

ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation: A COMPARISON OF TWO STRATEGIES FOR
TEACHING THIRD GRADERS TO
SUMMARIZE INFORMATION TEXT

Ann Marie Dromsky
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Dissertation directed by: Dr. Mariam Jean Dreher
Department of Curriculum and Instruction
University of Maryland, College Park

Summarizing text is one of the most effective comprehension strategies (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000) and an effective way to learn from information text (Dole, Duffy, Roehler, & Pearson, 1991; Pressley & Woloshyn, 1995). In addition, much research supports the explicit instruction of such strategies as critical to developing skilled readers (Baker, 1984, Duke, 2000; Hare & Borchardt, 1984, Pressley, Mc Donald, et al. 2000; Williams et al., 2005). Despite such evidence, relatively few studies focus on summarization and even less research has been conducted with young children and information texts. This study investigated the effects of two approaches to teaching third-grade students how to summarize information text. Cue Word Summarization (CWS) and a modified version of Cunningham's (1982) Generating Interactions between Schemata and Text (GIST) were the two approaches designed to help students read multi-paragraph informational text and select information using a procedure to guide their composition of a written summary.

Third-grade students in intact classrooms randomly assigned to the instructional treatment conditions (CWS or GIST) or a comparison group were pre-tested on their

ability to compose written summaries of information text. After explicit strategy instruction in the treatment classrooms and observations of regular instruction in the comparison classroom, students took a post-test to evaluate their summary writing of information text. Performance on three aspects of summary writing was first analyzed using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to control for experiment-wise error, followed by an analysis of variance (ANOVA) for each of the three dependent variables: textbook information, vocabulary, and organization. For each analysis, group was a between-subjects measure and time was a within-subjects measure. Participants in the treatment conditions had statistically significantly higher scores on all three aspects of the summary writing measure than students in the comparison classroom. This research indicates that explicit instruction in summary writing can be successful with primary-grade students.

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SUMMARIZE INFORMATION TEXT

By

Ann Marie Dromsky

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Advisory Committee:

Professor Mariam Jean Dreher, Chair
Senior Lecturer Rose Marie Codling
Associate Professor Wayne Slater
Associate Professor William Strein
Associate Professor Jennifer Turner

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DEDICATION

For my mother who taught me to carry myself gracefully through life's battles.

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Chapter I: Introduction

Summarization is a complex strategy that not only requires the reading of text, but the ability to organize and present information to demonstrate understanding of the most important information in a text. In essence, readers who can summarize what they have read demonstrate the ability to mentally organize text, integrate that information with new text, and condense the salient points into a concise form. The strategy depends on an ability to recognize what information is critical to understanding or necessary for responding to literacy tasks (van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983).

Problem Statement

Why is summarization a difficult topic? Developing strategies that effectively help students learn from text is not simple and often lacking in the elementary years (Duke, 2000; RAND Reading Study Group, 2002; Wendler, Samuels, & Moore, 1989).

Summarization is a complex strategy that not only requires the reading of text, but the ability to organize and present information in a concise and short response (Friend, 2001). Although summarization is now included in elementary curricula and standards, teachers are offered virtually no instructional guidelines for teaching this comprehension strategy.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of two approaches to teaching third-grade students how to summarize information text. Comprehension involves multiple cognitive and metacognitive processes (Block & Pressley, 2002). For the purpose of this study comprehension is the use of general knowledge to comprehend text literally as well as to draw valid inferences from texts, comprehend words, and the

use of strategies to monitor understanding (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). Defining summarization is difficult and abstract (Tierney & Cunningham, 2002), but for this study the model outlined by Kintsch and van Dijk (1978) provides the macrostructure that guides students' production of written summaries. Kintsch and Van Dijk (1978) described three elements critical to summary production: Students must be able to organize text elements into a coherent whole where the full meaning of the text is condensed and new text is generated from the process. Both approaches in this study guide students to read a multi-paragraph text selection, condense that information by selecting elements, and then generate a written summary.

Rationale

The ability to summarize is important in the primary grades for several reasons. First, literacy researchers cite summarization as an important skill that students should develop in the primary grades. National reports on reading development also cite summarization as a critical component of early reading instruction and research (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000; RAND Reading Study Group, 2002; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). In addition to national reports and researchers' recommendations, schools now have extensive curricular and assessment demands that include summarization tasks. Finally, there is little evidence from multiple research studies that comprehension, including summarization strategies, is being taught to students—particularly in the lower elementary grades (Pressley, 2002; RAND Reading Study Group, 2002). Given the recommendations from literacy experts, the curricular and assessment demands of schools, and the lack of summarization instruction found in the primary grades, it seems important to look closely at how to improve students' ability to

summarize and comprehend text.

Research and national recommendations. What constitutes comprehension and how teachers provide instruction to facilitate the process continues to challenge researchers. Certainly early attempts to operationalize a definition of reading comprehension instruction challenged Durkin (1978-1979); Wendler, Samuels, and Moore (1989); and Hodges (1980) for more than a decade. These articles highlight an ongoing challenge for researchers and teachers today, that of collectively understanding what constitutes reading comprehension and how to analyze practices that promote students' cognitive processing of text. As Pressley (2000) noted, "development of comprehension is multicomponential and developmental" (p. 557). Therefore, the construct of comprehension depends on multiple factors.

Several reviews of reading research document the strategies, contexts, and text-based factors that influence comprehension (Pearson & Fielding, 1991; Pressley, 2002; Tierney & Cunningham, 1984). These analyses indicate different lenses for categorizing, interpreting, and synthesizing research. In the large corpus of research on reading instruction, several articles support a broader interpretation and vision of comprehension instruction (Hodges, 1980; Pressley & Block, 2002; Tierney & Cunningham, 1984) that encompass many factors related to reading. Interwoven with these paradigms for comprehension instruction are issues surrounding the use of specific reading strategies. One strategy always subsumed by and considered integral to comprehension is summarization (Brown, Day, & Jones, 1983; Friend, 2000/2001; Pressley, 2000).

Scholars in the field of reading report the need for young children to independently read and write exposition --including the ability to summarize-- by the end of third grade.

Two national reports led by reading researchers have acknowledged the importance of teaching students to summarize in the primary grades. In a report commissioned by the National Academy of Sciences, the Committee on Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children specifically stated, “Throughout the early grades, reading curricula should include specific instruction on strategies, such as summarizing...that are used to comprehend text’ (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998, p. 195). This recommendation is repeated in their curriculum guidelines for second and third graders (Snow et al., 1998, p. 7). The committee further proposed that summarizing fiction and nonfiction texts should be a literacy accomplishment by the end of third grade. Similarly, in their report, the National Reading Panel noted that students who do not receive explicit comprehension instruction are “...unlikely to learn, develop, or use them [comprehension strategies] spontaneously” (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000, p. 4-40). Their meta-analysis of research included summarization as one of the strategies that provides significant improvement in children’s comprehension.

Assessment and curriculum demands. In addition to being part of instructional recommendations, summarization in the primary grades is both expected and assessed. State curriculum guidelines and assessments require students to read and summarize expository materials. In Maryland, for example, the state voluntary guidelines for reading and language arts recommend that first graders retell and discuss a text and that second and third graders receive comprehension instruction that includes identifying important information, summarizing different types of text, and crafting written summaries. Maryland state indicators for the primary grades explicitly list summarization in every section of the Maryland State Department of Education voluntary state

curriculum (MSDE VSC, 1997-2010): comprehension processes, comprehension of literary and informational texts, and writing. These objectives are then tested by the Maryland School Assessment [MSA] (MCPS, 2010; MSA, 1997-2010) and TerraNova California Test of Basic Skills [TerraNova CTBS]; (MCPS, 2010) administered to third and second graders, respectively. On the Maryland School Assessment (MSA) third graders must write brief constructed responses-- many which require summaries of passages from different content areas. The third grade MSA also assesses summarization in multiple-choice tasks (MCPS, 2010; MSDE VSC, 1997-2010). Although the state curriculum is voluntary, both state and local assessments include summarization tasks (MCPS, 2010; MSDE VSC, 1997-2010).

Local assessments include formal and informal measures of primary students' ability to summarize. For example, this expectation is outlined in Maryland's voluntary state curriculum, and is evident in Montgomery County (Maryland) Public Schools' (MCPS, 2010) literacy curriculum for the first, second, and third grades. Under the content standards for comprehension of literary and informational text, MCPS indicators include the "summarization of a text or portion of a text" (MCPS, 2010). In all the primary grades, MCPS students also take district-designed assessments in reading and math. The local measures and TerraNova noted earlier have multiple reading passages followed by comprehension sections that test students' ability to summarize. As these examples from Maryland indicate; national, state, and local assessments have reading tasks to assess summarization and other comprehension strategies in the primary grades.

Comprehension instruction in the primary grades. Despite these national, state, and local expectations there is little evidence that summarization is typically being

taught. The National Reading Panel (NRP) members asked, “Why teach it?” Then based on data from numerous studies and analyses, they answered their own question with, “Readers do not know how to summarize text” (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000, p. 4-44). Indeed, there is considerable evidence that comprehension instruction of any kind is typically not occurring in the classroom. Brown and Smiley (1978) found that fifth and seventh graders typically read text, decided what to include and then copied information as their primary summarization approach. Research by Durkin (1978-79) showed that teachers spent very little time teaching comprehension skills. Singling out comprehension instruction from assessment and word level work, Durkin recorded only .63 percent of 4,469 minutes spent on reading comprehension. Students received little more in the way of help with assignments or prereading tasks as the greatest amount of time spent was on assessment tasks. Durkin’s study highlighted the paucity of comprehension instruction and the need for further research.

A decade after Durkin’s work, Wendler, Samuels, and Moore (1989) wondered whether research had had an impact on comprehension instruction. To find out, Wendler et al. examined the comprehension instruction of three groups of teachers: state semi-finalists and finalists for excellence in teaching awards, those with a master’s degree, and a comparison group of teachers with bachelor’s degrees. They found that comprehension instruction was rare even when teachers had received awards or had taken graduate-level courses in reading. Teachers in all 3 groups did not consider rereading or explicit strategy instruction as components of comprehension instruction. Furthermore, Wendler et al. concluded that teachers might be confused by the difference between comprehension

assessment and instruction as well as the importance of both components. Despite the increased attention to comprehension instruction spurred on by Durkin's (1978/79) findings, Wendler et al. (1989) found little change in teachers' allocation of time for comprehension instruction. Overall, teachers asked questions and relied on workbooks and prepared materials as the primary means of addressing reading comprehension. In fact, after Wendler et al. told teachers that they wanted to see their best comprehension lessons, teachers only increased the amount of time devoted to questioning and rote tasks.

In more recent studies the lack of instruction is still apparent. In a comprehensive review of classroom reading instruction two decades after Durkin's work, Pressley (1998) found that comprehension research had influenced curriculum but not instruction. For example, students were asked to use comprehension processes to respond to questions and tasks such as summarizing what they had read or constructing questions about a text. But Pressley (1998) found little evidence of instruction and concluded, "In general, students were provided with opportunities to practice comprehension strategies, but were not actually taught the strategies themselves nor the utility of applying them" (p.198).

Yet research shows that students can acquire comprehension strategies in the primary grades (Gambrell, Block, & Pressley, 2002). Connor, Morrison, and Petrella (2004) observed third graders during language arts instruction. Over the course of one year, the researchers documented the effect of instruction on reading comprehension scores. Students who had average to low reading scores in the fall made significantly more progress in classrooms where teachers delivered explicit strategy comprehension instruction as compared with student-managed comprehension activities. As in previous studies, however, the amount of time spent on explicit strategy instruction was far below

recommendations in reported research (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000; Snow, 2001). Thus, there appears to be support for explicitly teaching students comprehension skills that help students read strategically across multiple tasks (Taylor, Pearson, Clark, & Walpole, 2000; Williams, Hall, Lauer, Stafford, DeSisto, & de Cani, 2005).

Other research also supports explicit strategy instruction in comprehension skills, but the majority of these studies focus on intermediate and secondary level instruction. Pressley et al. (1998) found some striking commonalities in ten fourth- and fifth-grade classrooms. The first was the lack of comprehension instruction in general. Furthermore, there was no evidence of strategy instruction to help students self-regulate their reading and understanding. More recently, Pressley, McDonald, et al. (2001) examined differences between more and less effective first-grade teachers in 30 classrooms across the country. Those teachers identified as less effective provided little to no explicit strategy comprehension instruction. In the exemplary teachers' classrooms, "Much explicit instruction occurred..." (p.46), including comprehension tactics followed by reteaching and practice. These classroom teachers provided a balance of skills instruction with literature while scaffolding experiences so students learned to regulate their learning. These results echoed findings from Pressley et al.'s (1998) earlier study with older students that found explicit strategy comprehension instruction more prevalent in exemplary classrooms.

Summarization instruction with primary-grade students. Given the amount of comprehension instruction research, it is surprising that few studies include primary-grade students. Trabasso and Bouchard (2002) cited 18 reports on summarization from a

corpus of 205 studies of comprehension strategies since 1980. None of these studies include students below third grade and only one was completed after 1990. Thus, Trabasso and Brouhard's analysis of comprehension research highlights that few studies focus on summarization and most of this research is thirty years old.

There is even less evidence that summarization or comprehension instruction occurs with exposition. Duke (2000) noted that throughout a typical school day, young children spent only a few minutes exposed to informational text and these interactions did not necessarily involve active reading or writing. Pappas (1993) found in her work with kindergarteners that children enjoy exposition but receive little exposure to books other than stories. Morrow, Pressley, Smith, and Smith (1997) sought to improve science instruction by integrating literature but the science texts used for the research are predominately narrative. Taylor, Pearson, Clark, and Walpole (2000) examined instruction and queried teachers about comprehension instruction. They observed almost no strategy instruction and little encouragement of students to coordinate comprehension strategies in order to learn from text. So it seems that despite national reports and state and local curriculum guidelines, young children still experience little comprehension instruction, and as Dreher (2000) and Duke (2000) indicated, even less comprehension instruction with nonfiction than stories.

There is some evidence, however, that explicit strategy instruction of young children can improve reading skills. Williams, Hall, Lauer, Stafford, DeSisto, and de Cani (2005) instructed second graders in compare and contrast expository text structure using clue words, questions, and a graphic organizer with constructed passages. Students who received this instruction performed statistically significantly better than students in

classes where teachers provided an introduction to new content but no text structure instruction. Students in the instructional strategy group also transferred what they learned to other texts although not to other text structures. Williams et al. (2005) found that young children can improve their strategic reading with explicit strategy instruction in a text structure comprehension strategy. Such results suggest that a closer examination of instructional approaches for specific comprehension strategies such as summarization could yield important information about successful reading practices.

One such approach for summarization is the *Generating Interactions between Schema and Text* (GIST) procedure developed by Cunningham (1982). In response to the difficulty and time associated with teaching students explicit strategy rules for composing summaries (e.g., Brown & Day, 1983; Brown, Day, & Jones, 1983; Rinehart, Stahl, & Erickson, 1986; Taylor, 1982), Cunningham (1982) presented a simpler strategy-- GIST-- to fourth graders. GIST does not require adherence to a set of rules related to text structure. Rather, Cunningham combined techniques and created a set of guidelines for teacher-directed strategy instruction and provided an instructional sequence for gradually having students independently produce gist statements for whole paragraphs.

Another approach is *Cue Word Summarization* (CWS), a practitioner-based procedure first introduced as “text cues” (Gambrell & Dromsky, 2000). Like GIST, this approach explicitly guides students to select specific words that carry the meaning of text and then use those words to construct independent summaries. Students begin with single paragraph selections and gradually create lists for lengthier selections. The “cue words” then serve as the list from which to compose a summary for multi-paragraph passages. Students must continually consider whether words are critical to their

summaries or superfluous information. To test both of these procedures with primary students, a small-scale pilot study was conducted in two third-grade classrooms. The results of this pilot study are presented in Appendix A.

The GIST procedure. Cunningham outlined six steps in the GIST procedure. First, the investigator selected paragraphs that were three to five sentences in length and appeared to have a gist. Cunningham noted that all passages were by the same author, at a similar level of difficulty (hard third-grade) and focused on a curricular goal. Second, students read only the first sentence of the paragraph and were told to read it so they could retell in their own words using fifteen or less words. The chalkboard was marked with fifteen blanks. In the third step the teacher presented 15 blanks on the board and guided students as a group to retell the same information using no more than 15 words and to revise the retelling as necessary. Students could reread the sentence but had to dictate and compose the retelling from memory. Although students were reminded to compose a single statement, teachers did not evaluate the content. Students compared the retelling to the original statement and indicated when the retelling was satisfactory.

Once satisfied with their retelling, Cunningham moved to the fourth step and uncovered the second sentence of the paragraph. The board was erased and the investigator presented 15 blanks. The directions were to use both sentences and write a gist statement of 15 words or less. In step five, the same discussion and process as step three ensued as students now had the same limit of words for two sentences of information. The final step involved adding one sentence at a time until students generated a 15 words or less statement they felt retold the gist of the paragraph. Cunningham noted that this process then shifts to reading an entire paragraph and

composing a 15 words or less gist statement first as a group and then independently. No timeline was outlined.

Cunningham provided nine 25-minute instructional sessions for students learning the gist procedure and the same number and length of sessions for the placebo group. The report did not make clear how many sessions included whole-group instruction versus having the students gradually move toward independent gist production. Students in the placebo group received instruction with several strategies focused on the word level of the paragraphs and required a similar amount of writing.

Although useful for students, the GIST procedure has several limitations. First, the approach requires that paragraphs in text have a gist. As Williams et al. (2005) noted, few texts follow a discrete structure or contain specific elements—particularly in exposition. Rather, texts and passages often combine different structures and present information in different ways. Students in Cunningham’s study only read paragraphs that had been selected and coded for gist statements by the investigator, another researcher, and graduate students in reading education programs. Cunningham did not explain how students might fare with paragraphs that do not appear to have a gist or assessment passages that are not designed to match certain criteria. One of the challenges teachers face is to provide meaningful instruction and strategy implementation that can be used with a variety of the texts assigned in the curriculum. Also, Cunningham did not evaluate the content or guide students in *how* to write more concise retellings. Rather, students decided at some point that their writing was satisfactory and moved on to the next sentence. In addition, there was no explanation of how the researcher responded when students composed incorrect statements.

Although students learn through GIST to compose sentences, it may be difficult for younger students to discriminate between retelling all or miscellaneous portions of a text and what is essential to understanding the passage. It seems important to help students identify why they should include certain text before composing a summary. Therefore modeling how to select content includes explicit strategy instruction not only in the procedure, but also in evaluating the content of the summary - - an element missing from the GIST procedure. Therefore, in the current study GIST was modified to include explicit strategy instruction on what information is included to avoid writing 15 word sentences that simply list any information. In addition, the GIST was modified to allow students to write more than one sentence using 15 words and combine GIST statements for multi-paragraph passages into a final summary.

