reading on EFL young learners' oral reading fluency. If RR and Non-RR leads to similar effect on EFL young beginners' oral reading fluency, non-repeated reading can serve as an alternative approach for reading fluency instruction.

Research Questions

Based on the purpose of the study, three research questions were investigated in the present study:

1. Is assisted non-repeated reading as effective as assisted repeated reading in improving EFL beginners' reading rate and accuracy rate?
2. Is there a significant difference between assisted repeated reading and assisted non-repeated reading on higher-level readers' reading rate and accuracy rate?
3. Is there a significant difference between assisted repeated reading and assisted non-repeated reading on lower-level readers' reading rate and accuracy rate?

Significance of the study

The present study extended previous literature to EFL young beginners. The findings aid to the understandings of the effect of repeated reading and non-repeated reading approaches on EFL emergent readers. It is hoped that the findings may provide beneficial suggestions for teachers to help students' reading fluency development.

Definition of the terms

Assisted reading: Assisted reading refers to the reading approaches which aim to improve students' reading fluency by providing students with assistance while they are reading. Assisted reading approaches are widely adopted in classrooms such as choral reading, echo reading, and listening-while reading.

Repeated reading: Repeated reading is proposed by Samuels (1979) based on automaticity theory (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). It intends to help students read fast and effortlessly through rereading the same short meaningful text independently.

Non-repeated reading: Non-repeated reading intends to improve students' reading fluency by exposing students to connected text without overly rereading the same short passage. In this study, non-repeated reading refers to reading each same passage no more than twice, because Dowhower (1987) suggested that when applying repeated reading, the ideal repeated times are between three to five times.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This study aims to compare the differences of repeated reading and non-repeated reading approaches on EFL young beginners' oral reading rate and accuracy rate. This chapter presents relevant literature in three sections. Section one reviews the importance of reading fluency. Section two elaborates reading fluency approaches and related studies. The last section, section three, explores related studies in L2/ EFL context.

Reading fluency

Although there is agreement toward the importance of reading fluency, there seems to be no single definition of reading fluency. The Literacy Dictionary (Harris & Hodges, 1995) defines reading fluency as “freedom from word identification problems that might hinder comprehension” (p.85). It interprets reading fluency as accuracy and comprehension. Meanwhile, reading fluency is often referred to oral reading fluency. The National Reading Panel (2000) regards reading fluency as the ability to read with accuracy, speed, and proper expression. In regard with prosody, a number of studies (M.

R. Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; O'Connor, White, & Swanson, 2007) have indicated that students reading with prosody usually show more comprehension on reading. Those students can segment sentences into meaningful phrases and read in word groups instead of word by word (Dowhower, 1987). In addition, as Rasinski and Hoffman (2003) defined reading fluency as the ability to read with accuracy, speed, prosody and automaticity, automaticity is specified as a component of reading fluency. Research (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; Therrien, 2004) has shown that fast and accurate word recognition leads to automatic reading, which allows readers to save their energy for comprehending the text. Accordingly, the importance of reading rate and accuracy has been documented in literature. Meanwhile, due to the lack of clear evidence whether reading with prosody leads to better comprehension or better comprehension leads to better reading prosody (T. Rasinski, Rikli, & Johnston, 2009), the present study focused reading fluency on two components: oral reading rate and accuracy.

Reading automaticity theory

Reading automaticity theory was first introduced by LaBerge and Samuels (1974). They stated, "Automaticity refers to the ability to perform complex skills

with minimal attention and conscious effort” (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974, p. 107). It is often compared to skill learning (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). Take learning to swim as an example, at an initial stage. Learners can only focus on every movement trying to maintain floating in the water. After more and more practices, when the basic sub-skills are formed and performed unconsciously, learners’ attention can be gradually shifted to other higher-level skills. They then can fluently connect all the movements effortlessly, rhythmically and automatically keeping forwarding in the water.

When automaticity is associated with reading, reading automaticity interprets the importance of reading rate. According to Samuels (1974), when one reads, the resources for processing the information is limited. One has to accomplish two tasks at once: word recognition and comprehension. If most of the attention is used for decoding and recognizing the words, there will be only little or no resource for attending the meaning. On the other hand, when the sub-skills of reading are being processed accurately, quickly, and easily, the brain can be freed to process higher-order thinking (Timothy V Rasinski & Hoffman, 2003). With reading automaticity, readers’ working memory will not be packed to capacity for word recognition sub-skills and can be functioned for comprehension (Musti-Rao, Hawkins, & Barkley, 2009). For emergent readers,

the process to activate the reading sub-skills such as letter-naming correspondences and phonological processing to recognize the words is new and needs much attention. They might therefore concentrate most of their energy on decoding the prints and left only few for understanding the text.

Although readers who recognize words slowly can still shift their attention to get the meaning, the process will be struggling instead of enjoyable.

Nevertheless, for some struggling readers, even though they finally pronounce the words, they often just “call” (Stanovich, 1986) the words without getting its meaning and hence become word callers. In short, when sub-skills of word recognition are processed automatically, readers are able to focus on the meaning of the texts more.

Reading development stages and reading automaticity

In Chall’s six stages of reading development model (1983), she pointed out that the first three stages refers to learners who are learning to read, while the last three stages refers to learners who achieve reading automaticity and are able to read to learn. It implies that automatic reading ability is the gateway to reading for learning.

The stages characterize learners from preschool to grade eight based on

their reading abilities. The first stage, stage 0, is “logographic stage” when learners recognize words by context and experiences such as pictures and logos instead of the letters (Villaume & Brabham, 2003). The second stage, stage 1, describes learners who can apply their phonological knowledge to decode words. When learners can decode and recognize words easily, they move toward the third stage, stage 2. In stage 2, learners are able to read automatically which includes reading with speed and accuracy (Samuels & Flor, 1997). Once they can read automatically, they can make use of their energy for upper-level skills to comprehend the text. The focus of this stage is not about learning new reading skills, instead, it’s about sharpening their word recognition skills until they become automatic (Nichols, Rupley, & Rasinski, 2009). As a result, exposing students to abundant reading is important for stage 2 readers because it helps students read words accurately and gradually move from reading word by word to fluent reading. In this stage, learners’ focus gradually shifts from word recognition to comprehending the texts. After learners acquire automatic reading skill, they can go through stage 3 to 5 to apply their reading skills to learn more about the world as well as to create and convey their own world through reading.

Reading fluency and reading comprehension

Reading comprehension, as the target goal of reading instruction, is empirically confirmed in great amount of studies to have a high correlation with reading fluency (Jenkins, Fuchs, van den Broek, Espin, & Deno, 2003).

Furthermore, studies have shown that in most research which focuses on beginning readers, the correlation between reading fluency and reading comprehension is strong (Rupley, Willson, & Nichols, 1998; Spear-Swerling & Sternberg, 1994).

In Samuel's Automaticity Theory (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974), they suggested that when word recognition is automatic, the working memory can be freed to comprehend the text. Although fast and accurate word recognition does not directly lead to perfect comprehension, slow and incorrect word recognition does impede reading comprehension. In National Reading Panel's review (2000), the average effect size for the ninety nine research comparing reading fluency, word knowledge, and comprehension was 0.50, which indicated that reading rate and reading comprehension is reciprocal. Related studies (Jenkins, et al., 2003; Perfetti & Hogaboam, 1975) have demonstrated that readers with good comprehension skills read words faster than those who do not perform good comprehension in reading.

Oral reading fluency

Oral reading, compared with silent reading, is usually the primary reading fluency instruction method for readers in the early learning stages during these decades and has always maintained the dominant approach inside classrooms (Timothy V Rasinski & Hoffman, 2003).

In the history of oral reading fluency, the art of oral reading has been one of the focuses and has been integrated into curriculum since the middle of the 19th century (Timothy V Rasinski & Hoffman, 2003). However, during the end of the 19th century, the focus of reading instructional method shifted from oral reading to silent reading, because critics (Hyatt, 1943) at that time assumed that oral reading was a method for practicing mechanic reading skills.

In the late 20th century, a recall of the benefits of oral reading was claimed.

The advantages of oral reading instruction are that students can have feedbacks immediately and the teachers can understand their students' reading level more clearly. Oral reading has then been combined with silent reading in reading program for checking learners' word recognition ability.

Approaches like round robin reading is often applied in classrooms at the time

(Hoffman, 1987). Students take turns to read a short sentence or paragraph and receive feedbacks from the teacher or their peers. Hence, oral reading instruction is not only seen as a mechanical reading instruction, rather, it is seen as a diagnostic indicator of reading ability.

Studies in extensive research have shown that oral reading fluency and reading achievement have a high correlation (M. R. Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; Melanie, Paula, Robin, Lesley Mandel, & et al., 2006; Therrien, 2004). Consequently, oral reading fluency can be taken as an indicator of reading comprehension (Jenkins, et al., 2003). In short, we can assume that fluent oral reading can serve as a bridge to reading comprehension.

Reading fluency approaches and related studies

Oral reading approaches include reading aloud approaches such as repeated reading and other non-repeated reading approaches.

Assisted oral reading

Assisted oral reading includes reading aloud approaches which enhance

students' reading fluency development by providing students support.

Assistance in oral reading instruction can be aural input from audio devices or guidance from teachers, peers, or parents. Approaches include echo reading, choral reading, partner reading, paired reading, cloze reading, and listening-while-reading (Welsch, 2006).

In echo reading, students repeat the same lines after the teacher. The teachers demonstrate accurate pronunciation and proper expression for the students. Choral reading, as Heckelman's (1969) proposal of the neurological impress method, can be adopted in whole-class activity, small group activity or individual instruction. In whole-class or small group reading, students read along the same text in unison. In individual instruction, the teacher or assistance presents as a reading model and work together with the students. Students were encouraged to choose books easier for them and read together with the teacher or assistant. Partner reading, or peer-mediated reading, refers to the approach in which students work in pairs and read the passage to each other alternatively. In partner reading, students usually provide assistance to each other and monitor each other's reading at the same time (Musti-Rao, et al., 2009). A related study (Yurick, Robinson, Cartledge, Lo, & Evans, 2006) was conducted to compare the effect of different groupings to the students' oral

reading improvement. The results showed that the students with partner reading approach receiving their peer's feedback outperformed the students who worked as a whole-class group. Paired reading is originally designed for parents and children to work together at home. Being adapted into classrooms, it can be operated between learners with different ages and levels. When heterogeneous students are paired, both higher-level students and lower-level students will benefit from co-operative learning (Topping, 1989). Lower level students can receive assistance and feedback by their partners and acquire a more fluent reading manner from their partners. Lower level students in this case can receive demonstration and independent instruction. Results show that with well-structured pairing and material selection, both tutors and tutees advanced their reading rates. However, pairing isolated students can be challenging. In addition, studies show that if the material is way below tutor's competence, the tutor can hardly gain fluent improvement. In cloze reading, the teacher reads the text with intentionally pauses and students have to fill in the blanks orally (Homa, et al., 1993). It can provide students scaffoldings of the difficulty words first. Gradually, the students can read longer phrases and build up sentences. Listening-while-reading is first being mentioned in Chomsky's (1978) research. Students are provided readings with audio inputs.

Learners can listen to the audio inputs repeatedly according to their own need until they are comfortable to read the readings alone. In the National Reading Panels' (2000) review of studies, assisted and guided oral reading contributed to clear and agreeing improvements in every aspect of reading abilities, including fluency, accuracy, and comprehension.