Cue word summarization. The second approach, Cue Word Summarization (CWS) attempts to simplify Cunningham's procedure to address the limitations mentioned earlier and with an eye to developing a procedure that is more accessible for younger students. In CWS, students select words from selections that are critical to understanding the gist of a piece. Instead of first generating sentences, students are guided to generate a list of single words from the text that are critical to understanding the passage. The teacher and students discuss and evaluate what words to include before composing summaries. These words will then form the basis for generating sentences and composing a summary. Instead of shortening and eliminating sentences that may not include critical information, the CWS procedure instructs students to first identify important words and then construct brief sentences that include only essential information using those words that carry the meaning of the text. The model uses a

gradual release approach to instruction. Students learn and practice the approach as a group and gradually attempt the procedure independently with other texts.

The CWS procedure also guides students through six steps. First, the teacher selects paragraphs from classroom expository texts with five to seven sentences. Next students read the first sentence and discuss if there are any words important to understanding the passage. If so, these are listed. The teacher encourages students to evaluate and substantiate why a given word is selected. In the third step, students repeat the process in small groups of selecting words for each sentence with the explanation that not every sentence may include important words. Next, the students present their lists and discuss why words were selected and agree on a final group list for the passage. In the fifth step, students are asked to cover the passage and use the list to orally summarize the passage in their own words, using the cue words from their list to guide the summarization. As a group, students take turns and share summarizations orally for peer review. In the final step, students individually use the list to write a summary of the passage. After multiple sessions and practice in this manner, students use the procedure independently for similar length but novel expository passages.

Although the modified GIST procedure for this study and CWS are summarization strategies, the instruction differs on several points. In contrast to GIST, CWS includes explicit strategy instruction in discerning between important and extraneous information. The CWS approach does not require using words or distilling every sentence if the information is deemed trivial. The end result for CWS is also a summarization of the entire passage as opposed to a single GIST statement with a word limit. The modified GIST procedure guides students to write statements in one or two

sentences that summarize important information. Although both procedures provide explicit strategy instruction and gradual release for younger students, they differ in key aspects. This study compared the approaches and how well students summarized information text with explicit strategy instruction.

Research Question

This study compared the modified GIST and the CWS approaches to summarization instruction. It addressed the following question:

- How does third graders' performance on written summarization of information text passages compare across two instructional conditions (GIST and CWS) and a comparison group receiving regular content area instruction?

Summary

Educators have moved away from viewing reading comprehension as a set of late-developing, fragmented skills, to a multidimensional and sociocognitive perspective of literacy. Research has revealed that young children are capable of complex thinking, and comprehension is now considered an integral component of early literacy instruction (Applebee, Langer, & Mullis, 1988; Morrow, 1997). The reading standards recommended on a national level as well as state and local curricula call for improving students' reading comprehension with a variety of strategies (MSDE VSC, 1997-2010; Snow et al., 1998). Even primary-grade children are expected to summarize text and use information in multiple tasks (MCPS, 2010).

Summarizing text is one of the most effective comprehension strategies for students in the primary grades (National Institute of Child Health and Human

Development, 2000) and an effective way to learn from information text (Dole, Duffy, Roehler, & Pearson, 1991; Pressley & Woloshyn, 1995). In addition, much research supports the explicit instruction of such strategies as critical to developing skilled readers (Baker, 1984, Duke, 2000; Hare & Borchardt, 1984, Pressley, Mc Donald, et al. 2000; Williams et al., 2005). Tierney and Cunningham (1984) noted more than two decades ago that it is "...logical to assume that learning to summarize texts might actually cause readers to be able to allocate their attention better to important information when reading" (p. 632). The limited research with elementary children points to the need for instruction that develops students' strategies for learning from content texts. This study compared instructional approaches specifically designed to help younger students independently summarize information text.

Chapter II: Review of the Literature

Introduction

Several factors are related to the complex process of summarization and its rare inclusion in elementary instruction. This chapter begins with a discussion of the importance of comprehension research, the debate regarding reading to learn versus learning to read, and how these issues might influence reading comprehension instruction in relation to students' reading development. Following these sections is a more detailed analysis of summarization instruction as a component of comprehension. The next section reviews the influence of explicit strategy instruction on students' comprehension and their ability to effectively use reading strategies. The chapter concludes with a review of how information texts are used in primary-grade classrooms and how summarization strategy instruction might improve students' comprehension of these texts. The consideration of these factors -- comprehension research in the primary grades; when to introduce comprehension instruction with informational texts; summarization instruction; explicit strategy instruction; and use of information texts -- led to the development of CWS and GIST as summarization strategies appropriate for elementary students.

Comprehension Research in the Primary Grades

Reading comprehension is considered an integral part of elementary reading instruction. Consistent across reading research is the perception of strategic behavior as malleable and responsive to instruction. As students move from competence to expertise with strategies, subject-matter and strategic knowledge influence complex tasks (Alexander et al., 1998; Ogle & Blachowicz, 2002). Students must learn, however, how

to employ strategies efficiently and articulate that knowledge (NRP, 2000; Pressley & Block, 2002; Trabasso & Bouchard, 2002). Across several studies, successful comprehension instruction appears to include (a) modeling and scaffolding, (b) supportive coaching from the teacher, (c) guided practice as the student moves toward independent strategy application, and (d) opportunity for extended practice (Alexander et al., 1998; Pressley & Block, 2002).

One point of agreement among researchers is that classroom reading instruction often includes little or no explicit strategy instruction. Many students do not receive the procedural and conditional knowledge necessary to use comprehension strategies. Adding to this complexity is research documenting that comprehension depends on multiple elements and therefore necessitating instruction in multiple strategies. Students who receive instruction in multiple strategies improve their reading comprehension and have more consistent reading performance (Gambrell, Morrow, & Pressley, 2003; Pressley, 2000).

Central to the development of coherent research and effective instruction is a synthesis of what is known about children's reading comprehension in the elementary years (Tierney & Cunningham, 1984; Pearson & Fielding, 1991). Subsumed by this broad knowledge base is a focus on how students comprehend different types or genres of books (Smolkin & Donovan, 2002). In particular, recent research indicates an increase in the amount of information text read and recommended for the primary grades (Dreher, 2000; Dreher, 1993; Duke, 2000; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; Strickland, 1995; Venezky, 2000). In order to address national calls for improving students' comprehension of content, researchers have examined the development of comprehension during the

elementary years and how students construct knowledge in subject matter discourses such as social studies that are typically viewed as separate contexts from reading instruction (Ogle & Blachowicz, 2002; Durkin, 1978-79).

Ogle and Blachowicz (2002) acknowledged that "discrepancies between current practice and what teachers could do" to promote increased reading of informational texts is a problem across *all* grades (p. 259). They addressed four questions: (a) Why is there a need for greater emphasis on informational reading? (b) What are the research-based principles and practices for informational reading? (c) What does research-based instruction look like? and (d) What research would move us forward?

In response to the first question the authors returned to Durkin's (1978-79) study noting the lack of comprehension instruction with informational texts and extend this to include differences in teachers' implementation of strategies and vocabulary instruction as key difficulties associated with informational reading. Next, the research based principles Ogle and Blachowicz cited include active engagement, attention to text organization, and reading strategically as central components of instruction. This instruction is characterized by setting the stage for engaged reading, explicitly building a knowledge of external and internal text structures, and providing explicit strategy instruction that may include strategies. The authors concluded by summarizing issues that need to be addressed in future research to include taking a broader view of what constitutes "text," how students can be supported using multiple texts, studying dilemmas presented in real classrooms, and a focus on vocabulary in informational reading. Ogle and Blachowicz (2002) noted that readers construct mental representations of text during reading, necessitating a knowledge of diverse structures across informational texts. In this

same review, however, they pointed out that studies focused on helping students identify structures produced limited gains. It appears more beneficial to work with the texts used in schools and help students learn strategies to learn from informational texts.

Investigations of how elementary students comprehend content area materials have been sparse in the literature as literacy research rarely addresses *how* a text is situated in a given disciplinary structure (VanSledright & Kelly, 1998; Wineburg, 1991), or the cognitive demands of different rhetorical patterns in text (Chambliss & Calfee, 1998). The limited studies addressing comprehension of content area texts have generally included students in the middle grades, high school, or college years (Feathers 2002). In the few studies addressing younger children's comprehension of content texts, the results replicate the difficulty encountered by older students.

Dreher and Sammons (1994) investigated fifth graders' independent ability to answer questions using a familiar textbook. All of the questions included terms that could be located in the index, yet only about 30% of students could even answer two of three questions (Dreher, 2002). Most of the unsuccessful students did not use the index or had trouble with basic search tasks such as selecting a proper term or following alphabetical order in the index. A small collection of work with high school and college students conducted by several researchers provide equally dismal accounts of students' abilities to use features of content texts (Dreher, 2002; Dreher & Guthrie, 1990). This corpus of work provides evidence that many students could benefit from explicit reading comprehension strategy instruction (Armbruster & Armstrong, 1993; Duffy, 2002) with different types of text as recommended by several groups of researchers (NRP, 2000; RAND Reading Study Group, 2002; Snow et al., 1998).

Reading to Learn versus Learning to Read

Although comprehension instruction is generally viewed as an important component of reading development, questions remain among researchers and teachers as to when and how younger students should acquire such skills. In particular, for those students in the primary grades, is it developmentally appropriate to introduce strategies and different types of text when students are still acquiring basic skills such as decoding and fluency? Considerable evidence supports the conclusion that literacy instruction largely involves stories. Venezky (2000) concluded, “literacy instruction in schools concentrates almost exclusively on fictional texts and literary appreciation” (p. 22), and Trabasso (1994) estimated that narrative materials comprise up to 90% of what elementary school children read. Yet for years educators have argued that reading instruction should include more than stories. In 1991 Pappas published an article with a title that clearly stated her view: “Fostering full access to literacy by including information books.” In the same year, Hiebert (1991) and Sanacore (1991) argued for both stories and information books beginning in the first years of schooling. The Committee on Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children specifically states that young students should have instruction in reading comprehension strategies throughout development (Snow, Burns, & Griffith, 1998) and the National Reading Panel asserts that without instruction in these strategies with fiction and nonfiction, students will fail to develop critical reading skills (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000).

Research with very young students provides some evidence that children may benefit from interactions with information texts even in the early stages of learning to

read (Dreher, 2000). In a study of kindergartners' pretend readings, Pappas (1993) investigated children's ability to sustain distinctive textual properties of narrative and information books. Specifically, Pappas (1993) examined how children handled co-referentiality in stories versus co-classification in information books, and differences in the acquisition of lexical items in the two genres. The results showed that children successfully reenacted both genres and employed a variety of strategies to understand the discourse properties.

Researchers elicited pretend readings of an information text and story from students in October and January. Each set of story/information books included pictures; however, the text was central to overall meaning. As discussed by Pappas (1993), stories depicted interpersonal understandings, or how characters' goals interrelated and how characters pursued the various goals. In contrast, information books made general statements and did not include specific characters or elements of story grammar such as goals or interpersonal relationships. Researchers read both texts to children individually before eliciting pretend readings. This procedure occurred three days in a row, and students generated pretend readings of the texts during every session.

For the analysis of the October readings, Pappas (1993) focused on coreferentiality in stories versus co-classification in information books, a major discourse feature that distinguishes between the genres (Pappas, 1993). For example, in narrative discourse authors frequently use referents such as pronouns to refer to characters whereas information book authors use plurals to introduce a class of objects or animals. T-units were the criteria for parsing students' transcripts into clause units. A T-unit is a single independent clause and any subordinate clauses related to the independent clause.

Pappas (1993) found that students successfully reenacted both genres; however, their discourse strategies changed over the three readings to incorporate the textual features in each book. In the narrative text, children struggled most to maintain co-referentiality at the beginning of the book and later when numerous characters arrive simultaneously in the story. Ambiguity in these instances decreased across readings. A similar pattern occurred with the information texts. Several students initially treated an animal as a character in a story and occasionally referred to a picture instead of text. Again, these difficulties diminished over repeated readings. Overall, children handled the co-referentiality in narrative text and co-classification in information books equally well.

In January, Pappas (1993) examined students' lexical knowledge across the genres. Once again, children successfully acquired lexical knowledge across both genres, particularly the more technical vocabulary in information books. Students often used synonyms, substitutions, and made-up words to approximate meaning in the texts as they tackled unknown vocabulary on initial readings (Pappas, 1993). By the third reading, most children used the same vocabulary and structure of clauses in their pretend readings appropriate for both genres.

Pappas' (1993) research highlights one of the difficulties encountered when working with young children. Given the repeated exposure to texts, it is possible children recalled text structure from memory or repeated practice with texts. Review of changes in the students' readings, however, provide some evidence for children's developing understanding of both genres. The children seemed aware of differences between the two discourse properties and reenacted texts to reflect this understanding. Moreover, the range of strategies employed by students suggests that learning the distinctive features of

the genres is a constructive process (Pappas, 1993). Again, although the recall of different structures contributes to knowledge of how students recall structures, the study does not explore text features beyond the connected prose. Further examination of this knowledge is critical to understanding children's approaches to different tasks and diverse texts. Again, the research did not include any explanation of students' affective stance or interest in nonfiction texts on an independent level. If students can handle nonfiction, it is equally important to examine if students choose to engage with these texts outside of instruction.

Exposure to diverse texts may also affect the level of knowledge students have about different texts. Duke and Kays (1998) examined how young children's knowledge of information book language developed when classroom teachers incorporated these texts into daily read-alouds and the classroom library. Working in one kindergarten classroom, the researchers asked children to pretend read one unfamiliar information book and one narrative story at the start of the school year and again after three months of increased exposure to information books through teacher read alouds. The topic of the information text, however, was familiar to students. The book also had many features of information text, including an index, picture glossary, and photographs. In contrast to narrative texts, the information book was not temporally ordered nor goal-based; rather the photographs were organized by topic. The illustrations did not include a single person who appeared on more than one page that might lead students to develop a "character." The researchers covered the running text and provided children with a topical title that is typical of information books.

The researchers followed the same procedure for the narrative text, counterbalancing the order of genres presented to each child. The narrative titles contained critical features of the genre; notably each story was temporally based, goal-based, had a single protagonist, and make-believe elements. Again researchers covered the running text and only told children the title of the story. Every student gave pretend readings of both genres during one-on-one sessions with a researcher.

Between the data collection sessions, the children received increased exposure to expository texts. The teacher conducted daily read alouds of both genres on a near-daily basis. In all, students heard approximately twenty-five information books during the intervention, balanced by roughly the same number of narrative read-alouds. Students could explore the fictional narrative and information read-aloud titles in many “book boxes” during free periods. At the listening center, tapes of both genres provided children another opportunity to listen to the information books or stories.

Transcripts of children’s pretend readings varied in length in September and December. As well, students’ use of verb and noun constructions increased in December. The researchers identified two base units of analysis to control for length variation and measure actual changes in students’ knowledge of information book language. First Duke and Kays divided the readings into intonation units or units of speech indicated by a pause when reading aloud. Second, to ensure comparability across transcripts, researchers coded the frequency of occurrence of a feature as a percentage of total constructions of that type.

The researchers analyzed the 25 information books read aloud to students for strong linguistic features associated with information books. Literature on report,

expository, and information book language formed the scale for selecting ten features used for analysis in this study. Students' pretend readings were then coded for each feature and overall noun and verb constructions. Duke and Kays found features of information language in children's pretend readings of information books in September and December, yet few readings of the fictional narratives contained elements of information book features. In December, the researchers recorded a marked increase in the use of information book features and among more children. After three months of exposure to more information texts, kindergartners produced pretend readings with more timeless verb constructions, generic noun constructions, repetition of the topical theme, information book openings, classificatory structures, and comparative/contrastive structures.

Although the single classroom in Duke and Kays' study represented a small sample and no comparison group, the results suggested that kindergartners rapidly acquire information book language. Furthermore, the students' pretend readings reflected more information book language after a limited amount of exposure to these texts. The researchers did not find the same increases in information book language in the students' pretend readings of fictional narratives. Finally, the researchers' observational data showed that young children interacted voluntarily and spontaneously with information books. The students selected information books during free periods, discussed information texts with peers, and requested information books for read-alouds. Although this study cannot provide causal evidence between read-alouds and children's changes in book knowledge, the results suggest that young children can develop skills with information books.

Smolkin and Donovan (2002) asserted that important points in decades of reading research seem to be absent from present-day lines of inquiry, namely that comprehension is developmental in nature and the type of comprehension work that needs to be done at different grade levels is a critical question. The authors summarized a fair amount of research across disciplines to document what is known about the cognitive shift that young children make around the age of 5-7. Central to the researchers' discussion is a differentiation in the paths to knowledge (knowledge systems) or processes that underlie language acquisition and learning.

Smolkin and Donovan (2002) cited Gee's (1990) description of these processes as *acquisition* that results from exposure and practice without formal instruction and *learning* that is a conscious effort that occurs with a teacher and further notes that the processes mix and the balance differs across developmental stages. This background is the context for the authors' claim that there is "likely a 'better' time to begin actual comprehension strategy instruction, telling, or learning, perhaps during children's second-grade year as children's ability to reason multidimensionally grows closer to adult forms (p.143)."

Based on the cited research, Donovan and Smolkin asserted that social contexts and situations shape children's cognition and comprehension acquisition should have two key elements: *learning to reason with others* and practice of desired behaviors must occur in a *variety of contexts*. Given that some students are not yet reading independently, the authors proposed interactive read-alouds of a variety of texts. This model is explained with anecdotes from the authors' use of read-alouds in two classrooms (differing in SES). If students are not independently reading text the authors argue that strategies and

interaction with different texts can be accomplished with read-alouds and modeling. In the current study, all the passages were read aloud to ensure that students did not struggle with decoding or fluency.

The discussion above supports a wider body of evidence, which suggests that strategy use is more than applying a teacher-directed strategy. Rather, students can learn to independently select and use "sophisticated processes *appropriately*" (Pressley, Symons, McGoldrick, & Snyder, 1995, p. 96). This process is likely to increase in complexity as student progress through school and read texts across many disciplines with different teachers for each subject. Little is known about how elementary students develop the skill of critical reading of information texts (VanSledright, 2002).

Summarization Instruction

Summarization is generally discussed as a factor of comprehension that warrants pedagogical interest (Brown, Day, & Jones, 1983; Hare & Borchardt, 1984). Skilled readers possess the ability to read text, delineate succinct points, then summarize and use the important elements for a purpose (Trabasso & Bouchard, 2002). Simply recalling parts of a story or text, however, does not implicitly mean a child can summarize a text. Also, the ability to use summarization as a reading strategy does not seem to develop intuitively as students get older. Researchers note that students across a range of grades seem to lack the ability to analyze text and summarize information independently (Brown & Smiley, 1978; Duffy, 2002; Friend, 2000/2001).

In an early study of summarization skills, Brown, Day, and Jones (1983) presented six folk stories to fifth-, seventh-, and eleventh-graders. The researchers divided the stories into idea units whereby each unit represented a single idea on a single

line. Students rated the importance of each unit on a four-point scale to the overall theme. Subjects took home two stories with instructions to learn all the text, even details, and to keep track of the time spent learning each story.

Approximately a week later, the students wrote down all they could remember of the stories by pretending to write a summary for a newspaper. Researchers told students that a summary was a "...short version of the story using the smallest number of words" (p. 971). Then students received papers with 40 spaces on the bottom and told to reduce their summaries for the editor to 40 words or less. They could refer to the stories, use scratch paper, and the top of the paper. In the final phase, the procedure was repeated, but students could use only 20 words. After writing the summaries, the researchers asked the students to divide the second story's idea units into four piles based on how they rated the importance of the units.

Brown et al. (1983) scored the summaries for correct recall of units at each level of importance. Getting students to reach an 80% recall at each level was not possible for any grade level, with seventh graders failing to reach an adequate recall level. Students displayed, however, consistency in their ratings and inclusion of units in summaries. In particular, the youngest group was most attentive to level 4 units (most important) and older students had finer degrees of importance.

There are several limitations to this study. First, Brown et al. (1983) used narrative folk stories. Thus, results cannot be generalized to information text. The researchers also manipulated the text to contain one idea unit per sentence, however, the texts students read in classrooms are not limited to one idea unit per sentence. Finally, students received general directions for reducing their summaries to 40 and 20 words, but

the instruction was not explicit in terms of how to determine what information was important or why one would select certain words and eliminate others from the final summary.

Overall, fifth graders could write a summary of lengthy text, but with some obvious developmental differences from older students. The older students were better able to plan and were more sensitive to gradations of importance between idea units. The ability to summarize went beyond recalling information to include the judgment, effort, and ability to succinctly phrase text. Their results imply that younger students need instruction to refine the ability to summarize and move beyond simply recalling stories or text. If students receive instruction in summarization strategies in the younger grades, could the ability to summarize replace students' inclination to copy text (Brown & Smiley, 1977) and result in summaries in their own words? Pressley (2002), Pressley and Block (2002), and Snow et al. (1998) all noted that summarization instruction is necessary and that that primary-grade children can produce written summaries with developmentally appropriate text and explicit strategy instruction.

Explicit Strategy Instruction: A Feature of Comprehension and Summarization Research

Direct instruction seems a logical way to assist children in learning comprehension strategies (Duffy, 2002; Hare & Borchardt, 1984; Pressley, 2002). As students move from competence to expertise with strategies, subject-matter and strategic knowledge influence complex tasks (Alexander, Graham, & Harris, 1998). Effective comprehension instruction includes (a) explicit modeling and scaffolding, (b) supportive coaching from the teacher, (c) guided practice as the student moves toward independent

strategy application, and (d) opportunity for extended practice (Alexander et al., 1998; Guthrie, & Wigfield, 1999; Snyder, & Pressley, 1995). This process of systematic strategy instruction builds children's background knowledge, concepts about books, language facility, and vocabulary, through scaffolded experiences with a wide range of reading materials (Dole, Duffy, Roehler, & Pearson, 1996.)

Although strategies are hallmarks of multidimensional reading approaches, students appear to need help locating facts and learning *how* to use the structure and organization of a text (Dreher, 2002; Ogle & Blachowicz, 2002). Explicit explanation and modeling is most effective when followed by coaching in which students receive encouragement during attempts to employ new strategies (Alexander et al., 1998; Pearson & Fielding, 1991; Pressley, 2002; Pressley & Block, 2002; Tierney & Cunningham, 1984). As noted in reviews by Duffy (2002) and Smolkin and Donovan (2002), interactions with the teacher provided valuable feedback and contribute to students' growing competence with strategies, variations in text, and text structure.

Continued guided practice in which the teacher gradually provides less support encourages students to independently select and use strategies in different contexts (Ogle & Blachowicz, 2002; Smolkin & Donovan, 2002). The process of gradual release from dependency on the teacher builds children's background knowledge, concepts about books, language facility, and vocabulary, through scaffolded experiences with a wide range of reading materials (Pressley & Block, 2002; Smolkin & Donovan, 2002). This active participation in literacy events improves children's knowledge and ability to comprehend text (Pressley, 2000).

The ability to independently summarize text requires that students know how to

identify and organize information (Friend, 2001; RAND Reading Study Group, 2002). This process proves difficult for students well into middle, high, and secondary school (Hill, 1991; Pressley & Woloshyn, 1995; Winograd, 1984). Many researchers described a lack of explicit strategy instruction as a key factor in students' comprehension problems (Duke & Pearson, 2002; Pressley, Wharton-McDonald, Mistretta-Hampston, & Echevarria, 1998; Taylor, Clark, & Walpole, 2000). Research relevant to this problem suggests that children need rich, cohesive, and supportive strategy instruction that provides modeling, practice, and time engaged with text (Allington & Baker, 2007; Pressley & El-Dinary, 1997). This recommendation is a common theme across comprehension and summarization research.

Finally, it appears that acquisition of complex strategies is a lengthy process (Pressley, 2000). Opportunities to practice strategies in meaningful contexts are critical to independent application (Duffy, 2002; Trabasso & Bouchard, 2002). Recent research of comprehension instruction reveals that successful outcomes require more time than brief units and consideration of the many dimensions of reading such as word level skills, text structure, self-monitoring, summarizing, etc. (Pearson & Fielding, 1991; Pressley, 2002; Pressley, 2000; Tierney & Cunningham, 1984). An important task for teachers is the consideration of explicit strategy instruction and how best to integrate this with the texts students use everyday.

Information Texts in the Elementary Years

In the primary grades, children are still learning to read proficiently while encountering academic content, and this process contributes to the controversy over the types of text that promote literacy development (Dreher, 2000; Duke & Kays, 1998). The

majority of research on early literacy acquisition includes narrative texts as the primary reading material based on the belief that young children learn best from stories (Pappas, 1993). Debate over what constitutes developmentally appropriate reading material for young children is due in small part to limited research on students' reading patterns and the literacy instruction provided to students in different content areas.

Given the increase in content texts and mandated assessments to gauge content reading skills, several researchers speculate that exposure to expository texts in the primary grades might influence the difficulty many children encounter with content reading materials around the fourth grade when content reading demands increase (Caswell & Duke, 1998; Hiebert & Fisher, 1990). Many factors contribute to the difficulty associated with determining the influence of expository texts on young children's literacy development. The limited number of studies related to exposition and young children use different terms to characterize *exposition* and various analysis procedures for text structure. For example, many texts in the primary grades are short and informational texts often have narrative elements. Biographies and expository texts that include narrative characteristics are then classified in research by various genre terms with little consistency. Other texts may be fiction but centered on a topic like baseball that students classify as nonfiction. This confusion between genre and topic is one element that confounds research results about children's reading diets and preferences.

In many classrooms, genres or topics not typically emphasized in the primary grades, such as information or expository texts, may appeal to many students (Dreher, 2000). Work by numerous researchers provides evidence that integrating reading and content area subjects has positive cognitive and affective outcomes for students (Baker,

& Saul, 1994; Guthrie et al., 1998; Morrow, Pressley, Smith, & Smith, 1997). The instructional processes presented here—diverse texts, and strategy instruction are a couple characteristics of classrooms that facilitate engagement (Guthrie, & Wigfield, 1999). Across the studies presented, the combination of these processes impacts students' engagement, which produces positive outcomes in reading achievement and science. Based on the literature, good strategy instruction with informational texts can improve students' use of reading strategies and has a positive effect on engagement (Guthrie et al., 1998; Morrow, 1992; Morrow et al., 1997).

Instructional paradigms that combine interesting content and reading literature with strategy instruction provide evidence of the complementary role these processes play in the acquisition of information and reading achievement (Freppon, & Dahl, 1998; Guthrie et al., 1998; Pressley, 1998). Therefore, research of integrated approaches to reading instruction are more common in today's classrooms. Typically these programs use authentic literature, or single-authored trade books as the primary literature for instruction combined with explicit strategy instruction (Baumann, & Ivey, 1997; Guthrie et al., 1998; Morrow et al., 1997). In these approaches, diverse texts engage students with real literature and provided greater opportunities to learn independent reading strategies.

Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI), an integrated program investigated by Guthrie and colleagues (1998) provides empirical support that diverse texts and strategy instruction are influential processes on students' achievement. Students in CORI classrooms received strategy instruction with authentic literature. Teachers assessed students' ability to search for information, comprehend information text, interpret literary text, and self-monitor (Guthrie et al., 1998). This information helped

teachers model strategies in small and whole groups based on students' needs. Students receiving CORI demonstrated greater knowledge and application of reading strategies, gained more conceptual knowledge in science, and had more success with conceptual transfer tasks (Guthrie et al., 1998).

Morrow, Pressley, Smith, and Smith (1997) found that integrating narrative texts with science instruction increased students' literacy achievement, use of literature, and attitudes toward the literacy and science programs. The researchers proposed that children's literature had fewer restrictions and could provide children with insight beyond factual accounts. The treatment in the study used a "...*balanced approach* where classrooms used integrated language arts strategies concurrently with explicit textbook instruction (p.58)." The literacy measures were curriculum-tied including story retelling, story rewriting, and comprehension tests. Students in the integrated science/literature group performed significantly better on measures of story retelling, rewriting, and comprehension than literature-only classrooms or comparison classes. On the standardized test of science facts and vocabulary, the literature/science group scored statistically significantly better than the literature-only group and the comparison group.

The CORI program and the Morrow et al. (1997) study described above provide strong evidence that interesting texts and strategy instruction are powerful, instructional processes. As well, these two factors are punctuated by evidence of teacher involvement in the classroom that highlights the interaction and multidimensional aspect of literacy. Ascertaining student needs and responding with strategy instruction that addresses weaknesses in different contexts represents the importance of teacher involvement.

Despite competing definitions and criteria for information texts, one factor remains the same. Students encounter different task demands with information texts, and as students move into the upper grades these demands are weighted more heavily toward information text. Even the Internet is predominately information text (Kamil, 1998). The strategies used for reading fiction do not necessarily translate to the demands of information. The bottom line seems to be one of instruction where students receive "...early instructional experiences that go beyond stories to include non-narrative books and materials that provide information (Dreher, 2000, p. 69)."

Summary

The research discussed above highlights the importance of summarization in relation to comprehension. Primary-grade students continue to struggle with comprehension strategies -- particularly summarization tasks. The limited research on this topic led to recommendations to include summarization instruction in the elementary years (National Institute of Child and Health and Human Development, 2000). A common thread throughout this corpus of research is the role of explicit strategy instruction (Allington & Baker, 2007). Pressley (2000) noted that explicit strategy instruction is crucial and that students must have adequate time to practice new strategies. In addition to explicit instruction, the texts used in classrooms affect instruction. Students who have had a heavy diet of fiction text may need explicit help identifying when task demands shift in information text (Williams et al., 2005). The research on summarization in the primary grades is small in scope, however, there is evidence this strategy is important for comprehension. This study investigated explicit strategy instruction in written summarization for primary-grade students.

Chapter III: Methodology

This purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of two approaches to teaching third-grade students how to summarize expository text. This research addressed the following question:

- How does third graders' performance on written summarization of expository text passages compare across two instructional treatment conditions (GIST and CWS) and a comparison group receiving regular content area instruction?

Design

This study used a quasi-experimental design to compare three groups of third graders on measures of their ability to produce written summaries for informational text. Two treatment groups received either GIST or CWS, while a third group (using the school district's curriculum-based content instruction) served as the comparison group. The groups were randomly assigned to one of the treatment groups or the comparison group. All of the groups received instruction using the textbook and passages for the curricular units outlined in the teachers' long-term planning goals. In other words, I agreed to use the information texts and cover the district curriculum for that time period. The teachers provided me with copies of passages and the textbook for the planned lessons. The comparison classroom teacher followed her planned lessons and I used the information texts for explicit strategy instruction in the treatment classrooms. During the sessions the principal visited and completed an observation checklist once in each treatment classroom. Oral and written summaries were the primary data source, but were

supplemented with instructional checklists, student checklists, and session notes and materials from the classroom contexts.

Participants

The participants in this study were third-graders in a large metropolitan public school district in Southern California. The unified school district consists of twelve elementary schools and one early childhood center. The number of elementary students in the district averages around 3,200. This study took place in one of the larger elementary schools with an average of 675 students yearly. The principal and second-grade classroom teachers randomly assigned the students for third-grade to ensure that groups are heterogeneous, diverse, gender-balanced, and reflect similar means on a state mandated standardized measure used to evaluate public schools statewide. Second language learners were equally dispersed across classrooms. All the classrooms were gender-balanced and reflected the school demographics.

The school has a diverse student demographic profile. School data indicate that the student population is 53% Hispanic, 31% White, 7% African American, 7% Asian, and 1% American Indian. More than half of the students are eligible for free and reduced lunch with 60% of the population classified as economically disadvantaged using criteria outlined by the California Academic Performance Index.

Three third-grade classrooms participated in this study: one classroom received instruction in the CWS strategy, one classroom received GIST instruction, and the remaining classroom followed the curriculum-based instruction for the district. The principal initially asked for volunteer teachers for the study. Due to scheduling and how teachers share content, three classrooms with similar schedules were ideally suited to the

study and all agreed to participate. An initial meeting was scheduled with the principal and teachers. The principal randomly selected a name from slips of paper to determine the comparison teacher. A coin was flipped to determine which classroom received the CWS or GIST treatment. The comparison group teacher was not present at the informational meeting but agreed with the proceedings. She was very supportive and requested some mini-sessions on the strategies when the study concluded.

Instructional Procedures

The two treatment groups received instruction two times a week in the afternoon. The CWS group primarily had instruction on Mondays and Tuesdays. The GIST treatment group had instruction on Thursdays and Fridays. I observed the comparison group in the afternoon on Tuesdays and Thursdays. Occasionally this was modified for field trips and assemblies, but the sessions always occurred in the afternoon during scheduled Social Studies instruction. On two occasions there was a substitute in the GIST classroom. On one of those days the principal completed the teacher fidelity checklist. The second time was a substitute who followed the lesson and completed the checklist.

GIST. Instruction in the GIST procedure follows Cunningham's (1982) original study steps. The materials, however, are more recent publications that cover topics in the third-grade curriculum in the district in which the study occurred. Sample passages and summary statements appear in the materials section. The GIST procedure has six steps (Cunningham, 1982) that gradually lead students to independently produce gist statements. Students begin with paragraphs and move to lengthier passages. Table 1 lists the steps for the GIST procedure. These are reworded for brevity but adapted from Cunningham (1982).

Table 1: GIST Procedure

Step 1

Select paragraphs with three to five sentences that appear to have a gist and are at an appropriate level of difficulty.

Step 2

Present the first sentence to students on the chalkboard, overhead, or chart. On the board draw 15 blanks. Have students read the sentence and tell them to summarize the information in their own words in one sentence that uses 15 or fewer words.

Step 3

When students have finished reading the sentence, cover it from view. Ask students again to retell it in their own words in 15 or fewer words. Writing one word at a time, have the group dictate the statement and edit until complete. Students can view the paragraph again, but must dictate and edit from memory. This step is complete when students feel their statement is an accurate retelling, even if the sentence is an exact duplicate of the original text. The instructor reinforces the guidelines of using 15 or fewer words but does not evaluate content. Finally students compare their final statement with text.

Step 4

Uncover the first and second sentences and erase the first set of blanks. Present 15 new blanks ask them to read the sentences so they can write another statement that retells the first *two* sentences in their own words using 15 or fewer words.

Step 5

After reading the sentences, cover both and remind students that they are to compose a new statement that retells the information in 15 words or less. As a group, use the same means to construct a statement as in step 3.

Step 6

Repeat this procedure adding one sentence at a time until students have generated a statement of 15 or fewer words that they feel summarizes the paragraph. Use this strategy as many times as necessary until students are adept at producing statements for the paragraphs as a group. Then uncover an entire paragraph at the beginning of a lesson and have the class generate a statement for the whole paragraph without moving from sentence to sentence. When students are adept at producing statements for paragraphs as a group, ask students to do the procedure independently.

CWS. Instruction in CWS also has a set of guidelines to gradually lead students to independent production of summaries. Similar to the GIST procedure, students begin by summarizing paragraphs and move to full passages. Table 2 is the list of steps for the CWS procedure adapted from Gambrell and Dromsky (2000).

Table 2: Cue Word Summarization (CWS) Procedure

Step 1

Select text at an appropriate level for instruction that contains sufficient content for summarization. Paragraphs should have at least five sentences. The passages should have no less than three paragraphs.

Step 2

Ask students what the term *summary* means and how they would summarize a day at school. Record this brief summary on an overhead. Then ask students to point out the most important words in their description- those that “cue” a reader to significant events in the day. Specify and model that “cue” words are the most important content- without them a reader may not be able to construct meaning. A summary is a brief restatement of the most important content in a text.

Step 3

Present the first sentence of a paragraph of text. Discuss the individual words and whether any of them are critical to remembering the content. Have students highlight or circle words they think “cue” them to important content. Tell students to select no more than 2 words, but that there also may be sentences that do not contain important content.

Step 4

Repeat the above procedure for each sentence in the paragraph, and each subsequent paragraph for the passage.

Step 5

Direct students to look over the highlighted/circled words for the passage and use these to construct a vertical list. Without looking at the passage, model for students how the list can be used to summarize the content in their own words. Do this for the first paragraph. Ask students to volunteer and summarize the remaining paragraphs in their words, using the cue words. Record the summary on an overhead or chart. Evaluate whether the summary is brief (one paragraph) and contains important information.

Step 6

Select another passage and repeat the entire process as a group, allowing students to select all cue words and dictate the summary.

Step 7

Provide students with independent practice. Share summaries as a group and discuss cue word selection. Explicitly reiterate how the process can be used to summarize lengthy text and remember important content using their own words.

Appendix B provides an example of a passage and sample responses for CWS and GIST instruction with a small group of third graders. These examples were completed in a clinical instructional setting. These brief sessions were the basis for a pilot study of both procedures. Appendix A is a pilot study for the GIST and CWS procedures done in two third-grade classrooms. The pilot study helped establish the timeline, materials, and measures.

Instruction

I delivered instruction in summary strategies and summary composition in the GIST and CWS classrooms. As explained below, instructional checklists for each treatment (CWS and GIST), instructional session notes, and students' self-reported checklists from sessions supplemented summary performance data. This instruction occurred two times a week for six weeks. Pre- and post measures were administered one week prior and one week after the treatments. Instruction lasted approximately an hour in the afternoon. GIST and CWS groups alternated start times each afternoon.

I observed the comparison classroom twice a week, on different days than the treatment groups in the same afternoon time slot when the teacher was covering the same content. These sessions also lasted 45 minutes to an hour. In the comparison classroom, I made checklists of the instructional procedures and kept detailed transcripts with notes from each session. Appendix C includes all the transcripts from the comparison classroom. Table 3 provides an overview of the research study and procedures.

An effective comprehension instruction approach, and the one selected for this study, was the gradual-release model. I began teaching the strategies with explicit strategy instruction and explanations that clearly demonstrated the utility of an approach. In other words, the conditional knowledge was as important as the declarative and procedural knowledge about a strategy. This knowledge was reviewed at the start of every session. Instruction included explicit statements about when and why a strategy should be used for a particular reading or writing task. Gradually, children practiced the approach with less and less direct support. As students became proficient in the

application of the strategy, I continued to monitor progress and provided ample opportunity for transfer of the strategy to their assigned information texts in various contexts.