Traditional repeated reading in L1 context

Repeated reading (RR) is a reading fluency teaching method derived from Samuels and LaBerge's automaticity theory (1974). In order to achieve reading automaticity, Samuels (1979) suggested that by repeatedly practicing the elements in the same short passage, students can sharpen their word recognition skills and gradually speed up their reading rate. Fast and effortless word recognition leads to reading automaticity which enhances students' reading comprehension improvement. Samuels (1979) argued that comprehension can be gained through rereading because students can devote most of their attention on comprehending the text rather than on decoding and recognizing the words.

Repeated reading, as Samuels (1979) stated, is "a supplemental reading program that consists of rereading a short and meaningful passage until a satisfactory level of fluency is reached" (p.377). During the reading session,

students are provided with a short and interesting story according to their levels. The students practice it independently and take turns to read to the assistant. While they read to the teacher or assistant, the total words they have read in one minute and the number of error words will be charted on one graph. With the feedback, students go back to their seat to correct their own errors independently and practice the same passage repeatedly for the next record. Once they achieve the criterion of 85 correct words per minute (wpm), they are provided with another short and meaningful passage (Samuels, 1979).

Repeated reading has been regarded as one of the most effective reading approaches because related studies revealed positive outcomes practicing RR on students regardless of ages and levels. For instance, in NRP's (2000) review, RR is convincing on improving students' reading rate and decreased the students' errors. Interestingly, repeated reading leads to isolated word recognition improvement, yet isolated word recognition dose not lead to reading fluency improvement (Therrien & Jr., 2007). Therefore, repeated reading aids students only in reading connect words instead of word list. In Therrien's (2004) meta-analysis, RR not only benefited students' reading rate and accuracy, but also improved their comprehension. Further, the improvements made after RR instruction was transferable to unpracticed

passages. In each new reading, students needed less time to achieve the reading rate criterion and decrease the miscues on each new story (Dowhower, 1987; Samuels, 1979; Therrien, 2004). Though critics (O'Connor, et al., 2007; T. V. Rasinski, 1990) pointed out that repeated reading might be tedious and restricted, Samuels (1979) declared that students' motivation was increased as they observed their own growth on the recorded graph. Likewise, Amarel (1978) argued that knowing that repeated reading was beneficial for their reading fluency and comprehension, beginning readers were willing to involving the activity. In sum, through repeated reading, word recognition abilities, reading speed, accuracy, as well as comprehension can be gained. (M. R. Kuhn & Stahl, 2003).

Assisted repeated reading

For greater ease of use, traditional repeated reading has been later on modified and integrated with assisted oral reading approaches such as listening-while-reading, paired reading, and choral reading to provide students scaffolding (Timothy V Rasinski & Hoffman, 2003). The benefits of assisted repeated reading are that the assistance scaffolds the students and provides them a reading model. Several studies (Begeny, Krouse, Ross, & Mitchell,

2009a; Dowhower, 1987) in L1 and L2/EFL settings have revealed that assisted RR is beneficial for readers regardless of ages, levels, or learning circumstances. It can be practiced to normal learners from second graders to university students who are behind levels, or with learning disabilities, autism, or low vision. It can also be applied into a whole-classroom activity and can be applied to small-group remedial learning or individual special learning.

Chomsky (1978) conducted a research integrating listening-while-reading strategy with repeated reading in remedial instruction. Fourth graders individually read the storybooks with audiotapes. They listened to the whole story the first time and then repeatedly listened to a section they would like to read along until they were able to independently read the section. Meanwhile, they can monitor themselves by recording their own readings (Chomsky, 1978). Over the 10-month intervention, those remedial students gained great progress in fluency and comprehension though they were still behind their levels. The materials were believed to be high above the learners' level, though the difficulty level of the materials used was not reported in the study. Carbo (1978) replicated Chomsky's research but carefully selected materials with difficulty levels slightly above the learners' ability. Comparing to Chomsky's study, the stories were modified and the reading rate in the audio

tape was controlled. Results showed significant improvement on the struggling readers' word recognition. Critics believed that the difficulty level of materials was one of the key elements affecting the study (M. R. Kuhn & Stahl, 2003).

Heckelman (1969) incorporated choral reading with repeated reading. Twenty-four middle school students worked in a remedial program for 7.25 hrs. Students were empowered to choose the stories they liked and worked with the teacher. With the assistance, the students who were behind their levels for about three years gained 1.9 year growth in average.

Kuhn (2003) reviewed nine studies on assisted repeated reading with control groups. In her review, six studies out of nine revealed significant differences between treatment and control groups.

Comparisons of assisted and unassisted repeated reading

Eldrege (1990) conducted a study to compare repeated reading with assistance and without assistance. The intervention group read the stories along with the teacher and then repeatedly practiced the same story themselves for several times. The control group received traditional repeated reading approach without assistance. Results showed that the intervention group with oral assistance outperformed the control group on vocabulary and

comprehension.

Dowhower (1987) compared unassisted repeated reading and assisted repeated reading on 15 students. They focused four elements: reading rate, accuracy, comprehension, and prosody. The students were randomly assigned into two groups. Students in the assisted repeated reading group listened to the tapes while they were reading the basal readers, the textbooks used in schools for enhancing students' reading abilities, without any assistance until they were confident to read along without assistance. The unassisted repeated reading group reread the basal readers until they past the criteria of reading rate. Both assisted and unassisted repeated reading improved students' reading rate, accuracy, comprehension and prosody gained improvements on practiced and unpracticed readings. However, one thing worth noting is that the students in assisted repeated reading outperformed the students in unassisted repeated reading on prosody. Students in assisted listening-while-reading group read the reading with less improper phrases and with better intonation than students in the unassisted repeated readings (M. R. Kuhn & Stahl, 2003).

In succession to Dowhower, Rasinski (1990) conducted a similar study to compare assisted and unassisted repeated readings. After the intervention, 20

third graders in both groups performed significantly better on reading rate and accuracy. However, there was no significance between the two treatments.

Prosody was not administered. Rasinski (1990) concluded that both assisted or unassisted approaches aid learners reading rate and reading accuracy.

With the audiotapes, the teacher can provide learners assistance easily.

Therefore, assisted repeated reading is suggested due to that it is easier to implement listening-while-reading rather than traditional repeated reading approach without assistance.

Comparison of repeated reading and non-repeated reading

Several studies (Homa, et al., 1993; M. Kuhn, 2004; O'Connor, et al., 2007) has been conducted to compare the effect of RR and Non-RR on improving L1 and L2 /EFL students' oral reading fluency. Though repeated reading has been proved as one of the most effective approach on students' reading fluency development, some drawbacks exist. Further, non-repeated reading approach has been widely applied in classrooms activities (M. R. Kuhn & Stahl, 2003).

Logan (1997) pointed out the benefits and drawbacks of repeated reading. Repeatedly practicing the same short passage helps students to achieve automatic reading. However, within the same short reading passage the stimuli

are restricted. Moreover, one concern of repeated reading is that repeatedly reading the same short passage may bore the learners and lower their motivation. On the contrary, during the same amount of reading time Non-RR allows readers to access more readings and wider range of reading text (O'Connor, et al., 2007). It provides readers with similar stimuli from different readings.

Homan, Klesius and Hite's (1993) compared the effect of repeated readings and assisted non-repeated readings on L1 below-grade-level young readers' reading fluency, three times a week, 7 weeks in total. The students were randomly assigned to two different groups: repeated reading and assisted non-repeated reading. The RR group practiced traditional repeated reading approach where the students did not received assistance when encountering an unknown words working with their peers. The Non-RR group practiced assisted reading approaches such as echo reading, unison reading, and cloze reading on different books. After the instruction, the results showed that the students in both treatments improved significantly on their reading rate, accuracy and comprehension. Nevertheless, the RR group did not outperform the Non-RR group in the three variables. It indicates that both RR and assisted Non-RR benefit students' equivalently on reading rate, accuracy, and prosody.

Kuhn (2004) conducted a study which compared the effectiveness of assisted RR and assisted Non-RR and found out that both approaches assisted L1 learners' oral reading fluency equally. Twenty-four second graders who are at the transitional stage to become fluent readers were randomly assigned to four groups: assisted repeated reading, wide reading, listening-only, and control group. The students in the assisted repeated reading group reread each of the six selected story four times with echo reading, choral reading, and partner reading. The wide reading group read same six stories and 12 additional stories with echo reading and choral reading alternatively used in each new story. The listening only group listened to the 18 stories without reading the texts. Results showed that both the assisted repeated reading group and the wide reading group improved their prosody and word recognition significantly. Nevertheless, only the wide reading group improved their comprehension.

Further, O'Connor, White, and Swanson (2007) made a comparison of assisted RR and assisted continuous reading on 37 with and without learning disabilities elementary students' word identification, vocabulary, and reading rate. The students were randomly assigned to the intervention group or the control group. The intervention included 15 minutes of assisted one-on-one

repeated reading or 15 minutes of assisted continuous reading without reread the passage. The experimental group demonstrated greater growth than the control group. However, no significant difference between the assisted RR and continuous reading treatments, which indicates that the assisted RR and continuous reading benefit the students equally in terms of reading fluency and comprehension.

According to the findings that both the RR and Non-RR in L1 context improved students' reading fluency similarly, some researchers (M. R. Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; O'Connor, et al., 2007) have suggested that Non-RR reading may be more beneficial than RR because students are exposed to more readings during the same reading time.

Related studies in L2/ EFL context

Despite emphasis on oral reading fluency is also emphasized in L2/ EFL emergent reading, experimental studies are relatively few in L2/EFL context through these years (Gorsuch & Taguchi, 2008; W. Grabe, 2010).

Taguchi and his colleagues conducted a series of studies (Gorsuch & Taguchi, 2008; Taguchi, 1997, 2002, 2004) examining the effect of silent repeated reading on EFL university students' reading fluency. In one study, he

investigated the effectiveness of silent repeated reading on Japanese students' silent reading rate and oral reading rate. The students were instructed to read silently with repeated reading. Results showed that though the participants' silent reading rate improved after the treatment, it did not transfer to their oral reading rate. In another study, he compared extensive reading (ER) and repeated reading on EFL freshmen's reading fluency and comprehension. The results showed that both ER and RR are beneficial approaches for increasing EFL students' reading rate and comprehension (Taguchi, 2004). Accordingly, he concluded that repeated reading is effective for EFL university learners, especially for beginning level students. Likewise, Jeon's (2009) study practiced repeated reading approach on Korean level two students. The results revealed that the students' oral reading rate raised and the improvements transferred to unpracticed new passages. In other words, repeated reading has been indicated as an effective practice for L1 and L2/EFL learners' reading fluency.

While studies contrasting assisted repeated reading and non-repeated reading on beginners' oral reading fluency demonstrated that Non-RR is as effective as RR in L1 context, little research exists in L2/EFL environment.