Table 3: Outline of Instruction

	Cue Word Summarization	GIST	Comparison
Week 1: Baseline Data collection *same passages: random order within classrooms	1 session-summary pre-measure	1 session-summary pre-measure	1 session-summary pre-measure
Week 2: Instruction	2 sessions: whole-group instruction with single paragraph passage	2 sessions: whole group writing of GIST statement for single paragraph	Observation and description of all writing tasks during instruction- 2 sessions
Week 3: Instruction	2 sessions: whole-group instruction with multiple paragraph passage	2 sessions: whole group writing of GIST statement for multi-paragraph passage	Observation and collection of any writing tasks: 2 sessions
Week 4: Instruction	Small group work summary writing for multi-paragraph passage: 2 sessions	Small group work GIST statement writing for multi-paragraph passage: 2 sessions	Observation and collection of any writing tasks: 2 sessions
Week 5: Instruction	Independent summary writing of single and multi-paragraph passages (one each): 2 sessions	Independent GIST statement writing of single and multi-paragraph passages (one each): 2 sessions	Observation of regular instruction and collection of writing if applicable
Week 6: Post-instruction Data collection	1 session-summary post-measures	1 session summary post-measures	1 session summary post-measures

Materials

The social studies curriculum for this school district was a softcover combined textbook and workbook. In addition, during this period of the year the teachers used Internet and trade book passages to cover content for a district assessment and science supplements. At the start of the study the teachers were guiding students to write research reports on animals and nearing the end of the third practice report. It was agreed that I would use the same materials and therefore the pre-measure was a tradebook passage and the post-measure was a passage from the textbook since the study spanned these two curricular units. Both covered informational text and were the same length. These passages focus on a single topic and are various lengths based on where they fall in the instructional timeline. Multiple sets are available for random presentation and analysis.

Passages for instruction were re-typed or presented on the document camera for student use and to provide the appropriate length paragraphs across groups. This also allowed students to highlight and mark information during explicit strategy instruction. Students were also allowed to mark and highlight their workbook passages. In addition I typed frames with lines for key words or GIST blanks for easy reference. These guided the students to focus on content as opposed to counting words. As instruction progressed, students did this independently on notebook paper and for the post-measure. I made copies of student work for the classroom teachers as requested.

Treatment Fidelity

To ensure treatment fidelity, the treatment classroom teachers completed instructional checklists for each session; I had the students complete checklists after the fourth session for independent work, and I kept research notes from each instructional session. My notes recorded significant comments by students as well as observations of students as they worked. For both treatments, the classroom teacher recorded the length of each session, attendance for students, and checked my instruction according to the criteria for GIST and CWS. Figures 1 and 2 are the checklists for each treatment. In addition, the principal conducted at least one review using the same checklist for each treatment. In the comparison classroom, I measured the length of instruction, noted attendance, and recorded the instruction for the same content.

In addition to these checklists, students provided self-reports on how they used the strategies. Figure 3 is a short list of the steps in GIST and CWS. Students checked that they completed each step and made a final comment to be submitted with the passage for each session. The student self-reports were only used when students independently construct summaries or completed parts of group sessions independently. As a result, in the first session, where I asked the groups to work together and craft summaries as a class, the students did not need to complete the self-report checklists. Figures 4-6 are samples of the CSW classroom teacher checklist, the GIST classroom teacher checklist, and student checklists respectively.

Figure 1: GIST Instructional Checklist

Date: _____

Start: _____ Finish: _____

Session # _____

Text: _____

- ☐ Introduction: Instructor explicitly states/restates the utility of summarization and when/why to use GIST.
- ☐ Passage: greater than or equal to 3 paragraphs; min. 5 sentences
- ☐ Passage read aloud or shared reading (independent sessions 7&8)
- ☐ Passage presented via Doc Cam/overhead/chart
- ☐ First sentence read and students asked to orally summarize sentence
- ☐ Sentence covered and 15 blanks presented; students asked to summarize first sentence in 15 or less words; recorded without alterations
- ☐ Students reference text but cover when summarizing
- ☐ Uncover text and reread sentences 1 and 2
- ☐ Present 15 new blanks
- ☐ Students asked again to summarize both sentences into 15 or fewer words.
- ☐ Exact procedure followed for each additional sentence/paragraph
 - ☐ # of sentences in 1st paragraph _____
 - ☐ # of sentences in 2nd paragraph _____
 - ☐ # of sentences in 3rd paragraph _____
 - ☐ # of sentences in 4th paragraph _____

*1st session: text generated by students recounting that day's events.

Comments/Notes (use back as necessary):

Figure 2: CWS Instructional Checklist

Date: _____

Start: _____ Finish: _____

Session # _____

Text: _____

- ☐ Introduction: Instructor explicitly states/restates the utility of summarization and when/why to use CWS.
- ☐ Passage: greater than or equal to 3 paragraphs; min. 5 sentences
- ☐ Passage read aloud or shared reading (independent sessions 7&8)
- ☐ Passage presented via Doc Cam/overhead/chart
- ☐ Examine first sentence and discuss words that carry meaning. Circle and/or highlight.
- ☐ Repeat word selection for each sentence in one paragraph
- ☐ List CW's for one paragraph on overhead/chart
- ☐ Generate summary statement using word list
- ☐ Students reference text but do not view during summary writing
- ☐ Repeat word selection and summary for each paragraph
of paragraphs _____
- ☐ Combine summary statements into one paragraph

*Session 1: No text. Select words from oral summary of day. See plan.

Comments/Notes (use back as necessary):

Figure 3: Student Self-Checklists

CWS

- ☐ I used 2-4 cue words from each paragraph.
- ☐ I used each highlighted cue word in my summary.
- ☐ My summary is short (about one sentence for each paragraph).
- ☐ I've included the **most important details**.
- ☐ I wrote in complete sentences.

How would you rate your summary?

Excellent

Good

OK

How much did CWS help you?

A lot

Some

Not much

GIST

- ☐ I used no more than 15 words for each sentence of text.
- ☐ When adding each additional sentence, I used no more than 15 words for each statement.
- ☐ For each paragraph, my GIST statement is 15 or less words.
- ☐ I wrote one GIST statement for each paragraph in my summary.
- ☐ I wrote in complete sentences.

Please rate your summary

Excellent

Good

OK

How much did GIST help you?

A lot

Some

Not much

Figure 4 Teacher Checklist CWS

CWS Instructional Checklist

Elementary

Date: 4-5-11

Start: 1:40

Finish: 2:40

Session # 3

VISIT 3/10

Text: Social Studies Textbook
CA History

- ☒ Introduction: Instructor explicitly states/restates the utility of summarization and when/why to use CWS.
- ☒ Passage: greater than or equal to 3 paragraphs; min. 5 sentences
- ☒ Passage read aloud or shared reading (independent sessions 7&8)
- ☒ Passage presented via Doc Cam/overhead/chart
- ☒ Examine first sentence and discuss words that carry meaning. Circle and/or highlight.
- ☒ Repeat word selection for each sentence in one paragraph
- ☒ List CW's for one paragraph on overhead/chart
- ☒ Generate summary statement using word list (orally first)
- ☐ Students reference text but do not view during summary writing
- ☐ Repeat word selection and summary for each paragraph
- ☐ # of paragraphs 3
- ☐ Combine summary statements into one paragraph

*Session 1: No text. Select words from oral summary of day. See plan.

Comments/Notes (use back as necessary):

Figure 5 Teacher Checklist GIST

GIST Instructional Checklist

Date: 4-8-11

Start: 10:25 Finish: 11:30

Session # 3

Text: Social Studies - North American Indians

- ☒ Introduction: Instructor explicitly states/restates the utility of summarization and when/why to use GIST.
- ☒ Passage: greater than or equal to 3 paragraphs; min. 5 sentences Social Studies - Indians
- ☒ Passage read aloud or shared reading (independent sessions 7&8)
- ☒ Passage presented via Doc Cam/overhead/chart
- ☒ First sentence read and students asked to orally summarize sentence
- ☒ Sentence covered and 15 blanks presented; students asked to summarize first sentence in 15 or less words; recorded without alterations
- ☒ Students reference text but cover when summarizing
- ☒ Uncover text and reread sentences 1 and 2
- ☒ Present 15 new blanks
- ☒ Students asked again to summarize both sentences into 15 or fewer words.
- ☐ Exact procedure followed for each additional sentence/paragraph
 - ☐ # of sentences in 1st paragraph 3
 - ☐ # of sentences in 2nd paragraph 6
 - ☐ # of sentences in 3rd paragraph 5
 - ☒ # of sentences in 4th paragraph

*1st session: text generated by students recounting that day's events.

Comments/Notes (use back as necessary):

I like the squeeze 😊

Figure 6 Student Checklists

GIST

- ☒ I used no more than 15 words for each sentence of text.
- ☒ When adding each additional sentence, I used no more than 15 words for each statement.
- ☒ For each paragraph, my GIST statement is 15 or less words.
- ☒ I wrote one GIST statement for each paragraph in my summary.
- ☒ I wrote in complete sentences.

Please rate your summary

Excellent Good OK

How much did GIST help you?

A lot Some Not much

NAME [REDACTED]

- ☒ I used 2-4 cue words from each paragraph.
- ☒ I used each highlighted cue word in my summary.
- ☒ My summary is short (about one sentence for each paragraph).
- ☒ I've included the **most important details**.
- ☒ I wrote in complete sentences.

How would you rate your summary?

Excellent Good OK

How much did CWS help you?

A lot Some Not much

NAME [REDACTED]

- ☒ I used 2-4 cue words from each paragraph.
- ☐ I used each highlighted cue word in my summary.
- ☒ My summary is short (about one sentence for each paragraph).
- ☐ I've included the **most important details**.
- ☒ I wrote in complete sentences.

How would you rate your summary?

Excellent Good OK

How much did CWS help you?

A lot Some Not much

Measures

The most common methods for assessing a student's ability to summarize include oral and written summaries of single or multi-paragraph passages. These are typically analyzed for inclusion of the main idea and important details as determined by an informal inventory, instructor, or published curriculum guide. More recently the use of rubrics provide a tool for coding and analyzing students' written pieces. Rubrics are currently used as one scoring method for state and local achievement tests (MCPS, 2010; MSA, 1997-2010).

For this study, a rubric served as the primary measure of written summarization skill. The rubric can be used with single or multi-paragraph passages. Scores on the rubric indicated how well a student identified important content and his/her ability to substantiate that with details from the text including cue words and the overall organization of the summary with respect to the original passage. The summarization processes identified by Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983) and processes outlined by the RAND Reading Study Group (2002) indicate that the reader interacts with the text and task and furthermore to produce a summary must identify important text information and transform or organize that into a succinct statement that does not copy the text (Friend, 2001).

A reading specialist and I considered the important elements based on the GIST study and CWS procedures and then discussed each level of the rubric. Following the pilot study, this rubric was revised to more specifically address three elements: textbook information, vocabulary, and organization. The rubric in the pilot study had five elements. It was determined that one element based on grammar was not a primary focus

and therefore eliminated. The other category, author's purpose, was reworded and combined with the current organization element to reflect whether or not students' summaries had a similar organization and sequence to the original text passage. These changes reduced some redundancy. We then randomly selected five GIST and five CWS pre- and post-test summaries to practice coding with the new rubric. Agreement was higher at around 93%. The reading specialist and I agreed that one difficulty was the issue of copied text. In cases where students had copied most or all of the text, they would naturally use the vocabulary but not necessarily due to the use of CWS or GIST. This discussion led to the inclusion of wording in the rubric about copying. Following this round of changes to the rubric we again coded 10 different GIST and CWS passages from the pilot study. The revised rubric was used by the raters to score previous student samples and to discuss any inconsistencies until we reached 100 percent agreement.

To increase sensitivity to the features of a summary, the rubric included individual scores for 3 types of information. The student's score is based on the degree to which the written summary includes these elements. A student can earn 0-5 points on the scale for each of three elements of their summary. For example, in the use of key vocabulary, students earn 0-5 points depending on the degree to which pre-identified vocabulary or cue words are included in their summary. A student who selects and uses all cue words would earn 5 points. For example, a student may score high in how well they use specific vocabulary, but lower in the organization. Instead of earning a single-digit overall score that can limit statistical procedures, this rubric has a 15-point range for more specific analysis of the summary. The breakdown of the rubric into three categories ensured that if profiles of the treatments did not differ in overall scores, there could be

differences for different variables in the rubric between groups. Table 4 is the scoring rubric for written summaries.

Table 4: Written Summary Scoring Rubric

Text Information and Details

5	4	3	2	1
Concise: Information and sig. details from the text present support the central information	Information with some details; minor changes from text; supporting details match key words	Primary information present but lacks text support and/or details central to passage	Some textual support or details but lacks main information presented in passage	Lacks information from passage- little to no support OR complete copying of passage

Vocabulary: Key Words

5	4	3	2	1
Uses all key words (of text vocabulary words) or significant number of voc if GIST	Almost all key words present	half of identified words used in summary (some vocabulary if GIST)	Few key words	No key words in summary OR obvious complete copying

Organizational Structure

5	4	3	2	1
Flow and writing mimic passage and sequence of information	Minor problems with logical order of information	Provides information but in random order	Tangential presentation of information; own information	No logical paragraph structure or obvious complete copying

Analysis

Performance on three aspects of summary writing was analyzed using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with one between-subjects measure (group: CWS, GIST, comparison) and one within-subjects measure (time: pre-post). Since I wanted to control for the experiment-wise error rate, and there is some intercorrelation among the three scores for summary writing, MANOVA is appropriate. I presented the pre- and post-writing passages for the summary measure to all groups to eliminate confounding and effects of the topic. In the pilot study these passages did not show statistically significant differences within- and between-groups. I conducted descriptive statistics for the coders' scores as well as inter-rater reliability measures. The same measures are provided for the pre- and post-test scores by subscale, group, and total scores by group. The findings from the measures described above are presented in the next chapter.

Chapter IV: Results

This study was conducted to examine the effect of two approaches for teaching third-grade students summarization skills using information text. The participants were randomly assigned to one of two treatment groups or a comparison group. Two independent raters conducted blind scoring of all (62) students' pre- and post –measures on the rubric subscale items: textbook information and details, vocabulary, and organization. Analyses were conducted to check agreement between raters' scores. These scores were then compared using a MANOVA with one between-group (group: CWS, GIST, comparison) measure and one within-group (time: pre-post) measure, and follow up tests as appropriate.

Descriptive Analyses

A total of 65 third-grade students participated in the study. Of those, three participants had missing data and were excluded from final analyses. As shown in Table 5, participants were fairly equally distributed between conditions: 32.3% in both the comparison and GIST conditions and 35.5% in the Cue Word Summarization (CWS) condition.

Table 5

Frequencies and Percentages of Group Variable

	<i>n</i>	%
Group		
Comparison	20	32.3
CWS	22	35.5
GIST	20	32.3

As shown in Table 6, a reading specialist and I scored all treatment and comparison participants' pre- and post-test summaries on textbook information, vocabulary, and organization scores on a five-point scale. The first rater's pre-test textbook information scores ranged between 1 and 2, with an average pre-test textbook information score of 1.45 ($SD = .50$), the pre-test vocabulary scores also ranged between 1 and 2, with an average pre-test vocabulary score of 1.74 ($SD = .44$), and the pre-test organization scores also ranged between 1 and 2, with an average pre-test organization score of 1.61 ($SD = .49$). The second rater's pre-test textbook information scores ranged between 1 and 2, with an average pre-test textbook information score of 1.56 ($SD = .50$), the pre-test vocabulary scores also ranged between 1 and 3, with an average pre-test vocabulary score of 1.77 ($SD = .49$), and the pre-test organization scores also ranged between 1 and 2, with an average pre-test organization score of 1.65 ($SD = .48$).

As also shown in Table 6, The first rater's post-test textbook information scores ranged between 1 and 5, with an average post-test textbook information score of 3.27 ($SD = 1.34$), the post-test vocabulary scores also ranged between 1 and 5, with an average post-test vocabulary score of 3.32 ($SD = 1.20$), and the post-test organization scores also ranged between 1 and 5, with an average post-test organization score of 3.02 ($SD = 1.23$). The second rater's post-test textbook information scores ranged between 1 and 5, with an average post-test textbook information score of 3.26 ($SD = 1.39$), the post-test vocabulary scores also ranged between 1 and 5, with an average post-test vocabulary score of 3.32($SD = 1.25$), and the post-test organization scores also ranged between 1 and 5, with an average post-test organization score of 3.24 ($SD = 1.30$).

Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre- and Post-Test Scores by Coder

	<i>n</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max
Coder 1					
Pre Textbook information Scores	62	1.45	.50	1	2
Pre Voc Scores	62	1.74	.44	1	2
Pre Org Scores	62	1.61	.49	1	2
Post Textbook information Scores	62	3.27	1.34	1	5
Post Voc Scores	62	3.32	1.20	1	5
Post Org Scores	62	3.02	1.23	1	5
Coder 2					
Pre Textbook Information Scores	62	1.56	.50	1	2
Pre Voc Scores	62	1.77	.49	1	3
Pre Org Scores	62	1.65	.48	1	2
Post Textbook Information Scores	62	3.26	1.39	1	5
Post Voc Scores	62	3.32	1.25	1	5
Post Org Scores	62	3.24	1.30	1	5

The pre- and post-test textbook information, vocabulary, and organization were subjected to an inter-class correlation to determine the reliability of the scores. As shown in Table 7, the results revealed that the pre-test textbook information scores demonstrated good reliability (Cronbach's alpha = .751). According to Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998), a Cronbach's alpha of .70 is considered good reliability and other researchers have judged anything higher than Cronbach's alpha of .85 as excellent (Field, 2009). Participants' pre-test vocabulary scores demonstrated excellent reliability (Cronbach's alpha = .920) and their pre-test organization score also demonstrated excellent reliability (Cronbach's alpha = .927). As also shown in Table 7, the results

revealed that participants' post-test textbook information scores demonstrated excellent reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .984$), and their post-test vocabulary scores also demonstrated excellent reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .954$). Finally, participants' post-test organization scores demonstrated excellent reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .966$).

Table 7

Inter-Class Correlation Analyses of Pre- and Post-Test Textbook Information, Vocabulary, and Organization

	<i>N</i>	Cronbach's α
Pre Textbook Information	2	.751
Pre Vocabulary	2	.920
Pre Organization	2	.927
Post Textbook Information	2	.984
Post Vocabulary	2	.954
Post Organization	2	.966

The independent raters' pre- and post-test scores for participants were averaged together to create an individual score for textbook information, vocabulary and organization. As shown in Table 8, participants' pre-test textbook information scores ranged from 1.00 to 2.00, with a mean score of 1.51 ($SD = .45$); their pre-test vocabulary scores ranged from 1.00 to 2.50, with a mean score of 1.76 ($SD = .45$); and their pre-test

organization scores ranged from 1.00 to 2.00, with a mean score of 1.63 ($SD = .47$).

Participants' post-test textbook information scores ranged from 1.00 to 5.00, with a mean score of 3.27 ($SD = 1.36$); their post-test vocabulary scores ranged from 1.00 to 5.00, with a mean score of 3.32 ($SD = 1.20$); and their post-test organization scores ranged from 1.00 to 5.00, with a mean score of 3.13 ($SD = 1.25$). Finally, participants' scores on the three factors were averaged together to create a unique pre-test score and unique post-test score. As shown in Table 8, participants' pre-test scores ranged from 1.00 to 2.17, with an average pre-test score of 1.63 ($SD = .39$) and their post-test scores ranged from 1.00 to 5.00, with an average post-test score of 3.24 ($SD = 1.24$).

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre and Post Scores

	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max
Mean Pre Textbook Information	62	1.51	.45	1.00	2.00
Mean Pre Vocabulary	62	1.76	.45	1.00	2.50
Mean Pre Organization	62	1.63	.47	1.00	2.00
Mean Post Textbook Information	62	3.27	1.36	1.00	5.00
Mean Post Vocabulary	62	3.32	1.20	1.00	5.00
Mean Post Organization	62	3.13	1.25	1.00	5.00
Total Pre-Test Scores	62	1.63	.39	1.00	2.17
Total Post-Test Scores	62	3.24	1.24	1.00	5.00

Preliminary Analysis

In a preliminary analysis, I examined whether the three classrooms were equivalent in their summary writing skills passages prior to explicit strategy instruction. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to examine potential pre-instruction differences by assigned group. As shown in Table 9, the results revealed that there was no overall difference for group on participants' pretest scores, $F(6, 114) = 1.58, p = .160, \eta^2 = .077$.

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-Test Scores by Group

	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Pre Textbook Information				.50	.609
Comparison	20	1.55	.46		
CWS	22	1.55	.49		
GIST	20	1.43	.41		
Pre Vocabulary				1.90	.159
Comparison	20	1.85	.37		
CWS	22	1.82	.36		
GIST	20	1.60	.58		
Pre Organization				3.46	.038
Comparison	20	1.83	.37		
CWS	22	1.61	.49		
GIST	20	1.45	.48		

Note. Multivariate Effect: $F(6, 114) = 1.58, p = .160, \eta^2 = .077$.

Research Question

To address the research question, third graders' performance was analyzed on written summarization of information text passages, comparing the two instructional groups and the comparison group. A MANOVA with one between-group (group: CWS, GIST, comparison) repeated measure and one within-group (time: pre-post) repeated measure was conducted to compare students' written summary scores. The three dependent variables on the pre- and post-test measure were textbook information, vocabulary, and organization. As summarized at the bottom of Table 10, the MANOVA showed a statistically significant effect for time on participants' scores, $F(3, 57) = 90.80$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .827$. Additionally, there was a statistically significant effect for group, $F(6, 114) = 12.17$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .390$. Finally, there was a statistically significant time x group interaction on participants' summarization scores, $F(6, 114) = 17.75$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .483$.

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations for Pre and Post Subscale Scores by Group

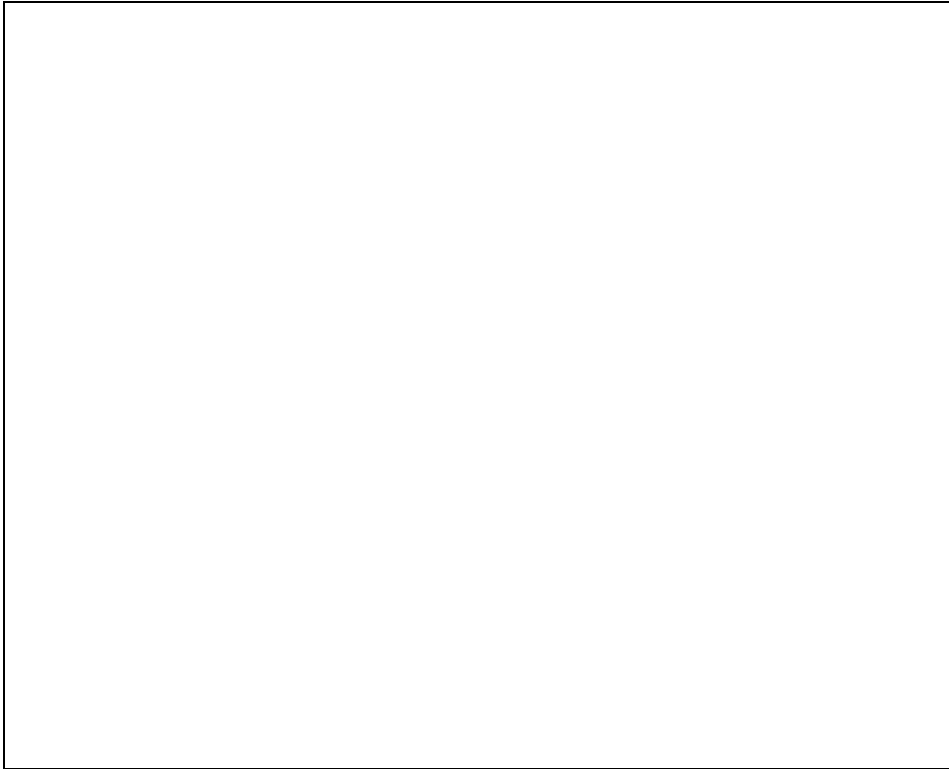
	<i>N</i>	Pre Test		Post Test	
		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>
Mean Textbook information					
Comparison	20	1.55	.46	1.85	.54
CWS	22	1.55 ^a	.49	3.50 ^b	1.25
GIST	20	1.43 ^c	.41	4.43 ^d	.54
Mean Vocabulary					
Comparison	20	1.85	.37	1.90	.48
CWS	22	1.82 ^a	.36	3.75 ^b	.86
GIST	20	1.60 ^c	.58	4.28 ^d	.53
Mean Organization					
Comparison	20	1.83	.37	1.70	.47
CWS	22	1.61 ^a	.49	3.45 ^b	.89
GIST	20	1.45 ^c	.48	4.20 ^d	.66

Note. Multivariate Effects Time: $F(3, 57) = 90.80, p < .001, \eta^2 = .827$; Group: $F(6, 114) = 12.17, p < .001, \eta^2 = .390$; Time x Group: $F(6, 114) = 17.75, p < .001, \eta^2 = .483$. Means with different superscripts denote statistically significant differences within group, $p < .05$.

Following the statistically significant MANOVA results, an ANOVA (with one between-group measure and one within-group measure) was conducted for each of the three dependent variables: textbook information, vocabulary, and organization. The results for textbook information indicated a statistically significant effect for time, $F(1, 59) = 210.70, p < .001, \eta^2 = .781$. There was also a statistically significant effect for group, $F(2, 59) = 31.11, p < .001, \eta^2 = .513$. The interaction between time and group was statistically significant for participants' textbook information scores, $F(2, 59) = 41.19, p$

$< .001$, $\eta^2 = .583$. Figure 7 shows the interaction of time and group for textbook information.

Figure 7

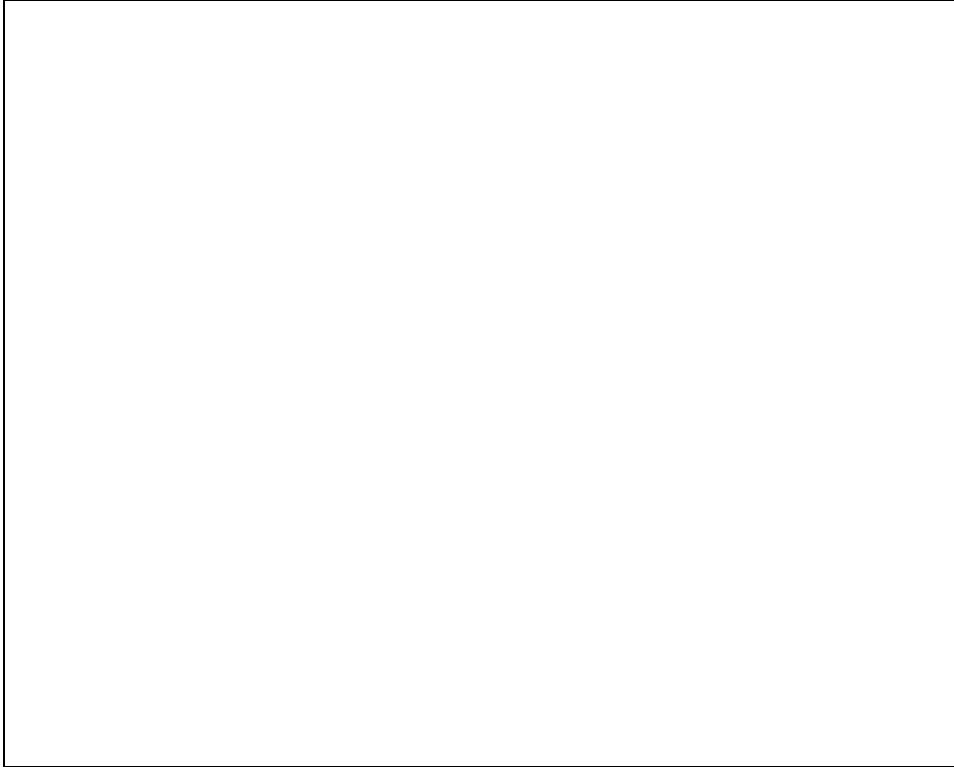


According to post hoc analyses, participants in the GIST condition had significantly higher textbook information scores at post test than participants in the comparison condition ($I-J = 1.2250$, $p < .000$) and participants in the CWS condition ($I-J = .4023$, $p < .03$). Furthermore, participants in the CWS condition had significantly higher textbook information scores than those in the comparison ($I-J = .8227$, $p < .000$).

On the second dependent variable, an ANOVA for vocabulary indicated a statistically significant effect for time, $F(1, 59) = 260.75$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .815$. There was also a statistically significant effect for group, $F(2, 59) = 39.94$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .575$. The interaction between time and group was statistically significant for vocabulary scores, F

(2, 59) = 64.28, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .685$. Figure 8 shows the interaction of time and group for vocabulary.

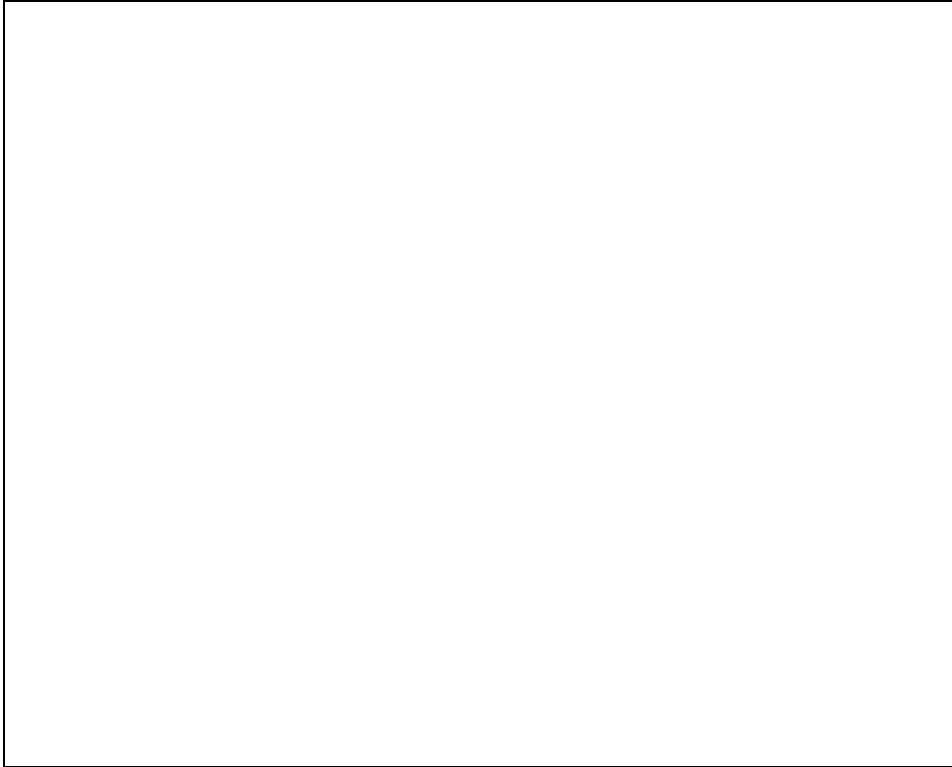
Figure 8



According to post-hoc analysis, participants in the comparison condition had statistically significantly lower vocabulary scores at post test than participants in the CWS condition (I-J = -.9091, $p < .000$) and participants in the GIST condition (I-J = -1.0635, $p < .000$). There was not a statistically significant difference at post test between CWS and GIST participants on vocabulary scores.

Finally, an ANOVA for organization indicated a statistically significant effect for time, $F(1, 59) = 216.42$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .786$. There was also a statistically significant effect for group, $F(2, 59) = 32.16$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .522$. The interaction between time and group was statistically significant for participants' organization scores, $F(2, 59) = 68.36$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .699$. Figure 9 shows the interaction of time and group for organization.

Figure 9



According to a post-hoc analysis, participants in the comparison condition had statistically significantly lower organization scores at post test than participants in the CWS condition ($I-J = -.7716, p < .000$) or the GIST condition ($I-J = -1.0625, p < .000$). There was not a statistically significant difference at post test between CWS and GIST participants' organization scores.

Finally, a repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to test the effects of time and group assignment on participants' total summarization scores. As shown in Table 11, time was statistically significant for total summarization scores, $F(1, 59) = 273.79, p < .001, \eta^2 = .823$. Furthermore, group was also statistically significant, $F(2, 59) = 38.97, p < .001, \eta^2 = .569$. Finally, there was a statistically significant time x group interaction, $F(2, 59) = 67.46, p < .001, \eta^2 = .696$. Figure 10 shows the interaction of time and group for total summarization score.

Table 11

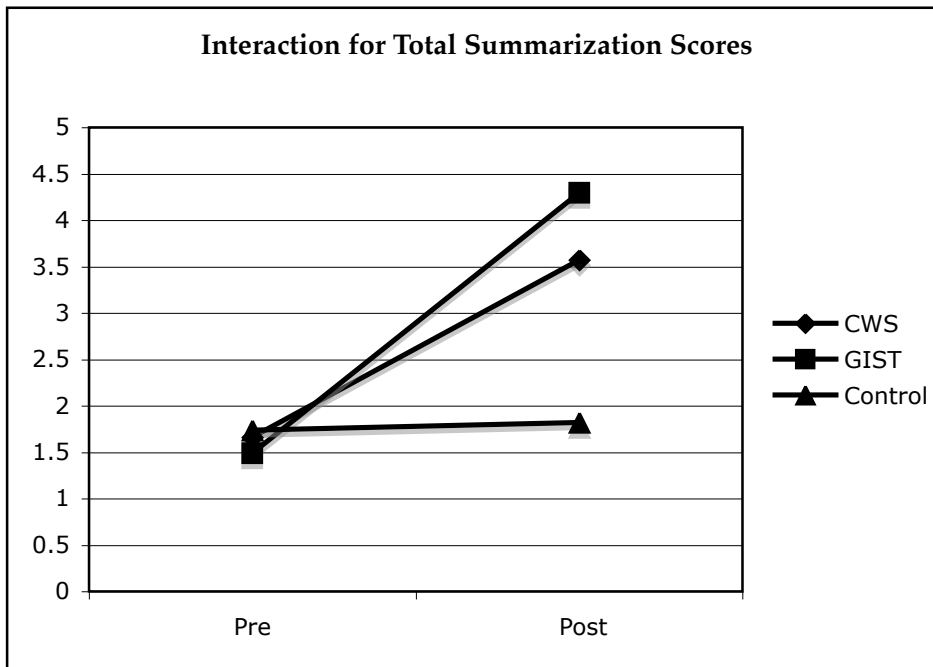
Means and Standard Deviations for Pre and Post Total Scores by Group

	<i>N</i>	Total Pre-Test Scores		Total Post-Test Scores	
		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>
Comparison	20	1.74	.31	1.82	.46
CWS	22	1.66 ^a	.37	3.57 ^b	.96
GIST	20	1.49 ^c	.47	4.30 ^d	.53
Total	62	1.63 ^e	.39	3.24 ^f	1.24

Note. Multivariate Effects Time: $F(1, 59) = 273.79, p < .001, \eta^2 = .823$; Group: $F(2, 59) = 38.97, p < .001, \eta^2 = .569$; $F(2, 59) = 67.46, p < .001, \eta^2 = .696$. Means with different superscripts within groups denote statistically significant differences within group, $p < .05$.

According to a post-hoc analysis, participants in the CWS treatment had statistically significantly higher total summarization scores at post test than participants in the comparison group ($I-J = .8345, p < .000$). Similarly participants in the GIST condition had statistically significantly higher total summarization scores than participants in the comparison group ($I-J = 1.1167, p < .000$). There was not a statistically significant difference at post test between CWS and GIST participants' total summarization scores.

Figure 10



Summary

Third graders in intact classrooms that were randomly assigned to one of two instructional conditions (CWS or GIST) or a comparison were pre-tested on their ability to compose written summaries of information text. After explicit strategy instruction in the treatment classrooms and observations of regular instruction in the comparison classroom, students took a post-test to evaluate their summary writing of information text. Participants who were assigned to the CWS and the GIST treatments had statistically significantly higher scores on the summary writing measure in all three categories after receiving explicit strategy instruction than those who were in the comparison condition.

Chapter V: Discussion

Introduction

In this chapter, I first summarize the rationale for the study. Second, I discuss the statistical results of the study and observational data that support the analyses. Third, I address the limitations of the research study overall. Finally, I discuss how this study may influence future research and reading strategy instruction in the primary grades.

The purpose of the proposed study was to investigate the effects of two approaches to teaching third-grade students how to summarize information text. The research question was how does third graders' performance on written summarization of information text passages compare across two treatment conditions (GIST and CWS) and a comparison group receiving regular content area instruction? Written summaries, student and teacher checklists, and observations were collected during classroom instructional sessions for analysis.

Summary of Study

Summarization is just one element of reading comprehension and many factors influence how young students are taught comprehension skills. As noted in the first chapter, there are at least three reasons summarization should be an integral part of young students' reading instruction. First, researchers and national reports on education continue to include summarization as an important comprehension skill. Next, state and local school districts have multiple curricular and testing criteria that require students to demonstrate the ability to read and summarize text. Finally, there is little evidence that summarization is being taught despite calls for curricular reform. These issues formed the basis for this research study.

There are several problems and questions that might be addressed when thinking about reading comprehension instruction and research. The RAND Reading Study Group (2002) noted in the executive summary of their report that “little direct attention has been devoted to helping teachers develop the skills they need to promote reading comprehension” (p. xi). The reason for this lack of attention could be that reading comprehension includes many cognitive and metacognitive skills and teaching these skills is complex (Alexander, Graham, & Harris 1998; Guthrie et al., 1998).