Whether the research in L1 context can be generalized to L2/ EFL context is still questionable. Native speakers have already equipped with about 5,000 to

7,000 vocabularies before receiving formal education, yet this is not the case for L2/ EFL students (Singer, 1981). For the L2/EFL students, most of the words are new for them, will non-repeated reading deliver similar effect as repeated reading is unknown. In addition, different orthographic systems, such as Chinese and English, may be a factor affecting L2/ EFL students' learning reading (William Grabe, 1991). Consequently, there is a need for conducting a study in this regard.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This study investigated the effect of repeated reading (RR) and non-repeated reading (Non-RR) on EFL elementary school students' oral reading rate and accuracy rate. A quasi-authentic experiment was conducted to answer the research questions:

1. Is assisted non-repeated reading as effective as assisted repeated reading in improving EFL beginners' reading rate and accuracy rate?
2. Is there a significant difference between assisted repeated reading and assisted non-repeated reading on higher-level readers' reading rate and accuracy rate?
3. Is there a significant difference between assisted repeated reading and assisted non-repeated reading on lower-level readers' reading rate and accuracy rate?

This section presents the methodology in four parts: participants, instrument, procedure, and data analysis.

Participants

The participants in this study were 59 fourth graders from two classes, aged from ten to eleven, studying in a public elementary school in downtown Taipei, northern Taiwan. They were instructed by the same teacher in grade three and four. These participants were selected for two following reasons.

First, they were at a transitional stage in reading (Chall, 1983; Dowhower, 1987). Based on Chall's stages of reading development (1983), students who can read words accurately but have not achieved automaticity and have to deliberately decode words are transferring from reading stage 1 to stage 2, i.e. from deliberately decoding to automatic reading. These participants had started formal English courses since the second grade. As second graders, they received one period of English class per week, forty minutes per class, focusing on letter names, and letter sounds. As third graders, they had two periods of English classes every week, emphasizing basic phonics skills and some daily dialogues. By the end of grade three, they were able to blend and decode some simple CVC words and had a word bank of about 100 words.

Moving toward grade four, the participants had two periods of formal English classes and two periods of additional classes each week. They were expected to be able to read simple passages consisting of three to four short

sentences. This was the year they started to read from word lists to short passages. What they needed was to keep practicing and mastering their word recognition abilities by reading the stories they already knew or rereading the same passages (Chall, 1983). According to the instructor who worked with the participants since grade three, most of the participants were not able to read short decodable word and high frequency word list fluently. Instead, they usually chopped the sentences inappropriately because they had to make an effort to decode the words or recognize the high frequency words. Once they had the automatic word recognition skills, they were able to read short passages easily and shift their attention to the meaning of the texts. After acquired automatic reading, they were able to read for learning. Therefore, fourth graders were selected as the participants, for they were transferring from slow word decoding to automatic reading.

Second, according to the English teacher of the two classes, their English proficiency and learning motivation were very close. The two classes not only performed similar learning outcomes on the formative and summative English tests in grade three but also held positive motivation toward learning English. Both classes were interested in learning new things and enjoyed interacting with the instructor as well as their peers.

Instruments

The instruments in this study include two sets of graded readers as reading materials, pretest and posttest materials, and scoring sheets.

Graded readers

The target learning materials in this study were chosen from two different series of graded readers published by Scholastics: Scholastic Phonics Readers and Scholastic Sight Word Readers. Considering that the textbook used by the participants was designed by topics with related vocabularies, sentence patterns and dialogues but with very few readings, graded readers can meet the need for them to be exposed to connected and interesting texts. Scholastic Phonics Readers and Sight Word Readers have been proved as effective reading fluency materials for beginning readers (Slavin, Lake, Chambers, Cheung, & Davis, 2009). Furthermore, the decision of selecting the two series as supplemental reading materials for fourth graders was made by all the English teachers in the participants' school.

The two sets of readers are short stories with colorful pictures enriching the context and topics relevant to students' experiences. Both sets contain CD-ROM recorded by native speakers. The first set of selected readers,

Scholastic Phonics Readers, includes 72 books with difficulties gradually leveling up. Each book deals with different sound features. For example, readers 7 to 12 focus on the consonant “ m, l, t, s” and short vowels “a and o” sound. Except for decodable sound features, the stories also contained high frequency words overlapped in each story. The second set of learning materials, Scholastic Sight Word Readers, contains 25 readers with similar difficulties. Each Sight Word Reader focuses on two different high frequency words, for example, “are” and “at” in book two. Meanwhile, each sight word reader contains basic decodable words as well.

16 Scholastic Phonics Readers were selected for both repeated reading (RR) and non-repeated reading (Non-RR) group, while 16 Scholastic Sight Word Readers were selected for Non-RR group only, meeting the requirement of the participants’ instructional level from 90% to 97% of accuracy rate. The book selection was carried on in the pilot study by the 12 randomly selected fourth graders in the same school with the participants without participating in the main study. Based on the accuracy rate gained by the 12 students in the pilot study, Phonics Readers served as a reference for book selection. Phonics Readers 9 to 13 were within the students’ instructional level, while reader 14 was out of the students’ instructional level, i.e. below the readers’ 90% of

accuracy rate. Considering the feedback from the students in the pilot study and the requirement of the difficulty level within the students' instructional level, reader 13 was selected as the first book for the present study. Because the intervention lasted for 16 weeks, Phonics Readers 13 to 28 were selected as their learning materials, adding up to 16 books. The similar procedures went with the 16 Sight Word Readers selection.

Caldwell (2007) claimed that reading materials can be leveled as follows: independent, instructional, and frustration level. The materials that students can read with above 98% of accuracy rate are at the students' independent level, which students can work on by themselves. Materials with students' accuracy rate between 90% and 97% are within learners' instructional level, which means with appropriate support and guidance, readers can accomplish the job. However, materials less than 90% of accuracy rate are beyond readers reading ability. Even with support, they still cannot comprehend the material. Reading below the instructional level might lead to struggle and frustration. In sum, Scholastic Phonics Readers 13 to 28 and the other 16 Scholastic Sight word readers (see Table 3.1) were preferred because they were designed for the beginning readers and the difficulty levels were within the participants' instructional level.

Table 3.1 The 16 selected Phonics Readers and Sight Word Readers

Weeks	Scholastic Phonics Readers (for RR and Non-RR groups)	Scholastic Sight Word Readers (for Non-RR group)
1	book 13	I, see
2	book 14	up, down
3	book 15	my, can
4	book 16	me, too
5	book 17	here, are
6	book 18	little, big
7	book 19	that, pretty
8	book 20	play, with
9	book 21	ride, on
10	book 22	find, the
11	book 23	help, at
12	book 24	they, go
13	book 25	will, fly
14	book 26	did, it
15	book 27	run, said
16	book 28	we, get

Pretest and posttest materials

The last Phonics Reader, reader 28, was presented as the pretest as well as the posttest material. The texts of reader 28 were copied on white A4-size sheets with larger font and without pictures attached. When being recorded at pretest and posttest, the students read the sheet instead of the book to avoid orthographic affect. In order to help students associate the meaning with the words, some of the decodable words in the Phonics Readers are printed with small pictures right above the words. If the students read the book while

assessing, it is unknown whether they sound out the words because of their reading skills or because of the trace of the pictures. Therefore, in the pretest and posttest, the students read the passage on the sheet without the presence of the pictures.

Scoring system

The scoring system of oral reading fluency was based on the DIBELS accuracy and fluency scoring system. Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS) is a standardized assessment assessing K-6 learners' five literacy skills: phonemic awareness, alphabetic principle, accuracy and fluency, vocabulary, as well as comprehension. DIBELS is widely adopted by teachers and researchers to assess students' oral reading fluency due to the easy administration and empirically proved adequate procedure. (Fuchs, L. S., Fuchs, D., Hamlett, C. L., Walz, L., & Germann, G., 1993; Shinn, 1989; National Reading Panel, 2000).

In the fluency and accuracy assessment, two scores were assessed: the oral reading rate and the accuracy rate (see Table 3.1). The oral reading rate was scored to understand the participants' reading speed, while the accuracy rate was scored to understand whether the students decrease their miscues

after the intervention. The oral reading rate was based on the words per minute (WPM) the participant read with error words subtracted. The accuracy rate was gained through the total accurate words divided by the total words read (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.2 Scoring system

Timed for	Reading rate (WPM)	$\text{total words read} - \text{error words} = \text{reading rate}$
One minute	Accuracy rate	$\frac{\text{total words read} - \text{error words}}{\text{total words read}} \times 100 = \text{accuracy rate}$

Based on the DIBELS scoring system, self-corrected words, insert words, and repeated words were counted correct. However, mispronounced words, omitted words and change of word order were incorrect. If a student struggles in a word over three seconds, it was demonstrated but the word would be slashed as incorrect on the examiner's sheet (see Table 3.2 for samples of scoring).

Table 3.3 Sample of scoring

Passage: Nick likes her ball.			
	Participants said	Examiner's sheet	Correct words
1. Self-corrected word	Nick likes her <u>dall</u> ...ball.	Nick likes her ball.	4
2. Inserted word	Nick <u>really</u> likes her ball.	Nick likes her ball.	4
3. Hesitant word	Nick likes her ...(3 seconds).	Nick likes her ball .	3
4. Mispronunciation	<u>Mick</u> likes her ball.	Nick likes her ball.	3
5. Omitted words	Nick likes ball.	Nick likes her ball.	3
6. Change of word order	Nick her likes ball.	Nick likes her ball.	2

Procedure

The entire procedure of the present study consisted of three parts: the pilot study, the main study including the pretest, the 16-week intervention, and the posttest, as well as data analysis (See Figure 3.1).

In this session, the following procedures were implemented: (1) the pilot study; (2) the main study; (3) the accessing procedure; (4) teaching procedure; and (5) data analysis.

Pilot study

To justify the appropriateness of the procedures of the main study, the pilot study was carried out for four periods of classes in one week, adding up to 160 minutes. The students were 12 randomly selected fourth graders from the same school who did not take part in the main study. The procedures and instrument followed the main study except that the students read fewer readers than the participants in the main study because of the shorter period of treatment. The six students in the RR group read four Scholastic Phonics Readers, while the other six students in the Non-RR group read four Scholastic Phonics Readers and four Scholastic Sight Word Readers.

Before the four reading classes, the students in the pilot study first helped select readers meeting their instructional reading level. During the four weeks, the instruction covered Phonics readers 13 to 16 and the first four Sight Word Readers. Phonics Reader 16 was presented as the pretest and posttest material for the 12 students in the pilot study.

Overall, the students from the two groups improved their reading rate and accuracy rate after the pilot study. The RR group improved their WPM from 63.5 to 82.5 words, while the Non-RR group gained growth from 66.5 to 80.67 words. The RR group's accuracy rate was 90.16 in the pretest and 95.12 in the

posttest, whereas the Non-RR group's accuracy rate was 89.73 in the pretest and 94.92 in the posttest (See Table 3.4). As a consequence, the procedure of the pilot study was considered an appropriate framework for the following main study.