Summarization is a difficult topic and not regularly considered for explicit strategy instruction during reading or other content areas. This statement was verified in casual conversation with the Assistant Superintendent of Curriculum, the principal, and eventually the classroom teachers who participated in this study. All of these individuals acknowledged the importance of the strategy and that the new state and district curricula explicitly list summarization as a reading goal in the primary grades, but there was little support for instruction or clarification. The results of this study showed that explicit strategy instruction improved third graders ability to summarize information text.

Results and Observations

The following section discusses the results outlined in Chapter Four, supplemented with observational data. I provide an overview of the difference in the comparison classroom and treatment classrooms with respect to explicit strategy instruction with information text and supplement this discussion with samples of the written summaries from both instructional groups and observational excerpts from the comparison classroom.

One conclusion from this study is that CWS and GIST can help third graders compose written summaries using specific strategies. Students in both the CWS and GIST groups had statistically significantly higher post-test scores than students in the comparison group. The explicit strategy component provided students with an approach to extracting important information from the text without being entirely prescriptive. Students could self-select words or independently compose GIST summary statements with a few simple guidelines. As Hare and Borchardt (1984) noted, it may be the carefully delineated instruction that positively influences summary writing. Although conducted with older students, Friend's (2000/2001) study also showed that helping students learn what information to delete and then re-construct into summaries is critical to navigating information text. The explicit strategy instruction in this study helped third graders learn a comprehension strategy that was applicable to a number of different texts. This outcome encompasses two goals outlined by the NRP (2000), the first being to help students understand a particular text and the second providing the procedures and routines students can apply across different texts.

A second conclusion of this study is that information text can be used for reading comprehension instruction. Duke and Kays (1998), Guthrie et al. (1998), and Pappas (1993) documented that young students are capable of and motivated to read information text. A primary concern for teachers in this study was how to cover the content and provide meaningful instruction. The reading period of the day focused on the narrative texts with specific reading goals. The students primarily used an anthology and the associated lessons for those texts. In science and social studies, the goals included tasks such as *compare and contrast* for Native American groups (see Comparison Observations

in Appendix C). Some of the goals had purpose statements or directions that included reading, such as *read to find two differences*, but not specifically reading comprehension strategies.

This goal of helping students improve their reading comprehension while reading to learn information was an important concern for teachers. At my initial meeting with the staff, the principal stated, “We are trying to figure out how to work strategies into the content areas to address the new curricular recommendations and improve students’ reading achievement” (Researcher notes, Feb. 17, 2011). The teachers discussed the challenges of preparing for the state standardized test and covering curriculum. In essence, in order to “get through it all,” the teachers had little time for extended study of a strategy and even less time for instruction in the content areas where students encounter more information text.

This dilemma was evident in the comparison room. For all but two sessions, the students in the comparison classroom completed graphic organizers or filled in workbook answers for their social studies text. There was little to no discussion of the text. The teacher read aloud or more frequently asked students to read chorally or with a partner. During one observation session in the comparison classroom, the teacher specifically did a lesson that included writing a summary. The following excerpt includes the complete directions for the assignment. The teacher is denoted by a T and any student response is an S.

T: We’re going to do some Social Studies but also some reading. Take out your books and journals. Turn to p.20 and raise your hand when you’re ready. Read aloud to yourselves *California Indian Life* (gave a couple minutes). You’re writing a summary. You need to write a summary so that someone whose not in class would know what this is about. Do not start with “they.” Who’s *they*? What are we talking about?

S: California Indians
T: Just of today?
S: No
T: What specifically?
S: Traditions
T: What will you put as the title?
S: *California Indians and their Traditions* (same title as workbook page)
T: And what about the title?
S: Capitalize it all.
T: And when you begin?
S: Indent
T: What are we doing? Any talking?
S: No (unison)
T: Open your journal. I'm going to tell you how much time you have to write your summary. You have 11 minutes to write your summary- to make it clear to any reader who walks by. You cannot just copy it. This is a no talking zone. Can you look back? (no answers or hands) Yes! The title can't just be "*California Indians*" Why not? Because we're talking about their traditions.
(Just quiet- T remained at desk)
Time's up! Share with your partner and decide who goes first (gave several minutes). How were our summaries? (Picked one up and read it aloud). This is short!
S: I ran out of time.
T: So what you need is a main idea. Read your main idea. We need to let our reader know what we're talking about- that's our main idea.

Although the teacher told me she was specifically working on summaries this day, the instruction was not explicit strategy instruction. The students were expected to uniformly complete tasks. This interaction continued on subsequent days. Students would pair or choral read and complete a task such as compare and contrast, a Venn Diagram, or drawing a tradition on an index card. Many times these tasks were the textbook activities. Students always completed the written work independently and occasionally shared their sentence or answer with the class or partner.

Another challenge I encountered in the classrooms was the ability of students to independently begin and complete tasks that did not have "correct" answers or specific steps and directions. In all three classrooms, the students expressed difficulty with writing

a summary during the pre-measure. I tallied at least four students in each room asking, “Do I just copy?” At least two students in every class asked, “What do you want me to write?” and several in each room asked privately, “How long does it have to be?” It was clear from these comments that the idea of *summary* was not entirely clear despite students having just finished two research reports on animals using information texts. Students seemed more concerned about length and content and this may have been due to less strategy focus during content area instruction.

To address this problem for the study, I used the CWS and GIST sessions to read, discuss, and model explicit summary writing strategies. Using the gradual release model, I guided students in both treatments as they worked as a whole group for two sessions, in small groups and pairs for 4 sessions, and finally during the last 2 sessions completed their summaries independently. Since the text was determined by the curriculum and was difficult reading, all passages were read aloud first and then reread in small groups or as individuals.

One benefit of using an explicit strategy instruction approach is the ability to demonstrate and help students develop the conditional knowledge for a strategy. Halfway through the sessions both groups examined two versions of summaries for a passage from their social studies text. The students in both groups did an excellent job of verbalizing what criteria had been met or ignored using the checklist for their strategy. In both treatment groups, we discussed whether every paragraph in textbooks has a main idea, how to use the strategy with lengthier and shorter passages, etc. From this point forward, the students used the self-checklists to evaluate their summaries. These checklists appeared to help the students review their final work and students were

noticeably more expeditious in the completion of their writing. For example, many students would check off each cue word in their list as they read their summary. One student said, “I wish we had learned this before all those animal reports!” (Researcher notes, May 12, 2011).

Students in the CWS and GIST treatment conditions demonstrated statistically significant improvement in total summarization scores and on three subscale variables of the rubric. On the pre-test measure students were only asked to “write a summary for the passage.” This same direction was given at the post-test session. Students were told they could write on notebook paper or unlined paper and if that using a checklist for the CWS or GIST procedure was their choice. Every student in the CWS and GIST classrooms used a checklist when they finished writing and every student in the GIST classroom used paper with 15-line text boxes or drew blanks on their paper. No students asked for help in the CWS or GIST classrooms, but I did take dictation for a student in the GIST group with a hand injury. In the comparison room I had three students ask if I wanted them to copy the passage. Figures 11-14 show a pre- and post-measure for one student in each treatment group.

Figure 11: CWS Pre-Measure

Giraffes are fascinating animals. They are very
lofty beings. Giraffes have hunk heads and
enormous eyes. They have a lot of spots.
A giraffe has a very giant tail that can be
a flyswatter. Giraffes are not omnivores,
but herbivores, they eat plants. A grown adult
giraffe can eat up to 75 lb of plants
that is 34 kilograms! Acacia is a tree
that frustrates a lot of hungry giraffes.
It has thorns that is laborious to giraffe
who is eating eat. Giraffes have a 46
centimeter long tongue that protects its way
while eating its way through. It also has
saliva that is thick to keep the thorns
away. The acacia has stinging ants too.
After it eats it they start stinging. They
move to another tree. When they eat
eat it again to make it nutritious. Its
called, look look.

Figure 12: CWS Post-Measure

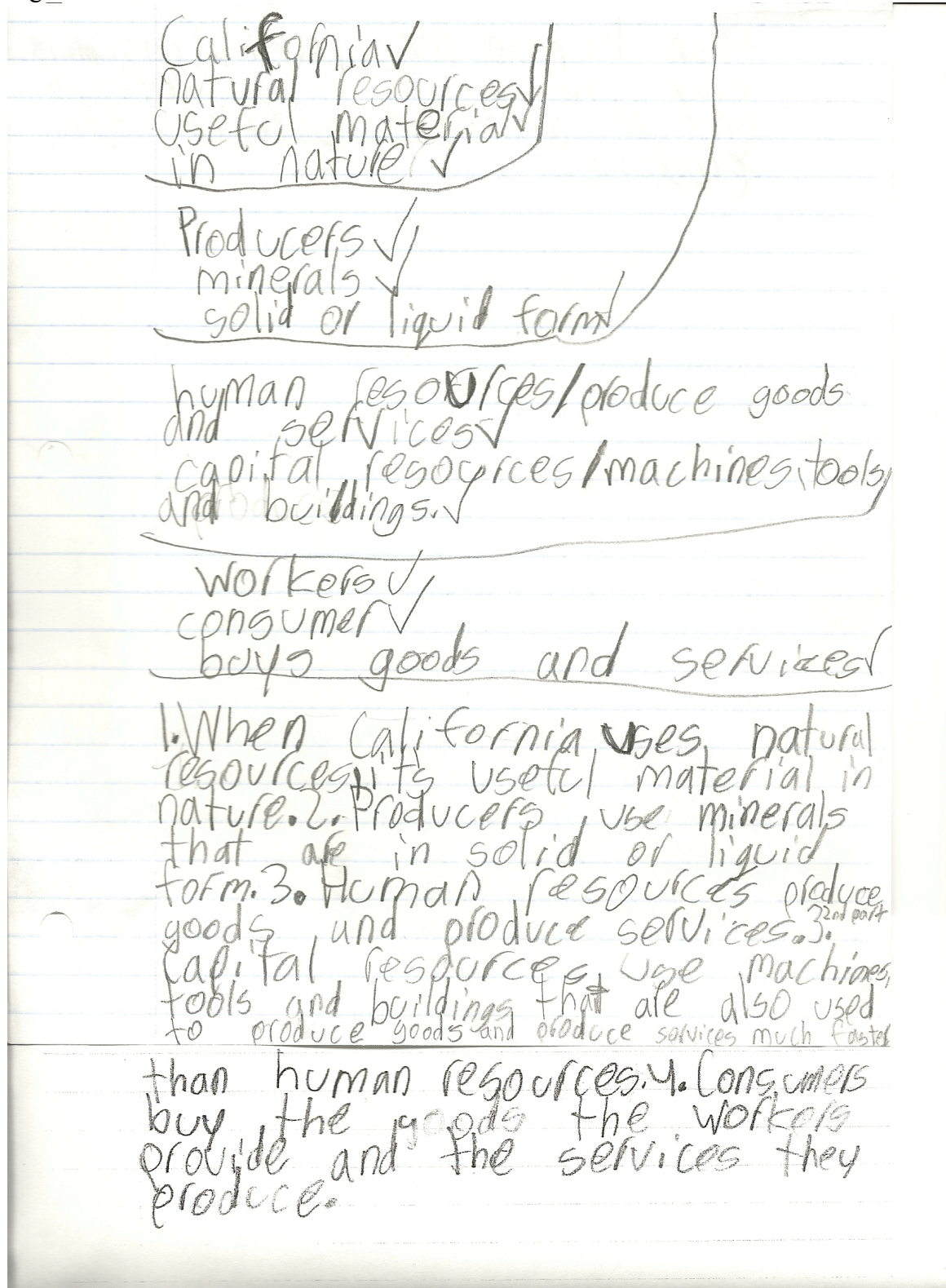


Figure 13: GIST Pre-Measure

Giraffes may be the strangest
looking animals on the savanna.

Figure 14 GIST Post-Measure

california is rich in natural resources. A natural resource is a useful material that occurs.

Producers use natural resources. A producer is a person or business that makes things.

Other types of resources are human resources and capital resources.

The goods that workers produce and the services they provide are used by consumers.

The pre- and post-measures contained four paragraphs of similar length. The passages were the regular information text for the curriculum at both points of instruction. In the CWS and GIST treatment classrooms, the explicit strategy instruction occurred with the passage and did not include the activities and sidebar suggestions for tasks. The teachers in these classrooms wanted the content covered but did not mind bypassing the teacher's guide (e.g., a Venn Diagram comparing two California Indian Groups) in exchange for learning a reading strategy mandated in the curriculum. One teacher noted that many of the suggestions for the social studies and science units were "activities" and not any extension of reading (Researcher notes; April 5, 2011).

The issue of activity versus instruction speaks to another of the problem statements mentioned in the introduction. In the primary grades when the debate of learning to read versus reading to learn continues, the instruction and curricular recommendation often treat the content areas as separate and distinct from reading. As Duke (2000) found in her analysis of primary reading instruction, little time is devoted to information text. The teachers in this study rarely had time for the content areas and the Assistant Superintendent of Instruction commented, "We need to figure out how to work this in but we really don't now how (Researcher notes, Feb. 17, 2011)."

My observations in the comparison classroom and my conversations with the treatment classroom teachers also confirmed that the content areas were viewed as somewhat distinct from reading instruction. As a result, the third grade at this school was just beginning social studies instruction in the spring due to a focus on reading and math. The weeks prior to this study included animal research reports and at the conclusion of the study the students began a unit on the solar system. These two content areas were not

necessarily opportunities for reading instruction with information text. Other sporadic opportunities for information reading included *National Geographic for Kids* or *Time for Kids* for a 20-minute period but the I did not observe any explicit instruction with these materials.

Overall, explicit strategy instruction in CWS and GIST accomplished several goals. First, students had extended exposure to information text. Regardless, of reading ability the students heard passages read aloud, worked with peers, and read aloud their written work. Second, students gained increased proficiency with a strategy in just a few weeks while simultaneously covering content area curriculum. The gradual release model provided flexibility in the instructional setting since the instruction and strategies were not bound by specific rules. In addition, the students began the study with information text focused on animals and ended the study using their social studies textbooks proving that the instruction was successful within the existing curriculum. Finally, students developed the ability to critically evaluate whether or not their summaries met several criteria. Students in the CWS and GIST treatment groups demonstrated the declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge for their respective strategy using information text.

Limitations

There are inherent limitations to any research, particularly when a study is conducted with students in a school setting. This study had several limitations including the instructional reading materials, assessment measure, and generalizability of the results. I discuss each of these limitations in this section and the effects on the interpretation of results.

Reading materials. The reading materials for this study were information passages used by the classroom teachers as specified in the curriculum. One agreement for the study was that I would follow the regular curriculum and use the content that would normally be covered for the days I provided strategy instruction. Even the pre-test passage and post-test passage were the assigned content. Prior to instruction the teachers provided me with samples of information text used in the weeks before I started the study and gave me a copy of the social studies textbook. The pre-test was administered using a passage about giraffes. The students were writing animal research reports. They had done two reports on Komodo dragons and elephants. The teachers relied on trade book excerpts and Internet passages. The first instructional session was a whole group session using a dictated description of their day.

After the second session, the district mandated a writing assessment and I was unable to work in the school for one week. When I resumed the study, the teachers were beginning social studies. The passages from their social studies text were used for the remaining sessions and post-measures. The limitation associated with this arrangement was that I could not control for readability, interest, or whether the passages had a particular length in sentences and paragraphs. Both the CWS and GIST procedures require that paragraphs have multiple sentences. The point in each treatment is to guide students to write summaries for multi-paragraph passages. For every session I never had a lack of content (multi-paragraph passages), however, the number of sentences per paragraph varied widely.

Despite this limitation, I used the opportunity to explicitly ask students about paragraphs that had only two sentences and what to do with exceptionally long

paragraphs. In both treatment groups, the students came to the conclusion after modeling that strategies need to be flexible. For example, in the GIST classroom, students felt if a paragraph was particularly long then the sentence or sentences they composed could be one or two words longer. They also said repeatedly when there was a short paragraph with 2 sentences, that they could decide if there was enough information for a GIST statement or whether they could merge that information with another paragraph. In the CWS classroom, the students said that longer paragraphs warranted the addition of one or two cue words. Students used white boards when working in small groups or independently which allowed for changes before writing their final summaries.

The discussions and modeling of the strategy with varied text passages was successful for more than just summary writing. At the start of the study students often said, "*The first sentence always tells what it's about*" (Researcher notes, April 6, 2011). These comments led to discussions about information text and whether every paragraph has a topic or even main idea. I did not expect this level of analysis but it married well with the goal of selecting what text was important to include in a summary. In the final session a student noted, "It doesn't matter how long the paragraphs are, we have to decide if the information is important enough to include in our summary" (Researcher notes, May 17, 2011). This comment was volunteered at the start of the session when we reviewed what made a good summary. We were looking at a passage that had nine sentences and was lengthy in comparison to previous passages. The students in both treatments demonstrated in the final weeks that selecting cue words or highlighting important information for GIST sentences was a constructive process and they could add, delete, and reevaluate their decisions before composing their summaries.

Although the use of classroom texts was a limitation in some ways, there were also benefits. Students do not always have the benefit of well-written or grade-level reading materials, particularly with information texts (Dreher, 2000). Teachers must use the texts available or required by a district. This study focused on the explicit strategy instruction and not the level or length of reading passages. Students learned, practiced, and used the strategy with information passages ranging in topic from animals to California Indians, and natural resources. Reading the passages orally eliminated decoding and fluency issues for all learners and provided repeated practice with small group and independent reading. In other words, the limitation of using variable texts was also a benefit in that the process mirrored the challenges in actual classrooms where controlling for reading level and length are not always possible.

Assessment measure. The primary measures used in the statistical analysis in this study were scores derived from a rubric. I developed this rubric with another reading specialist for a pilot study (Appendix A). The first measure had five subscales but based on the pilot, we determined that not all of the elements were of interest. After reviewing the steps of the CWS and GIST procedure, we reduced the rubric to three subscale items that focused on textbook information, vocabulary, and organization. Identifying the important text, using the associated vocabulary, and organizing a summary were elements Van Dijk and Kinstch (1983) outlined as critical text-processing variables. We gave each variable a five-point scale for how well students' summaries included each element. We used the revised rubric on pilot data and changed some wording until we reached 100 % agreement. We also made the determination that a complete copy of the passage would receive the lowest rating on each variable.

A limitation of this measure is that a rubric is an informal assessment. More formal measures often have more rigorous reliability and validity data. An informal measure, however, can also identify students' strengths (Bromley, 2007). Given the limitation of using the classroom materials, a formal measure of comprehension or summary writing would not have captured students' use of the specific CWS and GIST strategies in as much detail. In both procedures, students needed to select information, use identified vocabulary, and organize their summary similar to the text passage. I coded the data independent of the second rater and we did not discuss or view each others' scores. The high level of inter-rater reliability indicated that an informal measure can capture differences in student writing with a small range of scores and limited number of variables.

Generalizability of results. This study was conducted within a diverse student population in a public school district. The pilot study was also conducted in a similar setting with an entirely different population in terms of demographics and economic background. Both studies had statistically significant results for students in the CWS and GIST treatment groups. As discussed above, the reading materials used in a classroom, and students' experience with writing may influence their ability to compose summaries. I acknowledge that these results showed improvement for students in two settings but may not generalize to a different group of students in another context.

The quasi-experimental design of this study was expected and a natural consequence of the context. Participants in this study and the pilot research were assigned to treatments and the comparison group using intact classrooms. It was not possible to disrupt the school climate and randomly assign individual students to a group thereby

altering the classroom schedules. It should be noted, however, that students were not homogenously grouped for purposes of special school services. The teachers and principals noted that students are randomly assigned by the previous grade level teachers. The principal added that less than five minor changes were made to these lists based on gender and demographic data to balance classrooms. This was also the case in the pilot school, however, the principal there noted more administrative changes occur to accommodate parent and teacher requests. Pre-test scores in both studies indicated that the groups were not statistically significantly different from each other. The quasi experimental design, while not completely randomized, reflects the context of most elementary classrooms. Although the results may not generalize to other intact groups of third graders, the instructional design and implementation was replicated with strong results in two very different school districts.

Summary

This study examined the effects of two approaches to teaching third-grade students how to summarize information text. Students received explicit strategy instruction in CWS or GIST. I compared the written summaries of both treatment groups to a comparison group that received the regular instruction for the same period of time. A three variable rubric was used to score the summaries for comparison. The results indicated that students in the CWS and GIST treatment groups scored statistically significantly higher than the comparison group on total summarization scores and statistically significantly higher on each subscale variable of the rubric. Observational data and treatment fidelity checklists provided additional information about students' progress.

Effectively using information texts is a critical, yet complex skill that receives increased attention in the late elementary and middle school years through adulthood (Alexander, 1997; Dreher, 1993). Given the increase in information texts and assessments around fourth grade, researchers have proposed that explicit strategy instruction in the primary grades might influence the difficulty many children encounter with information texts (Caswell & Duke, 1998; Dreher, 2000; Hiebert & Fisher, 1990; Moss, 1997). The results of this study showed statistically significant improvement in students' written summarization scores after explicit strategy instruction with information texts.

Appendix A Pilot Study

Appendix A

Pilot Study

A pilot study of the methods and materials for CWS and GIST instruction preceded this proposal. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the timeline, feasibility of instruction aligning with the set curriculum and materials, and the reliability and validity of the assessment measures. Several modifications were made to the proposal based on the pilot. First, the instructional sessions tended to last about 15 minutes longer than originally thought due to students' writing time. Second, although the classroom teachers remained in the classroom and noted students' improvement, there was no means of documenting treatment fidelity and teacher feedback. Hence, the proposed study includes a checklist for teachers and a third party to document the researcher's instruction and self-checklists for students to comment on their progress. Finally, although there was strong interrater reliability on pilot the assessment, discussion with the other rater led to a simpler rubric for the proposal that collapses two categories to avoid redundancy. The following sections outline the pilot study.

Method

Two intact classrooms in one suburban public elementary school participated in the study. Each classroom had twenty students. Parent permission and student assent were obtained for 37 students. The classrooms were randomly assigned to one of two summarization strategies, Cue Word Summarization (CWS) or Generating Interactions between Schemata and Text (GIST). I taught both classes one of the summarization strategies twice a week for five weeks. Included in the ten sessions were the pre- and

post-summary writing tasks. Table A1 outlines the general instructional sessions for both summarization strategies.

In both classrooms sessions lasted 45 minutes to an hour. The goal of CWS and GIST instruction was to guide students to independent use of the strategy. To this end, instruction began with a whole group approach and followed a gradual release model whereby students independently applied the strategies in the final week and post-instruction writing task.

Table A1: Pilot Study Instructional Sessions

<i>Instructional Sessions</i>		
Session	Cue Word Summarization	GIST
1: Baseline *same passages	Assent Forms 30 min. pre-measure summary task	Assent Forms 30 min. pre-measure summary task
2: Introduction	Model: summary of school day and selection of cue words- oral summaries	Model: discussion of school day and reduction to 15 word sentence
3 & 4: whole group	Whole-group selection of cue words and drafts of summary statements	Whole-group writing of GIST statements with multi-paragraphs
5: Small group	Peer assisted selection and summary writing for multi- paragraph passages	Peer assisted selection and GIST statement writing for multi-paragraph passages
6: Review: whole group	Review of guidelines & analysis of CWS strategy	Review of guidelines & analysis of GIST strategy
7: Small group	Guided practice with first paragraph and remaining paragraphs with peers	Guided practice with first GIST sentence and remaining sentences with peers
8 & 9: Independent	Individual selection of cue words and writing of summary paragraphs of multi-paragraph passages	Individual GIST sentences and writing of summary statements of multi- paragraph passages
10: Post-Summaries	Summary post-measure	Summary post-measure

Participants and Setting

Students in the school are heterogeneously articulated into classrooms with an equal distribution of students receiving resource services or second language instruction. All students who agreed to participate and had parent permission are included in the analysis. The demographics of each classroom mirror the demographics of the school community with a large percentage of minority students and second language learners. In both classrooms language was not a barrier to participation. The demographics of the classroom match the school's overall reporting of ethnicity and gender is balanced in all classrooms. For the purposes of this study, the ethnic background and gender of students were not factors in the statistical analysis.

Within the past decade this school has received a Distinguished School Award by the state and A National Blue Ribbon School Award. Performance on the statewide assessment in this district is high, and the school has met Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) goals every year for the state and district. At the end of second grade the students in this study had strong scores on the statewide standardized testing measure. On the English Language Arts test, 89 percent of students performed at a proficient or higher level. The students had stronger scores on the reading measures of word analysis, comprehension, and literary response as compared to writing. Scores for writing are delineated into written conventions and writing strategies. On the writing strategies subtest, this group's mean percentage of correct responses was sixty-six percent.

Materials

For the sessions of this study the social studies unit included a brief history of the local area. One request by the school principal and teachers was to use the regular

classroom materials. It was agreed that the same curriculum teachers had planned during the study's timeframe serve as the content for this study. Students used their social studies textbook and district supplemental text on the area's history for the pre-measure summary task, all instructional passages, and the post-measure summary task.

The pre-assessment measure used a passage from the instructional textbook comparing and contrasting different living areas. The text used for the instructional sessions and post-assessment was a compilation of expository passages assembled and abridged by district curriculum advisors and teachers. These passages were three to five paragraphs in length with occasional photographs and drawings. For consistency with structure, the passages selected for instruction in CWS and GIST were historical accounts of the area. Two sets of passages that focused on biographies of individuals were excluded, as they did not have adequate content for summarization. Students had individual texts and photocopies of the passages for highlighting and practicing the strategies. Additional structures and outlines for scaffolding instruction are discussed in more detail in the next section.

Overview of Instruction

Instruction in both classrooms followed a pattern that had both groups reading and writing about a passage on the same scheduled session. In other words, for the second session, they received CWS or GIST instruction but used that same textbook passage for that session. The initial pre-measure task was difficult for many students- not in terms of effort but just in trying to figure out what to write. I read the passage aloud and discussed a bit of the content for vocabulary clarification and questions. Then I asked students to write what they believed was a summary. I reminded them they were helping me learn

how third graders think about and write summaries and then we would spend subsequent sessions exploring their ideas and learning about the city's history. All the students seemed comfortable attempting the task. On the pre-measure task, one student said they could not produce a summary without copying and made several attempts and erasures before turning in the pre-measure and bluntly stating, "summaries are hard stuff," and "...usually the last paragraph in the book wraps it up." In fact, the textbook had a "summary" right at the end of the passage that only a few students in each classroom referenced or referred back to during the writing process. Even when a few students referred back to the text, they were more concerned about the spelling of a word than content. None of the students directly mentioned the textbook summary to their peers or me.

When the instructional sessions began for CWS and GIST, I spent a bit of time asking students what they thought made a good summary. Most students agreed that a summary is "what it (the text) was about," but could not elaborate on this definition or discuss how to write one. Students in both rooms also recounted that copying was "bad." A few knew the term "plagiarism" and this was discussed as something to avoid by "changing words around." I had to specifically ask students about a summary's length in comparison to the original text and whether one could summarize something that was not text (e.g. events from a party). When prompted students easily offered that summaries were "short," but had no vocabulary or procedures for writing a summary. Once again, the pervasive comments by students in both classrooms was that you changed around a few words so as not to copy the author's words. When I asked how a summary was made

shorter than the text only one student replied, “you have to leave out all the details.” The first instructional session followed this introduction in both classrooms.

In order to use a common experience, the students and I decided to write down what had happened on that school day. Taking turns students recounted each part of the day as I transcribed this on their whiteboard. Some students added in details and others corrected small elements. After producing a passage about three paragraphs in length, we discussed how they might be able to summarize this to a parent, friend, or relative. Many students used the details to retell the entire day’s events. When I reiterated the comments about the length of a summary, the students still struggled with retelling versus summarizing. They seemed to know a summary was short but had great difficulty recognizing the difference between retelling all the events and summarizing the day.

Both classrooms were then guided step by step through either the GIST or CWS procedure. Since the first instruction session was whole group, I used the document camera and highlighted key words with the CWS group and drew 15 blanks for the GIST group. Students in the CWS group immediately sensed the purpose and rapidly selected the “most important” words, raising their hands to disagree or concur with peers. After discussion of all the words we voted on the ones we felt were necessary for a good summary. In the GIST group there was an equal amount of discussion in trying to reduce a lengthy paragraph to 15 words. Given that they cover so much, students quickly realized they need to collapse many activities and asked if grammatical marks, such as a succession of commas “counted” in a blank. At the end, we discussed how the students successfully “shortened” their summaries.

The second whole group sessions followed the same pattern but used a single paragraph of text. Students were very responsive and argumentative about the selections of key words or how to combine sentences into 15 or fewer words with each additional sentence for the paragraph. The largest struggles came with the middle sessions. Students in both groups seemed better able to articulate the strategy and how to use it with increasingly longer selections. The first independent practice of the strategy proved a developmental example. In keeping with young students' cognitive acquisition of new material, they over-applied the strategy in both groups. Those in the CWS group highlighted a very large number of words and those in the GIST group pleaded for a couple more blanks. They stated they were afraid of leaving out something important.

The session following their first independent attempts I decided to set parameters to ease the difficulty. For the CWS group, I gave them a maximum number of words they could highlight and for the GIST group I reminded them to tackle a single sentence at a time and provided them with sheet of 15 blank sentences in several sections so they could proceed sentence by sentence. These simple "guides" seemed to eliminate the need to include everything. Likewise I followed this by introducing the next session with a Venn diagram comparing and contrasting two summaries of the same passage. Students were unanimous in identifying the excellent summary. Again, their identification and ability to describe the features of a good summary were stronger than their ability to independently produce one.

These two mini-lessons incorporated into the sessions added to the length of time needed for each session, but seemed invaluable in the final sessions. After giving students a word-limit (CWS) or frame (GIST), the summaries decreased in length and included the

most important information. In fact, in the final two writing session, the students self-imposed these guidelines on their work. Many students in the CWS group could be seen counting highlighted words and then crossing a few out before making a list. Those in the GIST group would draw 15 blanks, write a sentence, and repeat this when adding each sentence of a paragraph before putting each paragraph's statement into a final summary. In both classrooms students gained efficiency and greater acuity in identifying the most important information to include either as cue words or for GIST statements. Figures A1 and A2 are examples of students' work from the first student-generated CWS lists and the final sessions. The subsequent practice demonstrates a gradual application of the steps in both strategies.

The European countries were
expanding their country into California.
Captain Portola was in the army and
Junipero was a missionary padre. In 1771
Spain were building Mission San Gabriel.
Father Serra found Indians that could
help him. The Indians were called the
Gabrielinos. They were brick makers and
shoemakers. Gabrielinos is spanish.

European countries ✓

Captain Portola ✓

Junipero Serra ✓

missionary padre ✓

San Marino ✗

California ✓

Spain ✓

1771 ✓

Father Serra ✓

Mission San Gabriel ✓

Indians ✓

shoemakers ✓

brickmakers ✓

Gabrielinos ✓

Figure A2 Student Sample
CWS Post Measure

The Pacific Electric
Railway ran through the middle
of Huntington Drive.

In 1913 it became
a city. There were about 500 people
in San Marino at that time.

City Hall
houses the fire ^{and} Police dept.

Q words

- City Hall

500

1913

Huntington Drive

Pacific Electric Railway

Figure A3 Student Sample GIST statements

First Independent Attempt

A Spanish Possession

Captain Portola came to San I
and claimed all of the land
for Spain.

When Captain Portola came here
he taught Indians to make
farms and candles.

Captain Portola came to San I
and claimed all of the land
for Spain. When Captain
Portola came he taught the
Indians how to make farms and
candles.

Figure A4 Student Sample
GIST Statement Post-Measure

People could live
in San - and
travel to Los Angeles
because of the Pacific
Electric Railway.

People liked San
very much that it became
a city. Wl. Valitine
R.H. Lacy and some other
people ran San Marina

The City Hall of San
- had very important
things like the fire station
People who worked
there were not paid.

Interestingly, when the sessions ended, the CWS teacher reported that students would ask if they could use the strategy for other writing assignments. She indicated that their selection of the strategy was appropriate for the assignment.

Measures

Written measures of summary writing completed before and after instruction were used to assess the acquisition of the CWS and GIST strategies. In addition, I collected the individual session work for each student as anecdotal information and to gauge progress. This information guided the instruction and level of support in subsequent sessions.

At the first session, students in both classrooms were asked follow along during a read aloud of the same passage from the primary social studies textbook. This passage was a multi-paragraph general description of the different areas where people live. Following the read aloud, I asked the students to close their books and write what they believed was a summary of the passage. Several students asked how much they had to write. I responded that there was no restriction or predetermined amount, they should just write what they thought was a summary the passage. They could refer back to the text, but had to close the book prior to composing their summary. I also reminded the students that this was not a graded assignment, rather they were helping me learn how third graders summarize text. In both classrooms, students set about the task and spent approximately 15-20 minutes composing the pre-summary. All of the students produced a written response. Below are four responses representative of the range in both classes' pre-measure summary writing.

1. I think what I learned is great. I learned that out of the four regions the Coastal Region and the Central Valley Regions.

2. This paragraph is about populations of people in suburban, urban, and rural. An urban city is busy. Suburban city is where most people live in Los Angeles, San Diego, and San Francisco. Rural places are where not many people live.

3. The mountain range has mountains, Bobcats, wolfs, trees, bushes, and a peak.

4. An urban is a big city with lots of buildings and cars. A suburban area is a small city near a urban. A rural is a place where most farmers live.

In general the responses were one to four sentences in length. A few students made a list of statements and one student wrote, “*I no that...*” and then commented that they could not write a summary without copying the text. None of the students expressed aversion to the process and willingly made the effort to write something.

The post-measure summary writing task was also a multi-paragraph passage from the supplemental text on the area’s history. The passage was similar in length, density, and the structure to the pre-measure. The passage focused on the first public transportation system in the city (Appendix A- removed the city name, etc). Students were given the exact directions as the pre-measure. Following the read aloud of the passage the students were asked to close their texts and write a summary. They were not coached to apply the strategy taught during the previous sessions. Students were allowed to refer to the text as necessary. On this task, students took a longer amount of time to compose the summaries- twenty to thirty minutes in each class. All the students independently used the summarization strategy taught in that room. Below are responses from each classroom.

Cue Word Summarization (CWS)

The Pacific Electric Railway made it possible for people to live in (city) and work in cities. The streetcars ran o railroad tracks in the city streets. People in (city) wanted it to become a city in order to make laws. In (year) (city) became a city. The council were (name) and other four people. There are five members in the council.

The city hall complex houses, city offices, and other things that a city needs. There is a manager to pay little details what a city needs. The city council are not paid , but elected by citizens of (city).

GIST

The Pacific Eletric Railway made it okay for people to live in (city) and work in faraway places.

In (year) (city) became a city and the first councilman were important people like (name).

The (city) City Hall included a department, office, and fire station. The city council also meets there.

The average length of the post summaries was longer than the pre-measure. The written responses clearly demonstrated adherence to the strategy taught in each classroom. This is discussed in further detail in the results section. The passage was new information for the final session.

Each pre- and post-measure summary was scored on a five-point scale in five areas. A reading specialist familiar with the protocol and I blindly scored the pre- and post- measures. Interrater reliability was high across the subcategories and presented in the results section below. Table two shows each rubric category and a brief description for the scale in each area. Originally the term structure was part of the third category and the last category on grammar. It was agreed that that content structure was best relegated to the third category and that the final category focus entirely on grammatical elements.

Table A2: Written Summary Scoring Rubric- Pilot Study

Main Idea and Supporting Details				
5	4	3	2	1
Concise: main idea and sig. details present	Main idea with some details	Main idea lacks central details	Some textual support but lacks main idea	Lacks main idea-little to no support
Vocabulary: Key Words				
5	4	3	2	1
Uses all identified key words	Almost all key words present	Some fraction of key words	Few key words	No key words in summary
Organizational Structure				
5	4	3	2	1
Logical flow and writing (mimics text)	Minor problems with logical order of information	Provides information but in random order	Tangential presentation of information	No logical paragraph structure
Accuracy: Author's Purpose				
5	4	3	2	1
Reflects purpose and expository stance	Reflects purpose with some minor exceptions to stance	May weakly reflect purpose- lacks expository elements	Weak purpose and struggles with expository accuracy	Lacks purpose and very weak in accuracy of information
Grammatical Elements				
5	4	3	2	1
Excellent writing and use of grammar	Good overall writing, minor grammar errors	Several grammatical and writing errors	Errors interfere with overall content	Weak sentence structure and grammar

Pilot Study Results

The following results are the quantitative analyses of students' pre- and post-summary writing measures. Five subscale categories on the rubric were coded independently by two raters on the pre- and post-measures but summed for group comparisons as well. A repeated measures MANOVA was conducted to examine the effect of time and group on the summed means for the pre- and post-measures. Repeated measures MANOVA was also done to examine the effects of time and group on the subscale items on the rubric as well as for interactions of time and group.

Pre and Post Test Scores

As shown in Table A3, the two independent raters had excellent reliability for the five pre-test items, all Cronbach's $\alpha > .847$. For the posttest items, the independent raters were also in excellent agreement for three of the five items: vocabulary, organization structure, and grammatical elements, all Cronbach's $\alpha > .775$. There was adequate reliability for the two items, main idea and supporting details and accuracy: author's purpose; all Cronbach's $\alpha > .517$. The two raters' scores were averaged to create subscale scores for the pre and posttest. These subscale scores were summed to create total pre and post scores.