Table 3.4

Statistics and Independent Samples t-test of the Pilot Study

	RR (n=6)		Non-RR (n=6)		t	p	
	M	SD	M	SD			
Pretest	WPM	63.50	22.83	66.50	26.73	-.209	.839
	Accuracy rate	90.16	10.16	89.73	11.94	.068	.947
Posttest	WPM	82.50	17.12	80.67	19.84	.17	.867
	Accuracy rate	95.12	5.11	94.92	6.04	.063	.951

P>.05

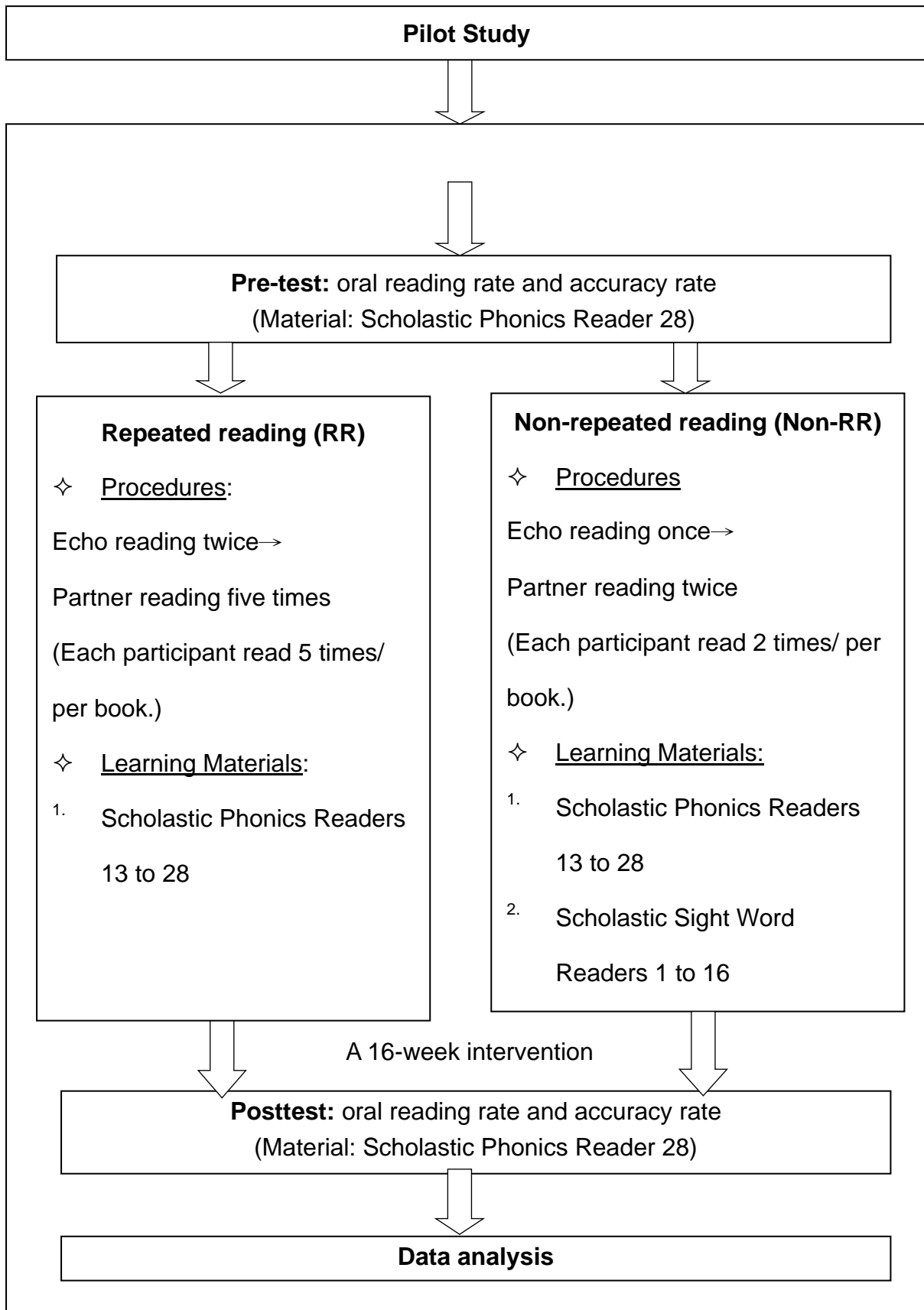
Based on the pilot study, two teaching procedures were added in the main study. First, the importance of reading prosody was needed to be mentioned.

The researcher found that if prosody was overlooked, the students only emphasized on the speed which very often made their reading obscured and

unnatural. Second, some difficult words should be taught before reading, especially the high frequency words that cannot be decoded, such as “said and here”.



Figure 3.1 Procedure of the Study



Main study

A pretest was first administrated to ensure that the oral reading rate and accuracy rate of the two classes were homogeneous. Meanwhile, students whose reading rates were the top half in both groups were classified as higher-level readers, while students scoring on the bottom half were classified as lower-level readers. Next, there was a 16-week intervention, 40 minutes per week, from September 2010 to January 2011. The two classes were randomly assigned to two different treatments: the RR and Non-RR groups. Every week, the RR group read one selected Scholastic Phonics Reader with assisted repeated reading approaches, while the Non-RR group shared the same Phonics Reader and read one additional selected Sight Word Reader with assisted non-repeated reading approaches. During the 16 weeks, both RR and non-RR groups read Scholastic Phonics Readers from 13 to 28 in order. After the last intervention class, the posttest was carried on immediately after the intervention to measure the progress of the RR and Non-RR groups' reading rate and accuracy rate during the 16 weeks. Lastly, the data collected from the pretest and posttest was analyzed qualitatively with independent samples *t*-test and paired samples *t*-test by SPSS.

The assessing procedure

When administering the oral reading fluency test, every examinee was assessed individually. Both the participant and the examiner as the researcher had one A4-size examiner sheet of the reading passage from Scholastic Phonics Reader 28. The participant could not see the running record on the researcher's copy. As soon as the examiner timed for one minute and said, "Start," the participant began to read. At the end of one minute, the examiner ended the assessment by saying, "Stop," and put a bracket right after the last word produced by the examinee. Each participant's oral reading fluency assessment was recorded by a pen recorder for later analysis of reading rate and accuracy rate by the other scorer. One third of the data was scored by the researcher and another experienced English teacher to ensure the inter-rater reliability.

Teaching procedure

The teaching procedures for both the RR and Non-RR groups were the same, except for the repeating times on the same text and the variety of reading texts. Each student in RR group read the same Scholastic Phonics Reader for five times, while every student in Non-RR read it only twice and

repeated all the procedures for the second book, Sight Word Reader, in one class. Hence, during the same reading time, every student read similar amount of texts.

The students were instructed with assisted reading approaches, echo reading and partner reading. These two approaches were chosen because the first approach, echo reading, provided a reading model for students to imitate the pronunciation and prosody from the model, and the second one, partner reading, provided chances to interact with their peers, which made reading more interesting and meaningful to them.

To ensure that reading comprehension and prosody was not neglected, the researcher told the students the importance of reading rate, reading comprehension and prosody before the intervention. They were instructed that a good reader can read accurately, fast, and with prosody. While reading fast, they had to maintain the intonation, expression, and comprehension as well.

The teaching procedures were presented in three sessions: (a) before reading, (b) during reading, and (c) after reading (See figure 3.2). The first one was intended for the participants to associate their background knowledge and learning experiences with the book they were going to read. The During-reading session was the time for the students in RR and Non-RR to

read the reader with different treatments. Session C included some following activities after the reading.

In session a, before reading, the researcher as the instructor first directed the participants' attention to the book title and previewed the pictures in the book for them to make some predictions. Then, it was in the pretest that the students paired with their peers themselves and recorded each other's reading time and errors on the self-monitor record for each other.

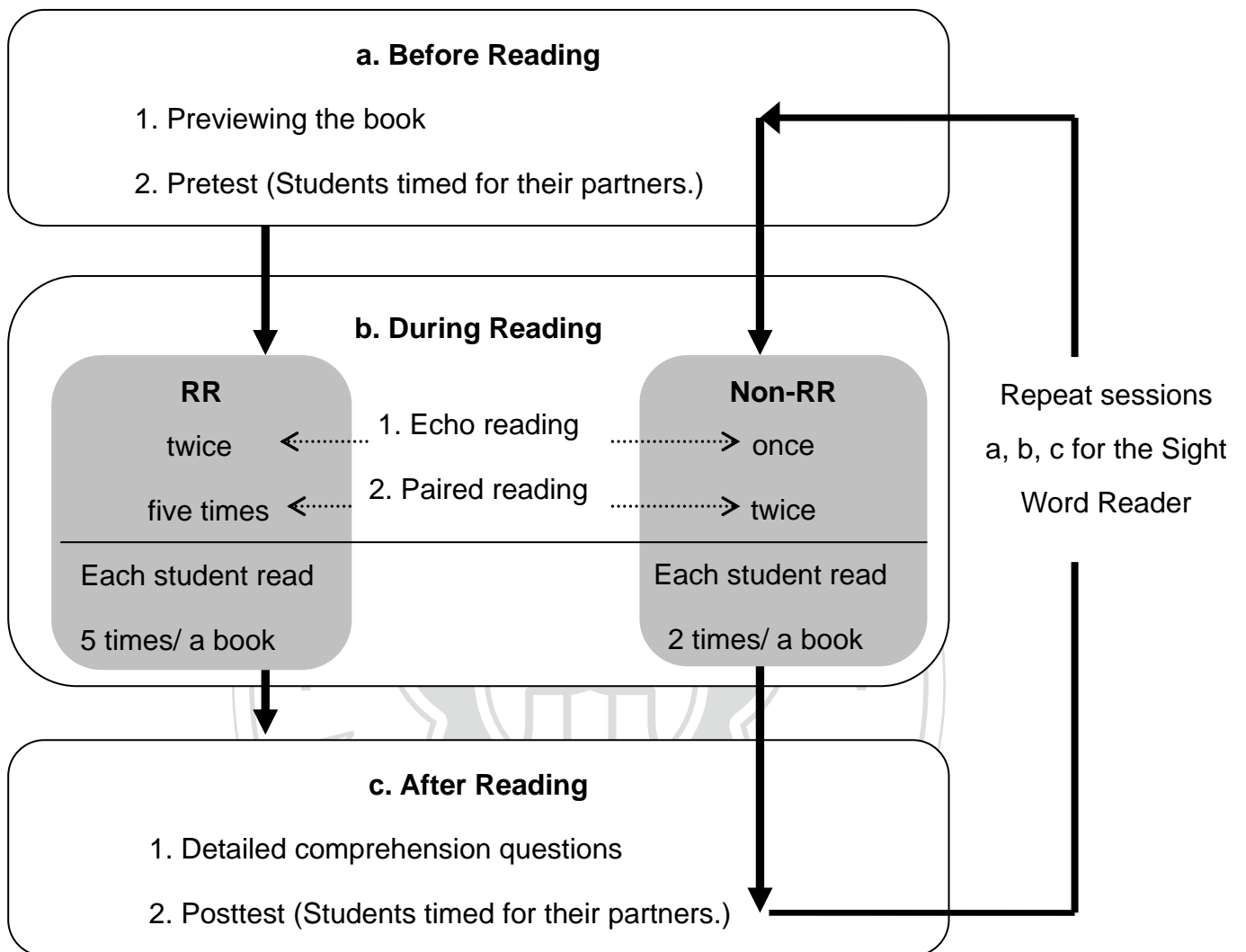
In session b, during reading, the students read the readers with two assisted approaches, echo reading and paired reading. Dowhower (1987) suggested that when applying repeated reading, the ideal number of repetition is between three and five times. Therefore students in RR treatment read each book five times, while the students in Non-RR group read the each book only two times.

The whole class first echoed with either the CD-ROM or the instructor sentence by sentence. The RR group echoed the reading twice, while the Non-RR group echoed the reading just once. Next was paired reading when the students were paired randomly. Two partners took turns to start reading one sentence each time, which means in each partner reading, every participant only read half of the book. The RR group followed paired reading

for four times and partners chorally read the whole story chorally for the fifth time. In sum, every participant in RR group read the same short passage twice in echo reading and three times in paired reading, summing up to five repetitions on the same book. On the other hand, each student in Non-RR group followed paired reading just twice. Hence, every participant in Non-RR group read the same short passage once in echo reading and once in paired reading, adding up to two repetitions on the same book.

In the last session, after reading, some detailed comprehension questions were discussed. Then, it was the posttest. The students took turns to time their partner's reading. Words read per minute and miscues they made were recorded on their own self-monitor sheet. The self-monitor records were not for the data collection; instead, they were for the students to monitor their own progress. After the Phonics reader, the Non-RR group read another Sight Word Reader following sessions a, b, and c.

Figure 3.2 Procedure of the Study



Data analysis

This study aims to answer the three research questions: (1) Is assisted non-repeated reading as effective as assisted repeated reading in improving EFL beginners' reading rate and accuracy rate? (2) Is there a significant difference between assisted repeated reading and assisted non-repeated reading on higher-level readers' reading rate and accuracy rate? (3) Is there a significant difference between assisted repeated reading and assisted non-repeated reading on lower-level readers' reading rate and accuracy rate?

Prior to the intervention, two tests were administered to ascertain that the two groups were homogeneous. First, Levene's test was applied to examine the different population in the two groups was not a variance to the study. Second, independent samples *t*-test was administered to compare the mean scores of the two groups' reading rate and reading accuracy rate to assure that the two groups were on the same reading fluency level.

After the intervention, paired samples *t*-test and independent samples *t*-test were applied to answer the three research questions. Paired samples *t*-test was carried on to realize the progress each group made after the intervention. Independent samples *t*-test was used to compare the two groups' reading rate and accuracy rate on the posttest.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

This chapter presents the answers to the investigation of the differences between repeated reading and non-repeated reading approaches on EFL elementary school students' oral reading fluency after the sixteen-week instruction. The results were demonstrated in two sections. Section one illustrated the pretest results, while section two presents the posttest results. Two scores were gained in the pretest and posttest. First, the oral reading rate was scored according to the accurate words per minute (WPM) the participants can produce based on DIBELS assessing and scoring measures (Good & Kaminski, 2002). Second, the accuracy rate was gained by the accurate words divided by the total words read in one minute. The inter-rater reliability between the researcher and the other scoring teacher, using Cohen's Kappa, was .95 in the pretest and .97 in the posttest. The data gained in the pretest were analyzed by Levene's test and independent samples *t*-test, whereas the data gathered in the posttest were analyzed by independent samples *t*-test and paired samples *t*-test.

Results of the Pretest

Pretest results include the descriptive data of the students' reading rate and accuracy rate, Levene's test, and between-group independent samples *t*-test.

Pretest of the RR and Non-RR Groups

Levene's test was first conducted to ensure that the uneven number of the participating students between the two groups (RR $n=32$, Non-RR $n=27$) was not a problem of unequal variance for the experimental design. The results presented in Table 4.1 showed that there were no significant differences between RR and Non-RR groups on WPM ($F=2.502$, Sig. $=.119$) and accuracy rate ($F=.594$, Sig. $=.444$). Based on the Levene's test, the unequal number of the two groups will not lead to the violation of ANOVA assumptions and we can thus be sure that the two groups are homogeneous.

Table 4.1

Levene's Test on the Participants' Pretest and Posttest

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances

		F	Sig.
Pretest	WPM	2.502	.119
	Accuracy rate	.594	.444

Following the Levene's test, between-group independent-sample *t*-test Was conducted. Table 4.2 illustrated the number of participants, means, standard deviations, and the *t*-test comparisons of the RR and Non-RR groups' pretest. In the pretest, the RR group's mean reading rate was 40.47 words per minute (SD= 30.34) with 70.77 of accuracy rate (SD=25.51), while the Non-RR group's mean reading rate was 38.15 words per minute (SD=23.82) with 70.09 of accuracy rate (SD=22.10).

The two groups' means score of the WPM as well as the accuracy rate in the pretest were contrasted by independent samples *t*-test. The *t*-test comparisons revealed that there were no significant differences between the two groups in the pretest in terms of reading rate ($t=.322$, $p=.748$) and accuracy rate ($t=.108$, $p=.914$), which confirmed that the two groups were on the same reading fluency level prior to the intervention.

Table 4.2

Statistics and Independent Samples t-test of the Participants' Pretest

	RR (n=32)		Non-RR (n=27)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Pretest						
WPM	40.47	30.34	38.15	23.82	.322	.748
Accuracy rate	70.77	25.51	70.09	22.10	.108	.914

P>.05

Pretest of the Higher Level Students in the RR and Non-RR Groups

To realize whether the higher level students under the two treatments performed differently on reading rate and accuracy rate, the two groups' top half students scoring on WPM in the pretest were labeled as higher level students in each treatment. Prior to the independent samples *t*-test, Lavene's test was carried on to ensure that the uneven populations between the RR (n=16) and Non-RR (n=13) groups' higher level students did not affect the results. The results of the Levene's test were presented in Table 4.3 and

showed homogeneity of variances between the two groups' higher level participants (WPM, $F=2.677$, $Sig.=.113$; accuracy rate, $F=3.592$, $Sig.=.069$).

Table 4.3

Levene's Test on the Higher Level Participants' Pretest

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		
		Sig.
Pretest	WPM	.113
	Accuracy rate	.069

Table 4.4 presented the number of participants, means, standard deviations, and the independent samples *t*-test comparisons of the RR and Non-RR groups' higher level students' pretest. In the pretest, the higher level students of the RR group scored 65.18 words per minute ($SD=22.17$) on reading rate with 90.75 ($SD=6.91$) of accuracy rate, while the Non-RR group gained 58 words per minute ($SD=16.22$) on reading rate with 83.48 ($SD=13.10$) of accuracy rate. Independent samples *t*-test showed that prior to the intervention, the higher level students in the two groups demonstrated similar reading rate ($t=.974$, $p=.338$) and accuracy rate ($t=1.921$, $p=.065$) with no

significant differences. Based on the Levene's test and independent samples *t*-test, the results indicated that the higher level students in RR and Non-RR are homogeneous on their reading fluency.

Table 4.4

Statistics and Independent Samples t-test on the Higher Level Participants in the RR and Non-RR Groups' Pretest

	RR Higher level (n=16)		Non-RR Higher level (n=13)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Pretest						
WPM	65.18	22.17	58	16.22	.947	.338
Accuracy rate	90.75	6.91	83.48	13.10	1.921	.065

P>.05

Pretest of the Lower Level Students in the RR and Non-RR Groups

Similarly, the students who scored the bottom half on the WPM in each group were leveled as lower ability readers and the two groups' mean scores of the pretest and posttest were analyzed. Due to the unequal number of the participants in the RR (n=16) and Non-RR (n=14) groups, Levene's test was

applied to ensure that the population difference did not influence the results.

As presented in Table 4.5, the Levene's test demonstrated that the two groups' lower level students' were equal of variances in the pretest (WPM, $F=.032$, $Sig.=.806$; accuracy rate, $F=.007$, $Sig.=.934$).

Table 4.5

Leven's Test on the Lower Level Participants' Pretest

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		
	F	Sig.
Pretest	WPM	.320 .860
	Accuracy rate	.007 .934

Followed by the Levene's test, the mean scores of the RR and Non-RR groups' lower level students' pretest were contrasted by independent samples t -test. As illustrated in Table 4.6, the lower level students in RR group scored 15.75 words per minute ($SD=10.35$) with 50.78 ($SD=21.09$) of accuracy rate in the pretest while those in the Non-RR group performed 19.71 words per minute ($SD=11.51$) with 57.66 ($SD=21.70$) of accuracy rate. Between-group

independent samples *t*-tests showed no significant differences between the two groups. It confirmed that the lower level students in the RR and Non-RR groups were homogeneous before the intervention on the reading rate ($t=-.993$, $P=.329$) and accuracy rate ($t=-.878$, $P=.387$).

Table 4.6

Statistics and Independent Samples t-test of the Lower Level Participants in the RR and Non-RR Groups' Pretest

	RR		Non-RR		t	p
	Lower level (n=16)		Lower level (n=14)			
	M	SD	M	SD		
Pretest						
WPM	15.75	10.35	19.71	11.51	-.993	.329
Accuracy rate	50.78	21.09	57.66	21.70	-.878	.387

P>.05

Posttest

In this section, the data analyzed was presented in the order of the three research questions. To answer each research question, the results of within-group paired samples *t*-test are presented as the results of the two groups' progress after the treatment. Second, the results of the between-group samples *t*-test on WPM and accuracy rate in the posttest are shown as comparisons of the two groups' posttest results.

Posttest of the RR and Non-RR Groups

Within-group paired samples *t*-test demonstrated that both the repeated reading and non-repeated reading approaches significantly improved the students' oral reading fluency on reading rate and accuracy. As indicated in Table 4.7, after the instruction, the participants under RR treatment improved 22.06 words per minute with 11.54 accuracy rate improved. The Non-RR group improved 23.66 words per minute with 15.45 accuracy rate improved.

Within-group samples *t*-test showed that the RR group gained growth significantly on their reading rate ($t=-8.802$, $p=.000$) and accuracy rate ($t=-4.055$, $p=.000$). Similarly, the participants under the Non-RR treatment gained significant growth on the reading rate ($t=-10.043$, $p=.000$) and accuracy

rate ($t=-4.624$, $p=.000$). Figures 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4 demonstrated the two groups' progress on WPM and accuracy rate after the intervention.

Table 4.7

Paired Samples t-test for Progress in the RR and Non-RR Group

		Means of Pretest	Means of Posttest	Pretest - posttest	SD	t	p
RR	WPM	40.47	62.53	-22.06	14.178	-8.802	.000***
	Accuracy rate	70.77	82.31	-11.543	16.104	-4.055	.000***
Non-RR	WPM	38.15	68.81	-23.667	12.244	-10.043	.000***
	Accuracy rate	70.09	85.54	-15.451	17.363	-4.624	.000***

* $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

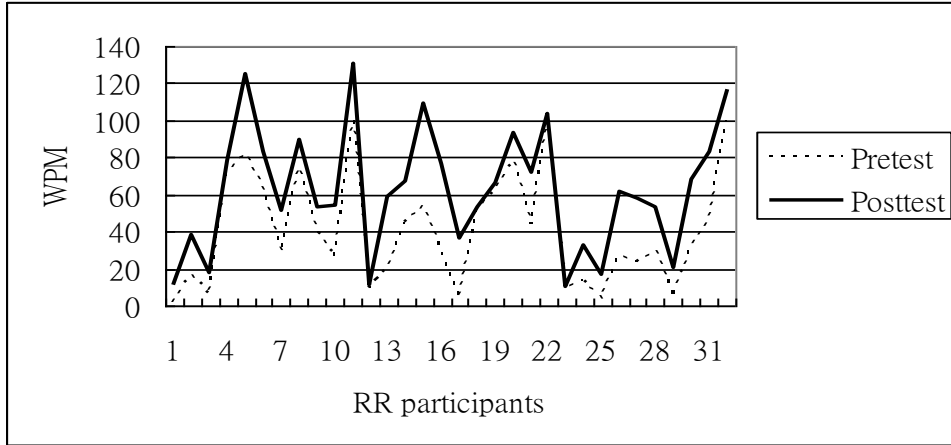


Figure 4.1 RR Participants' Pretest and Posttest Scores on WPM

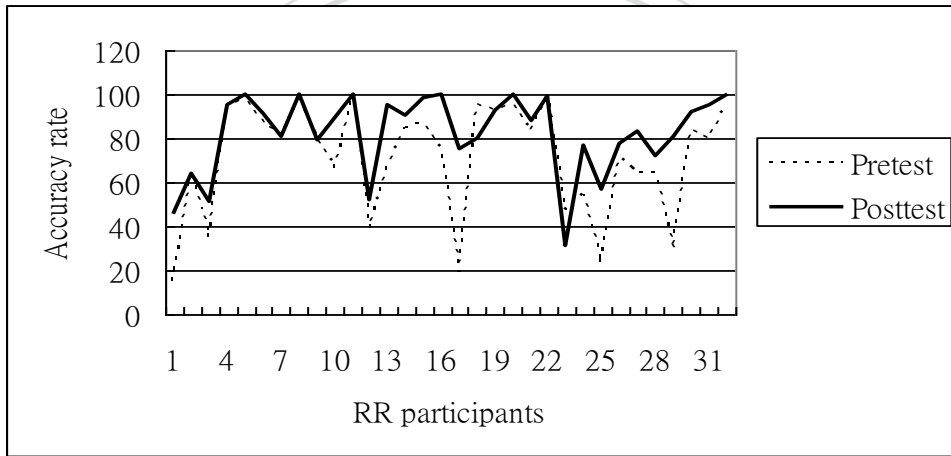


Figure 4.2 RR Participants' Pretest and Posttest Scores on Accuracy

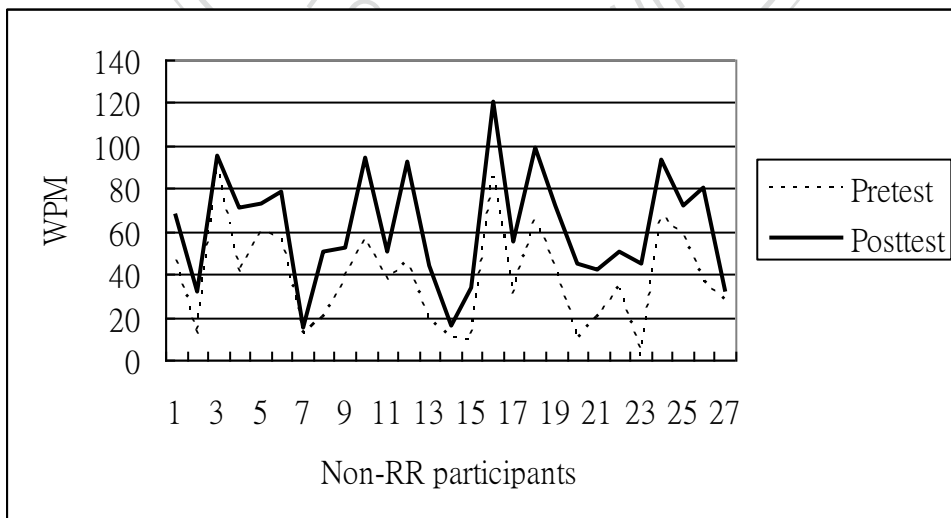


Figure 4.3 Non-RR Participants' Pretest and Posttest Scores on WPM

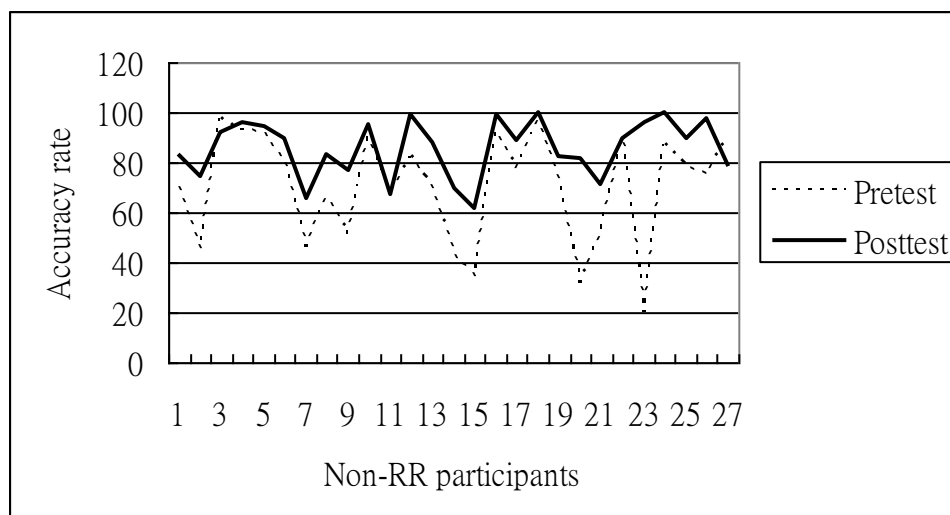


Figure 4.4 Non-RR Participants' Pretest and Posttest Scores on accuracy

To answer Research Question 1, the two groups' posttest was compared (see Table 4.8). Between-group samples t-test showed that no significant differences were detected in the posttest between the two treatments on either the reading rate ($t=.089$, $p=.929$) or accuracy rate ($t=-.793$, $p=.431$).

The results provided answers to Research Question 1: Is assisted non-repeated reading as effective as assisted repeated reading in improving EFL beginners' reading rate and accuracy rate? The results pointed out that the RR group performed no better than the Non-RR group after the intervention in regard to WPM and accuracy rate. Accordingly, the two different treatments, repeated reading and non-repeated reading attributed to similar significant learning outcomes on the participants' oral reading rate and accuracy rate.

Table 4.8

Statistics and Independent Samples t-test of the Participants' posttest

		RR		Non-RR		t	p
		(n=32)		(n=27)			
		M	SD	M	SD		
Posttest	WPM	62.53	33.64	61.81	26.68	.089	.929
	Accuracy rate	82.31	18.27	85.54	11.59	-.793	.431
P>.05							

Meanwhile, it is interesting to note that the standard deviations became higher on WPM and lower on accuracy rate after the intervention. It can be detected in both the RR group and (pretest, SD=30.34; posttest, SD=33.64) the Non-RR group's (pretest, SD=23.82; posttest, SD=26.68). On the other hand, the standard deviations of the accuracy rate lowered. It can be observed in both the RR (pretest, SD=25.51; posttest, SD=18.27) and Non-RR groups (pretest, SD=22.10; posttest, SD=11.59).

Posttest of the Higher Level Students in the RR and Non-RR Groups

All the higher level participants gained great improvement after the fluency instruction. As shown in Table 4.9, the higher level students scored 87 on the reading rate with 93.84 of accuracy rate. Compared with the pretest, they improved by 21.81 words per minute, and 3.08 on accuracy rate. Whereas the higher level students in the Non-RR group scored 83 on the reading rate with 92 of the accuracy rate in the posttest, who improved 25 words on the reading rate and 8.65 % of accuracy. By within-group paired samples *t*-test, the results showed that the higher level students in both groups improved their reading rate significantly (RR=.000<.001, Non-RR=.000<.001), while on the accuracy rate, only the higher level students in the Non-RR group gained significant progress (RR=.078>.05, Non-RR=.002<.01).

Table 4.9

Paired Samples t-test for Progress of the higher level students in the RR and Non-RR Groups

		Means of Pretest	Means of Posttest	Pretest - posttest	SD	T	p
RR	WPM	65.19	87	-21.83	15.289	-5.707	.000***
	Accuracy rate	90.75	93.84	-3.08	6.524	-1.894	.078
Non-RR	WPM	58	83	-25	3.221	-7.763	.000***
	Accuracy rate	83.48	92.137	-8.656	2.134	-4.055	.002**

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Followed by the within-group paired samples t-test, the between-group independent samples t-test was conducted. The means of the top half students' WPM and accuracy rate were contrasted. As illustrated in Table 4.10, the t-tests comparisons revealed that the higher level students under the two different treatments delivered no significant differences on reading rate (t=.494,

p=.626) and accuracy rate (t=.640, p=.527).

The *p*-value of the posttest served as an answer to Research Question 2:

Is there a significant difference between assisted repeated reading and assisted non-repeated reading on higher-level readers' reading rate and accuracy rate? The non-significant differences between the two groups indicated that the repeated reading and non-repeated reading treatments improved the higher level students' oral reading fluency in an equal manner.

Table 4.10

Between-group Independent Samples t-test on the Higher Level Participants in RR and Non-RR Groups' Posttest

	RR		Non-RR		t	p
	Higher level (n=16)		Higher level (n=13)			
	M	SD	M	SD		
Posttest						
WPM	87	24.42	83	17.72	.494	.626
Accuracy rate	93.84	6.82	92.13	7.51	.640	.527

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Posttest of the Lower Level Students in the RR and Non-RR Groups

After the 16-week instruction, the lower level students in the RR and Non-RR groups had their reading rate and accuracy rate gained significantly. The results presented in Table 4.10 showed that the lower level students in the RR group performed 38.06 (SD=21.58) on the reading rate with 70.78 (SD=18.98) of accuracy rate, who improved 22.31 words per minute and 19.99 of accuracy rate. Whereas those in the Non-RR group scored 42.14 (SD=16.39) on the reading rate with 79.42 (SD=11.52) of accuracy rate and improved their reading rate by 22.42 words and their accuracy rate 21.76.

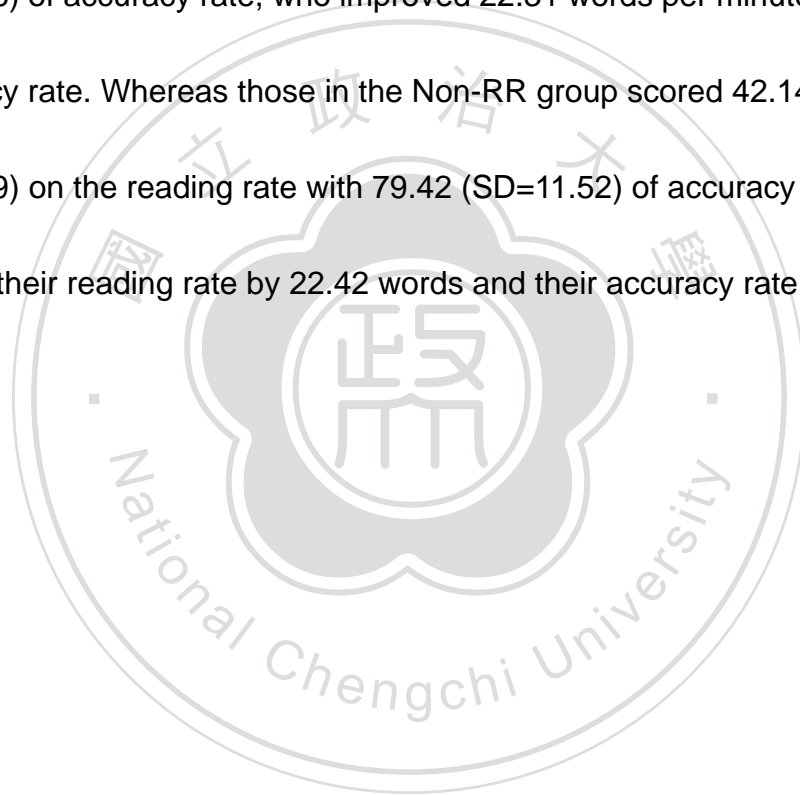


Table 4.11

Paired Samples t-test for Progress of the Lower Level Students in the RR and Non-RR Groups

		Means of Pretest	Means of Posttest	Pretest - posttest	SD	T	p
RR	WPM	15.75	38.06	-22.313	13.475	-6.624	.000***
	Accuracy rate	50.78	70.78	-19.998	18.461	-4.332	.001***
Non-RR	WPM	19.71	57.66	-22.429	13.113	-6.4	.000***
	Accuracy rate	42.14	79.42	-21.760	21.430	-3.79	.002**

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

By contrast of the means, the answer to Research Question 3 is gained: Is there a significant difference between assisted repeated reading and assisted non-repeated reading on lower-level readers' reading rate and accuracy rate? No significant differences between the two treatments were observed between the lower level students' reading rate ($t=-.576$, $P=.569>.05$) and accuracy rate

($t=-1.479$, $P=.150>.05$), indicating that repeated reading and non-repeated reading attributed to equivalent growth on the 'lower level students' oral reading fluency.

Table 4.12

Between-group Independent Samples t-test of Lower Level Participants in RR and Non-RR Groups' Posttest

	RR Lower level (n=16)		Non-RR Lower level (n=14)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Posttest WPM	38.06	21.58	42.14	16.39	-.576	.569
Accuracy rate	70.78	18.98	79.42	11.52	-1.479	.150

P>.05



CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The present study addressed three research questions in evaluating the effectiveness of repeated reading and non-repeated reading as a method for increasing EFL elementary students' oral reading rate and accuracy rate. This chapter discusses the findings based on the results of the analyzed data presented in Chapter Four. Section 1 summarizes the answers to the three research questions. Section 2 compares the findings between the present study and previous studies with possible explanations. Section 3 provides some pedagogical implications derived from the findings of the present study. Section 4 describes the limitations of the present study. Last, in section5, some suggestions for further research are illustrated.

Answers to the Research Questions

Based on the results of the pretest and the posttest on the participants' oral reading rate and accuracy rate, the answers to the three research questions are summarized in this section.

Research Question 1: Is assisted non-repeated reading (Non-RR) as effective as assisted repeated reading (RR) in improving EFL beginners' reading rate and accuracy rate?

The results demonstrated that the RR and Non-RR groups both improved their reading rate and accuracy rate significantly, indicating that both repeated reading and non-repeated reading approaches are effective approaches for the students' oral reading fluency.

Meanwhile, there was no significant differences between the two groups' reading rate and accuracy rate. The results suggest that non-repeated reading is as effective as repeated reading approach in helping students improve their oral reading fluency. It indicates that repeated reading and non-repeated reading approaches are equally beneficial for improving students' reading fluency ability in terms of reading rate and accuracy rate.

Research Question 2: Is there a significant difference between assisted repeated reading and assisted non- repeated reading on higher-level readers' reading rate and accuracy rate?

It is interesting to note that the higher level students in the RR group did

not improve their accuracy rate significantly; instead, they improved their oral reading rate significantly only. On the other hand, the higher level students in the Non-RR group significantly improved not only their reading rate but also their accuracy rate.

Nevertheless, no significant differences were observed between the higher level students in the two groups, which indicate that both RR and Non-RR approaches assisted the higher level students in a similar manner.

Research Question 3: Is there a significant difference between assisted repeated reading and assisted non-repeated reading on lower-level readers' reading rate and accuracy rate?

The posttest results showed that the lower level students in each group improved their reading rate and accuracy rate significantly, indicating that both RR and Non-RR approaches are helpful for the lower level students' reading fluency improvements.

With the comparison of the lower level students' posttest between the two groups, we can clearly see that no significant differences existed between the two groups' reading rate and accuracy rate. In other words, the two assisted

reading approaches delivered similar growth on the lower level students' reading rate and accuracy rate.

To sum up, based on the answers to the three research questions proposed, assisted repeated reading and non-repeated reading improved students' reading fluency significantly after the 16-week instruction. Further, RR and Non-RR are equally beneficial for the EFL young beginners' oral reading fluency regardless of different reading levels.

Discussion

The present study aims to compare the effect of repeated reading and non-repeated reading approaches on EFL elementary school students' oral reading fluency. Comparing with previous studies, consistent and inconsistent findings obtained in the present study are presented as follows.

Consistent Findings

A contribution of the present study is that it extends previous literature to EFL elementary learners. The following findings of the present study show agreement with previous research.

First, assisted reading approaches, including repeated reading and

non-repeated reading are beneficial for students' reading fluency regardless of reading levels. In the present study, the two groups were instructed with assisted reading approaches such as choral reading, echo reading, and partner reading. After the instruction, both groups significantly improved their reading rate and accuracy rate. Such finding shows agreement with NRP's conclusion that assisted and guided oral reading approaches contribute to clear and agreeing improvements on students' reading fluency abilities. (NRP, 2000).

Second, Non-repeated reading approach is as effective as repeated reading on students' oral reading fluency. In addition, in regard with students with different levels, the present study indicates that RR and Non-RR approaches are equally effective for the participants. The comparison between the higher achievers of the two groups showed no significant differences, and the comparisons between the lower achievers in the two groups demonstrated the same results. Such findings are consistent with literature on the comparison of repeated reading and non-repeated reading. Previous studies (Homa, et al., 1993; M. Kuhn, 2004; Perfetti, 1985) show that repeated reading and non-repeated reading approaches yield to similar learning outcomes. As Rashotte, and Torgesen (Perfetti, 1985) claimed, repeated reading was not

more effective than non-repeated reading on improving students' reading fluency. Likewise, it is congruent with Homan, Klesius, and Hite's (1993) report that both repeated and assisted non-repetitive reading on connected texts improved students' reading rate and accuracy rate. Also, it echoes Kuhn's (2004) conclusion that guided repeated and assisted non-repeated reading on basal readers or other books lead to equivalent effects on reading fluency.

Meanwhile, the finding of the present study is in agreement of O'Connor, White, and Swanson's study (2007) that the assisted repeated reading and non-repeated reading are equally effective for students' word identification and reading rate.

Two possible reasons are provided to the finding of the non-significant differences between RR and Non-RR groups' oral reading fluency. First, it seemed that repetition occurs in both repeated and non-repeated reading approaches. According to Samuels (1979), rereading the same short passage enhances students to read from inaccurately to accurately and finally became fast and automatic reading. Samuels (1979) stated, "One important function of repeated reading is that it provides the practice needed to become automatic (P. 379)." Later, Moyer (1982) further explained that repeated reading provides "the highest possible level of redundancy" (p.622). Once students are

instructed the skills to read the words accurately, they need time to practice the skills by rereading the same words so that they are able to gradually achieve automaticity. In sum, it can be inferred that the RR group improved their oral reading fluency by practicing the similar word recognition skills repeatedly in the same short passage until they achieved mastery of the skills.

Considering that the function of repeated reading is providing “redundancy” (Moyer, 1982) of practices on the same word recognition skills, reading different passages may in other ways provide students chances on practicing the same reading skills by reading different passages with similar difficulties. Similar difficulty-level readings require similar decoding skills and contain similar high frequency words. In the present study, some of the decodable words and high frequency words used in the phonics readers also appeared in the sight word readers. The words overlapped in both sets of readers provided the Non-RR group chances to practice the same word recognition skills. They first practiced those words in the phonics readers and then reread the words again in the sight word readers. As a whole, although the Non-RR group read each book without too much repetition, they actually repeatedly practiced similar decoding skills and high frequency words through similar reading difficulty level materials with overlapped words. In other words, repeated

reading improves students' reading fluency by repeatedly practicing the same word recognition skills on the same short passage, while non-repeated reading assisted students by practicing similar word recognition skills on different passages with similar difficulties. Thus, non-repeated reading can help students achieve automaticity the way repeated reading does.

Another possible reason for the non-significant differences between the RR and Non-RR groups' reading rate and accuracy rate may be that the students received similar amount of reading time and reading volumes. Rashotte and Torgesen (1985) stated that with the same amount of reading volume, both repeated reading and non-repeated reading benefit students' reading speed and accuracy. Likewise, In Kuhn's (2003) review of studies relating with fluency instruction, she argued that "it is not the repetition that leads to the effect but the amount of time spent reading connected text" (p.17). Later, Kuhn (2004) concluded in her study that when readers were provided the same amount of connected texts, repeated reading was not necessarily a more effective method than non-repeated reading in enhancing readers' gain on reading speed and accuracy. Other than the importance of reading volumes, O'Connor, White, and Swanson (2007) stated that time is a critical element . They found that good readers, compared with poor readers, usually spend

more time on reading. Those who read more tend to become good at reading with automaticity and comprehension. Reversely, those who are good at reading usually involve in reading more.

In short, when the difficulties of reading materials, reading volumes, and reading time are comparable, assisted repeated reading and non-repeated reading are both effective approaches. In other words, it can be inferred that enough amount of appropriate readings and reading time are two major factors that contribute to their reading speed and reading accuracy gains.

Inconsistent Findings with Previous Studies

In spite of some consistent findings compared with previous studies, inconsistent findings were observed in the present study. The present study revealed that the higher achievers in the RR group improved their oral reading speed significantly, but they did not improve their oral reading accuracy significantly, which indicates that RR did not help the higher achievers to decrease their miscues significantly. Such finding shows disagreement with literature (Begeny, et al., 2009a; Dowhower, 1987) that repeated reading is effective for students' oral reading rate and accuracy rate regardless of proficiency and reading levels. Possible reasons are discussed as follows.

Samuels' (1979) proposal of repeated reading argued that repeatedly practicing the word recognition skills in the same short passage enables students to gradually achieve automaticity and read the same passage faster with accuracy. With fast and accurate word recognition skills, learners' attention will be freed to comprehending the texts.

Nevertheless, when compared with non-repeated reading, repeated reading is often criticized as tedious and restricted, which may be the reason for the non-significant improvements on the higher level students' accuracy rate after the treatment. Critics (O'Connor, et al., 2007; T. V. Rasinski, 1990) stated that repeatedly reading the same text may bore students and lower their motivation in each repetition. To some readers, it may even be taken as a punishment for not reading well the first time (Homa, et al., 1993). Therefore, it is possible that in the present study, repeated reading approach bored the higher achievers in the RR group so that they took the overly-emphasized repetition as a tedious job and tried their best to complete it as fast as they could without carefully reading the passages. As a result, their accuracy rate did not improve significantly as their oral reading rate significantly raised.

Conversely, in non-repeated reading, students were not required to repeat the same short passage overly; instead, they read more passages in each

period of class. By reading different passages, they may not be aware of the fact that they were actually repeatedly practicing similar word recognition skills. For instance, in the “wh-” word families, students in the RR group read the words in the Phonics Reader, “where, why, what”, yet the students in the Non-RR group read more words consisting with the same phoneme in the Phonics Readers and Sight Word Readers, such as “where, why, what, whale, and whole”. With different reading passages, their motivation in reading may not be lowered by tedious repetition. Accordingly the higher level students in the Non-RR group not only improved their reading rate significantly, but also improved their accuracy rate significantly after the treatment.

Homan, Klesius, and Hite (1993) suggested that there seems to be a need to provide the higher achievers in the RR group some specific purposes other than increasing their reading rate such, as (a) reading to the whole class, (b) reading to younger learners (c) dubbing for the story, or (d) presenting in the form of dramatic reading such as reader theater. Rereading the same passage then becomes a purpose for completing the tasks rather than being viewed as a punishment.

Second, it seems reasonable that because the higher achievers' motivation in rereading the same passage was not raised, they paid little

attention to monitoring their peers' reading. Due to the limit of time, it is challenging for the teacher to monitor each students' reading. Also, for the greater ease of use, when RR is applied in the whole class activities, the reading rate and accuracy rate are mostly recorded by the students themselves and hardly by the teacher or assistant (Yurick, et al., 2006). One concern of peer-monitoring is that if the students do not take the responsibility to monitor their peers' reading and point out the errors, students' miscues can hardly be reduced. For example, the instructor found out that if the two students working together had the same problem of missing the ending sounds of plural nouns, they may not be able to help each other and point out the errors. Hence, Hoffman and Rasinski (Timothy V Rasinski & Hoffman, 2003) suggested that helping students to learn strategies to monitor themselves is important for their reading ability development. Likewise, Yetta Goodman (1996) proposed a strategy called "retrospective miscue analysis" to develop students' ability for self-monitoring. Students directly discuss their errors with their teachers helps them to analyze their errors and then be able to develop their strategies for self-monitoring.

Pedagogical Implications

The following four pedagogical implications were drawn from the present study. First, both assisted repeated reading and non-repeated reading are recommended to be used alternatively due to the finding that the RR and Non-RR groups under assisted reading approaches improved their reading fluency significantly after 16 periods of classes. With scaffolding, beginners are able to read books in their instructional level independently and gradually read as well as reduce their miscues.

Second, if the benefits of reading are taken into consideration, non-repeated reading is recommended more because non-repeated reading improves the students' oral reading fluency the way repeated reading does without the drawbacks of repeated reading. During the same amount of time, students are exposed to more texts, ideas, and wider genres. Also, non-repeated reading is closer to how good readers read outside the classroom; that is, when reading, readers do not usually overly reread the same short passage (O'Connor, et al., 2007); rather, readers tend to read continuously connected texts. In addition, too much the overly repetition on the same short passage, readers' motivation toward reading will not be lowered. Moreover, non-repeated reading is appropriate to be implanted in class with

multi-levels. For the higher level students, reading a wider range of texts and genres enables the students to gain the interest of reading. For the lower level students, through non-repeated reading on the passages with similar difficulties, they are able to repeatedly practice similar word recognition skills as well as gain the interest of reading.

Third, it is advised that repeated reading to be administered as a means for specific purposes such reading to younger kids, or dubbing for the stories owing to the finding that repeated reading did not help the lower achievers reduce their miscues. However, with specific purposes, students will not take repeatedly reading the same short passage as meaningless and tedious.

Lastly, exposing students, regardless of their reading levels, to abundant reading time and appropriate reading volume is crucial to their reading fluency. With accurate word reading, students still need time to practice their word recognition skills on connected texts. Consequently, providing students with time on appropriate connected text helps students to become good readers.

Limitations of the Study

The present study demonstrated that the repeated and non-repeated reading approaches had desirable effects on the EFL fourth graders' oral

reading fluency. Moreover, it is suggested that non-repeated is as effective as repeated reading approach on improving students' oral reading rate and accuracy. Nevertheless, several limitations existed and it is hoped that they are noted for further investigation.

The first limitation concerns with the duration of the instructional time. The instruction was implemented once a week, 16 weeks in total, adding up to 16 periods of class. This may not be long enough for the participants to build up their reading skills. Yet, 16 weeks was close to a semester. Although the results showed that RR and Non-RR are equally beneficial for the participants' oral reading fluency. It is uncertain whether longer period of instruction results in similar findings. Therefore, a longer-period instruction is suggested to investigate the long-term effects.

Second, the participants' attitudes toward RR and Non-RR approaches are not clear. In the present study, the data collected included pretest and posttest assessments on the participants' oral reading rate and accuracy rate. Questionnaires exploring the students' attitudes toward the two reading approaches were not included. As a result, questionnaire investigating the students' attitude toward RR and Non-RR was suggested in future studies.

The third limitation of the present study concerns with the effect of students'

self-monitoring. During the reading practice session, students were monitored mainly by their partners due to the limit of time and resources. It is challenging for the teacher to monitor each student's reading and providing feedbacks in each reading session. It was worried that in peer-monitoring, some errors may be neglected and some feedbacks may be inappropriate. This may reduce the effect of RR and Non-RR in helping students to reduce the miscues. Hence, it is suggested that the students were instructed with retrospective miscue analysis (Goodman, 1996) to help them be more aware of their own errors.

Suggestions for Future Studies

Based on the limitations of the present study, some suggestions for further studies are presented as follows. First, a longer-period instruction is recommended to examine the long-term effect of RR and Non-RR. Second, questionnaires investigating the students' attitudes toward RR and Non-RR are suggested to be included in future studies to understand the students' perspective more. Third, approaches helping students' to be more aware of their own errors such as retrospective miscue analysis proposed by Yetta Goodman (Goodman, 1996) is recommended to be instructed before the experimental instruction to avoid the drawbacks of peer-monitoring. Fourth, the

transfer effect to an unpracticed passage is recommended to be examined in future studies. Lastly, it is suggested that the effect of repeated reading and non-repeated reading approaches on the students' reading comprehension and prosody be confirmed in future studies. Due to the reason that it is not easy to administer an appropriate comprehension test on young beginners in the present study, a future study examining the relationship between reading fluency and comprehension on students with better English proficiency is advised.

Conclusion

The Nation Reading Panel (2000) pointed out, "It is generally acknowledged that fluency is a critical component of skilled reading. Nevertheless, it is often neglected in classroom instruction" (p.3-1). As Kuhn and Stahl (2003) noted, fluency does not usually happen by itself, rather it needs to be instructed.

Although abundant research revealed that repeated reading approach is one of the most effective approach on students' reading fluency, non-repeated reading has been proved to benefit students' reading fluency as well (Begeny, Krouse, Ross, & Mitchell, 2009b; Dowhower, 1987; O'Shea, J., Sindelar, T., & O'Shea, 1987). However, little research has been done on the comparison of

repeated reading and non-repeated reading approaches on EFL/ L2 environment. The present study extends the comparison of repeated reading and non-repeated reading approaches to EFL elementary school students. The results showed that both of the two assisted reading approaches, repeated reading and non-repeated reading, significantly improved their reading rate and accuracy rate after the 16-week instruction. With similar amount of reading time and reading volume, the two approaches benefitted the students' oral reading fluency equally. Moreover, the results indicate that non-repeated reading is as effective as repeated reading on EFL elementary school students' oral reading rate and accuracy rate regardless of different reading levels.

As a result, it is recommended that (1) reading fluency instruction be emphasized in class more with assisted reading approaches; (2) exposing students to appropriate materials with abundant time and assistance; (3) non-repeated reading and repeated reading approaches be applied alternatively in classrooms. It is hoped that the findings in the present study can be applied as a reference for teachers to develop the curriculum and design activities to improve students' reading fluency.

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Appendix A: Pretest and posttest assessing passage

Book 28 Nick's Trick

<p>Meg looks for her dog, Nick. “Here, Nick. Here, Nick.” Where is Nick?</p> <p>Max looks for Meg’s dog, Nick. “Here, Nick. Here, Nick,” Where is Nick?</p> <p>Meg picks up Nick’s stick. “Here is the stick, Nick,” she calls.</p> <p>Max picks up Nick’s ball. “Here is the ball, Nick,” he calls.</p> <p>Meg picks up Nick’s sock. “Here is the sock, Nick,” she calls.</p> <p>Max picks up Nick’s bone. Here is the bone, Nick, he calls. Meg calls, “Look!” “Look at the big rock!” They get to the rock. There is Nick. Is Nick sick?</p>	<p>“Here, Nick. Here is the stick. Here is the sock,” calls Meg.</p> <p>“Here, Nick. Here is the ball. Here is the bone,” calls Max.</p> <p>Nick likes her stick. Nick likes her sock. Nick likes her ball. Nick likes her bone.</p> <p>Nick likes to lick. Nick likes to lick Meg and Max. Best of all, Nick like to lick... her puppies!</p>
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Appendix B: Scoring sheet

Book 28 Nick's Trick

Pretest/ Posttest Class: _____ No. _____ Name: _____

Meg looks for her dog, Nick.	6	“Here, Nick.	95
“Here, Nick. Here, Nick.”	10	Here is the stick.	99
Where is Nick?	13	Here is the sock,” calls Meg.	105
Max looks for Meg’s dog, Nick.	19	“Here, Nick.	107
“Here, Nick. Here, Nick,”	23	Here is the ball.	111
Where is Nick?	26	Here is the bone,” calls Max.	117
Meg picks up Nick’s stick.	31	Nick likes her stick.	121
“Here is the stick, Nick,” she calls.	38	Nick likes her sock.	125
		Nick likes her ball.	129
Max picks up Nick’s ball.	43	Nick likes her bone.	131
“Here is the ball, Nick,” he calls.	50		
Meg picks up Nick’s sock.	55	Nick likes to lick.	135
“Here is the sock, Nick,” she calls.	62	Nick likes to lick Meg and	141
		Max.	142
Max picks up Nick’s bone.	67		
Here is the bone, Nick, he calls.	74	Best of all, Nick like to lick...	149
		her puppies!	151
Meg calls, “Look!”	77		
“Look at the big rock!”	82		
They get to the rock.	87		
There is Nick.	90		
Is Nick sick?	93		

Total words: _____

Error Words: _____

Accurate words: _____

WPM:

Accuracy rate:

Appendix C: Self-monitoring record for the RR group

Class: _____ Number: _____ Name: _____

A. Phonics Readers 自我表現登記表

	上課前			上課後			Partner 閱讀夥伴
	1. 一分鐘內 讀的字數	2. 唸錯的 字數	3. 正確的字 數 (1-2)	1. 一分鐘內 讀的字數	2. 唸錯的 字數	3. 正確的字 數 (1-2)	
Book 13							
Book 14							
Book 15							
Book 16							
Book 17							
Book 18							
Book 19							
Book 20							
Book 21							
Book 22							
Book 23							
Book 24							
Book 25							
Book 26							
Book 27							
Book 28							

Appendix D: Self-monitoring record for the Non-RR group

Class: _____ Number: _____ Name: _____

A. Phonics Readers 自我表現登記表

	上課前			上課後			Partner 閱讀夥伴
	1. 一分鐘內讀的字數	2. 唸錯的字數	3. 正確的字數 (1-2)	1. 一分鐘內讀的字數	2. 唸錯的字數	3. 正確的字數 (1-2)	
Book 13							
Book 14							
Book 15							
Book 16							
Book 17							
Book 18							
Book 19							
Book 20							
Book 21							
Book 22							
Book 23							
Book 24							
Book 25							
Book 26							
Book 27							
Book 28							

B. Sight Word Readers 自我表現登記表

	上課前			上課後			Partner 閱讀夥伴
	1. 一分鐘內讀的字數	2. 唸錯的字數	3. 正確的字數 (1-2)	1. 一分鐘內讀的字數	2. 唸錯的字數	3. 正確的字數 (1-2)	
Book 1							
Book 2							
Book 3							
Book 4							
Book 5							
Book 6							
Book 7							
Book 8							
Book 9							
Book 10							
Book 11							
Book 12							
Book 13							
Book 14							
Book 15							
Book 16							