Table A3
Inter-rater Reliability of Rater Scores on Subscales

	Cronbach's α
Pre - Main Idea and Supporting Details	.896
Pre - Vocabulary: Key Words	.876
Pre - Organizational Structure	.930
Pre - Accuracy: Author's Purpose	.924
Pre - Grammatical Elements	.847
Post - Main Idea and Supporting Details	.518
Post - Vocabulary: Key Words	.999
Post - Organizational Structure	.799
Post – Accuracy: Author's Purpose	.555
Post – Grammatical Elements	.775

The main idea and supporting details pre-test scores ranged from 1.00 to 5.00, with a mean score of 2.42 ($SD = 1.07$). As shown in Table A4, the vocabulary key words pre-test scores ranged from 1.00 to 5.00, with a mean score of 2.44 ($SD = .83$) and the organizational structure pre-test scores ranged from 1.00 to 5.00, with a mean score of 2.38 ($SD = 1.23$). Additionally, the accuracy author's purpose pre-test scores ranged from 1.00 to 5.00, with a mean score of 2.35 ($SD = 1.19$) and the grammatical elements pre-test scores ranged from 1.00 to 4.50, with a mean score of 2.50 ($SD = 1.16$). Finally, the

sum of the pre-test scores ranged from 5.00 to 24.50, with a mean sum score of 12.08 ($SD = 5.27$).

Table A4
Means and Standard Deviations of Pre and Post Scores

	N	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max
Pre					
Main Idea and Supporting Details	36	2.42	1.07	1.00	5.00
Vocabulary: Key Words	36	2.44	.83	1.00	5.00
Organizational Structure	36	2.38	1.23	1.00	5.00
Accuracy: Author's Purpose	36	2.35	1.19	1.00	5.00
Grammatical Elements	36	2.50	1.16	1.00	4.50
Post					
Main Idea and Supporting Details	36	4.68	.40	3.50	5.00
Vocabulary: Key Words	36	4.89	.32	4.00	5.00
Organizational Structure	36	4.53	.53	3.00	5.00
Accuracy: Author's Purpose	36	4.64	.37	4.00	5.00
Grammatical Elements	36	4.31	.51	3.50	5.00
Sum of Pre-Test Scores	36	12.08	5.27	5.00	24.50
Sum of Post-Test Scores	36	23.04	1.59	18.50	25.00

The main idea and supporting details post-test scores ranged from 3.50 to 5.00, with a mean score of 4.68 ($SD = .40$). As shown in Table A4, the vocabulary key words post-test scores ranged from 4.00 to 5.00, with a mean score of 4.89 ($SD = .32$) and the organizational structure post-test scores ranged from 3.00 to 5.00, with a mean score of 4.53 ($SD = .53$). Additionally, the accuracy: author's purpose post-test scores ranged from 4.00 to 5.00, with a mean score of 4.64 ($SD = .37$) and the grammatical elements post-test scores ranged from 3.50 to 4.50, with a mean score of 4.31 ($SD = .51$). Finally, the sum of the post-test scores ranged from 18.50 to 25.00, with a mean sum score of 23.04 ($SD = 1.59$).

Correlations between Subscale Items

All of the subscale items for the Pre-test scores were significantly positively related to each other ($r_s = .809$ to $.958$), indicating that higher scores on one of the subscale items was related to higher scores on the other items (See Table A5).

Primary Analysis

A repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to examine the effect of time and group on the total sum scores of the pre-test and post-test items. The analysis revealed a significant within-subjects effect of time, $F(1, 34) = 182.91, p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .843$. Participants had significantly higher total post-test scores ($M = 23.04, SD = 1.59$) than total pre-test scores ($M = 12.08, SD = 5.27$). There was, however, no significant effect of group on total scores $F(1, 34) = 1.23, ns$, partial $\eta^2 = .035$ and no significant interaction of group and time on total scores $F(1, 34) = .64, ns$, partial $\eta^2 = .019$.

Table A5
Pearson's Product Moment Correlations Between Subscales (Pre-test)

	1	2	3	4
2	.817 **			
3	.820 **	.824 **		
4	.958 **	.842 **	.883 **	
5	.856 **	.809 **	.900 **	.888 **

Note. 1 = Main Idea and Supporting Details; 2 = Vocabulary: Key Words; 3 = Organization Structure; 4 = Accuracy: Author's Purpose; 5 = Grammatical Elements, ** $p < .01$.

Table A6
Means and Standard Deviations of Pre and Post Total Scores by Group

	n	Pre-Test Total Scores		Post-Test Total Scores	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
GIST	17	11.15	4.59	22.79	1.68
CWS	19	12.92	5.80	23.26	1.52
Total	36	12.08	5.27	23.04	1.59

Note. Time: $F(1, 34) = 182.91, p < .01, \eta^2 = .843$; Group: $F(1, 34) = 1.23, ns, \eta^2 = .035$; Time x Group: $F(1, 34) = .64, ns, \eta^2 = .019$.

Finally, a repeated measures MANOVA was conducted to examine the effect of time and group on the subscale pre- and post-test scores. The results revealed that there was a significant overall effect of time on individual subscale scores $F(5, 30) = 85.42, p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .934$, a significant effect of group on individual subscale scores $F(5, 30) = 3.14, p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .343$, as well as a significant overall interaction of time

and group on individual subscale scores $F(5, 30) = 3.80, p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .388$. A closer examination of the results demonstrated that there was a significant time x group interaction on vocabulary key words scores, $F(1, 34) = 9.12, p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .211$. Vocabulary key word scores were significantly higher at Time 2 ($M = 4.89, SD = .32$) than at Time 1 ($M = 2.44, SD = .83$). Furthermore, at Time 1, those in the CSW group had significantly higher scores ($M = 2.74, SD = .86$) than those in the GIST group ($M = 2.12$). At Time 2, however, the GIST group had significantly higher scores ($4.94, SD = .24$) than those in the CWS group ($M = 4.84, SD = .37$). Finally, there were no significant interactions of time and group on individual subscale scores for main idea and supporting details, organization structure, accuracy: author's purpose, or grammatical elements, all *ns* (See Table 6).

Table A7

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre and Post Subscale Scores by Group

	n	<u>Pre-Test</u>		<u>Post-Test</u>		<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>		
Main Idea and Supporting Details						.32	.568
GIST	17	2.15	1.03	4.53	.45		
CWS	19	2.66	1.26	4.82	.30		
Vocabulary: Key Words						9.12	.005
GIST	17	2.12	.67	4.94	.24		
CWS	19	2.74	.86	4.84	.37		
Organizational Structure						.06	.806
GIST	17	2.24	1.11	4.44	.56		
CWS	19	2.50	1.34	4.61	.52		
Accuracy: Author's Purpose						1.12	.297
GIST	17	2.15	1.03	4.65	.39		
CWS	19	2.53	1.32	4.63	.37		
Grammatical Elements						.11	.740
GIST	17	2.50	1.10	4.24	.47		
CWS	19	2.50	1.25	4.37	.55		

Note. Multivariate Effects Time: $F(5, 30) = 85.42, p < .01, \eta^2 = .934$; Time x Group: $F(5, 30) = 3.80, p < .01, \eta^2 = .388$.

Summary

Students in both instructional groups made statistically significant progress in their ability to summarize textbook passages after explicit strategy instruction. Students' post-measure scores in both groups were statistically significantly higher than their pre-measure scores. Additionally the post-summary means had much smaller deviations across rubric subscale categories than their pre-summary scores. The strongest improvement on post-summary measures was the inclusion of significant vocabulary in students' written summaries. Increased attention to content vocabulary during summarization tasks indicates an awareness of important information and the ability to distill content. These results support the premise that third graders can be taught explicit strategies for summarizing multi-paragraph textbook material.

Appendix B
Small Group CWS and GIST Samples

Appendix B

The following passage is a sample followed by a text cue list, GIST statement and written summary generated by third graders in a small group instructional setting. This excerpt is an isolated example of how a passage is used to generate a written summary under both treatments and is not included for instruction in this proposal.

Passage Sample

The United States Coast Guard

The Coast Guard service is in charge of rivers, lakes, and oceans that border the United States. The Coast Guard does all it can to help prevent accidents. But when accidents do happen, it gives help to the people in trouble. One way in which the Coast Guard prevents accidents is by checking ships to see that they are safe. Trained workers check all parts of the ship. They see that the ships are in good working order.

In the North Atlantic Ocean, the Coast Guard has an “ice patrol.” It watches for floating ice. Ships keep in touch by radio with the “ice patrol.” In that way they know exactly where dangerous icebergs are.

Another part of the Coast Guard handles weather stations. These stations broadcast on-the-spot weather reports. Crews on ships and planes listen to the reports. Then they can prepare them for storms.

The Coast Guard also operates lighthouses, lightships, and foghorns. In the darkness and during storms, the boom of the horns and the flashing beam of the lights tell ships to watch out for rocky coastlines. When a ship is wrecked, the Coast Guard sends out help. Its small boats can pick up passengers even in wild storms.

The Coast Guard also uses helicopters for rescue work. People who are sick or hurt can be rushed from a ship to the shore in a short time in these “whirly-birds.”

Sometimes a ship or a plane is lost or missing. When this happens, the Coast Guard workers comb the seas night and day until the ship or plane is found.

Text Cue Sample and GIST Statement from small group single session

The United States Coast Guard

in charge
rivers
lakes
oceans
border
US
accidents
checking ships
safe
working order
ice patrol
floating ice
radio
weather stations
reports
lighthouses
lightships
foghorns
storms
rocky coastlines
helicopters

Text Cue Written Summary

The United States Coast Guard is in charge of lakes, rivers, and oceans that border the United States. They also help when there are accidents. One job the Coast Guard does is checking to make sure ships are safe and in working order. The Coast Guard has an ice patrol that uses the radio to tell ships about dangerous icebergs. They also work at weather stations to report weather. The Coast Guard uses lighthouses, lightships, and foghorns to tell ships in storms where the rocky coastlines are. They can rescue people in helicopters.

GIST statement (first paragraph only)

The Coast Guard watches all the water around the U.S. and makes sure ships are safe.

Appendix C
Comparison Classroom Observation Transcripts

Appendix C
Comparison Classroom Observation Transcripts

T: Teacher
S: Student

Session 1 Pre- Measure

Session 2

35 minutes

T: We are going to read an article. It's called, "Fooled You!" (article cover on doc cam- National Geographic Explorer) I'm not going to give you the article while we do the anticipation guide. These animals will mimic other things to fool their predators. Our objective is: (on doc cam) We will make predictions about an article using an anticipation guide. Now I Say- You Say! (T read objective and students repeated). The next part will be we check our predictions after we read.

T distributed anticipation guides. T asked students to choral read.
Class read chorally the first statement.

T: Talk to your partner to decide if it's true or false and mark your paper. When I count to three say your prediction out loud. 1-2-3: (majority said True)

Class read chorally statement 2 and repeated above procedure. While talking to peers T said, "take your prior knowledge to make a prediction about this statement"

One student shared response. T praised student for saying what he marked and *why*. Walked around and asked two more students to share. Told class they all gave good reasons for marking true or false.

Same exact procedure for statements 3-6. Reminded students to reread statement 4 because it was worded oddly.

T passed out articles and asked students to get out highlighters. Projected cover and article on Promethean board. T asked students to examine the cover and discussed photo. What do you see? (hamburger with cucumbers, snake)

T asked students to partner read the first paragraph. (first para was all italicized). Told students it was all in italics and gave background information. Reminded them that italics were slanted and where to stop at end of paragraph.

T: Where does this take place?

S: Panama

T explained where Panama was on the map. Described location, said it had a canal and rainforest. Also told students that from the photo you could tell there was some really cool stuff.

T: Okay- look over the anticipation guide. It usually goes in order of the article. Choral read with whole class the first two sentences. Told students to look at the anticipation guide. Reread first sentence chorally.

T: What is the statement? Well the guide said “animals” and the text said “things” (about mimicking).

T told students to highlight sentence that matched guide and asked what word needed to be changed to make the statement just like the text.

“what were some “things” mentioned in the italicized paragraph? Students gave three answers.

T: Cross off “animals” and put “things”- that statement was false.

Choral read 2nd statement. T asked to try again because they sounded tired.

T: So the next thing we read we’re going to be looking for “leaf litter toads”

BELL for ELL

T: Mark with your pencil where we stopped.

Session 3 FIELD TRIP to fire station: summer safety

Session 4

40 minutes

T: There will be no more rotations (later explained that teachers used to share Social Studies and Science- as a result she had never taught third grade Social Studies). We will try and have Social Studies 2-4 times a week. (So up to this point she had not covered any Social Studies content).

Passed out books and projected the unit page on the doc cam. “I’ll use the term Native American because that’s what I use. Your book uses *California Indians or American Indians*” Tell your neighbor where do Indians come from?”

S: India

T: Yes, Indians come from India. So we don’t use *Indian*, we use *Native American*

T reviewed that California has four regions using an overhead map. “We live on the coast but you can see the range of mountains. It’s very cool we have all four regions. How many of you go to the desert?” (about ½ the class raised their hands)

T: “You don’t need your books open yet. In your book on p. 15 is a pre-writing activity.(Projected on Promethean Board). Now open your books and raise your hand when you are on p.15. We’re gonna do this to get geared up. This is gonna be what we know- like in our previous reports like the K in the KWL charts. Will we all know the same amount? No- if you already knew it I’d have nothing to do! Let’s choral read the directions.

Choral reading of directions.

T: I'm going to count to 10 and you are going to silently move to your partners and I want you to solve the problems. I'm going to count you off (assigned 1's and 2's). We have two sections. The 1's are going to read the rectangular boxes to their partners the 2's are going to read the diagram directions. Raise your hands when you're done.

T: OK! Turn to your partner. You have two minutes to brainstorm everything you know about Native Americans. If you know something about CA Indians- even better. (walked around, listened, encouraged- "anything you've seen on TV, movies...anything"). 3,2,1 eyes (to get attention). I heard a lot of great ideas. (praised students and told them they may find out they are wrong- not sure if TV is a real depiction). Moved to flip chart and took out marker. Called on pairs for "responses only" and recorded the following:

WHAT WE KNOW

Americans

Hunt for food sometimes- different kinds of animals

Eat animals (what is that called?- carnivores)

Grow crops (what about both? Omnivores- people usually)

Eat fish

Use fur as clothing

Live in tepees

Hunt with dogs (T: They do? OK I'll write it down)

Wear masks to tell the leader when they hunt

They use poisonous frog venom for hunting on tips of arrows

You guys are bringing up lots of stuff that reminds me of Native Americans (talked about using the whole animal). She shared that she eats fish but not other animals because she feels guilty.

Now- about CA Indians- we're not sure. Turn to p. 16 and 1's and 2's read directions with your partner.

This is what we'll fill out as we read. I see some vocabulary words. What vocabulary words do you see? Read them with me (choral read bold words)

So tomorrow we'll read this so we can fill it out as we read.

(Read curriculum objective out loud.

I want to preview the vocabulary. What does "tradition" mean? (no responses)

OK- you might have some Easter traditions. Tell your partner what tradition might mean.

Mine might be different (shared how her family tradition has changed over the years to include non-family members for dinner). How many of you hunted Easter eggs? (all hands went up). So we share that tradition.

Passed out index cards. Tomorrow during Social Studies you will write a tradition you have in your family and draw a picture on this card.

Session 5

40 minutes

We need to finish reading and then move into Social Studies.

Reading (3 rotations within room)

1. “May Do” – wall of literature activities (vocab cards, games, thinkers, puzzles)
2. Accelerated Reader
3. Group with teacher

We are going to wrap up “The Mysterious Giant of Barletta” by Tomie de Paola (from anthology)

Our goal is to discuss questions with our partners. We’re going to work on reading comprehension with our partners. Turn to your partner and everyone read aloud the first question. Did Think/Pair/Share.

3,2,1 (got attention) and repeated same exact procedure for each question. I hear lots of good discussion.

(During third question the T interrupted only once- to clarify the question- it’s not whether you *agree* but *why* the event happened- that’s where I want you to focus your answer.

On last question asked several students to share an answer and read the text support for their answer.

T added a couple one-answer questions and asked partners to confer.

T checked and asked other two groups to clean up and prepare for Social Studies.

T placed three vocabulary cards in a pocket chart (*custom, ceremony, folklore*)

Placed the card *Custom* on doc cam- then flipped the card and had students read textbook definition on back of card chorally. Shared that she likes to use accents to read vocabulary cards and how one student in a previous class created one she uses yearly (silly voice) and students giggled.

Reviewed where they had left off talking about Easter traditions. Gave students 30 seconds of think time to think of *any* tradition. “Give me a thumbs up when you have something”

“1’s and 2’s share your traditions with your partner. (Gave about 20 seconds) 3,2,1, Eyes! OK, so after ELL we’ll draw our tradition on your index card.”

Session 6

1 hour

(noticed tradition index cards displayed in window)

T: Today’s skill is compare/contrast. Turn to your partner and tell them what compare means. (gave about 10 seconds) Now we’ve been comparing fractions- how things are alike- so compare means *alike*. Turn to your partner and tell what contrast means. (gave a few seconds and overheard) Yes, contrast means *different*.

T drew connections to Venn Diagrams and T-Charts and how they compare/contrast stories with videos (previous lessons in reading)

We’re going to be comparing and contrasting Native American food and clothing. (Read aloud direct standard from curriculum)

We're going to be looking at two groups of Native Americans- the Woodland and American Southwest groups.

Placed workbook page on doc cam. We're going to be doing this for two groups in CA. I'll make a copy of your book page so we can highlight and make a T-chart.

(passage was 2 paragraphs, 5 sentences total 2:3)

So let's keep that in mind- how things are alike and different. Please open to page 17 and put your hand up when you're ready. (quieted table 4)

Read aloud title of unit.

What do we read first?

S: title

T: Yes and then captions and then headings

This is where we look at *Connect to You* so I'd like you to read with your partner. You can underline or highlight anything that you think is crucial or important. I want you all to read aloud with your partner at your own pace.

OK. Now my background is that I have family from Sicily and England. My husband is more mixed so *name of daughter (in class)* has lots of European countries. If you know one or more places you're from, share it now with your partner (gave 10 seconds)

All right- we talked about vocabulary. We previewed it and the cool thing- they give you parts of speech. What's in common?

S: They're all nouns.

T: Yes. Read the vocabulary words with your partner and talk about what each one means in your own words. (gave about a minute)

Now- down below (gesturing on doc cam page). Stop. Let's read (pointing). Look up the words and with your partner circle the word that's a synonym for *tradition*. What's a synonym?

S; the same

T: yes, the same. When I count to three everyone say in unison what you think is a synonym for *tradition*. 1,2,3 (all students chimed in *custom*).

You have customs with your family. A lot of time your traditions and customs are the same thing. Read both of the statements on this page with your partner (gave a few moments). Do you see how they are alike? Circle the word *custom*.

Now, let's look at "*Reading: Compare and Contrast*" I'd like you to underline any important information in this paragraph. Do that right now. (gave about a minute). So we're out of our pencil boxes, we're not arguing, and we're getting along.

OK let's turn the page and we're going to actually read.

What does the heading say? (no response). OK I see a heading, I also see a question mark, and a caption. We need to read the question so we know what to do. Read the question, the picture, and the also the caption, Go. (gave a moment).

What is the question? Who can tell me in their own words what the question is we're going to be focusing on?

S: differences between two groups

T: How many?

S; 2

T: So no similarities? Good. Cool. On the map what are we supposed to do?

S: Circle who hunted buffalo.

T: (thought aloud that buffalo would not be in the desert). So, with a highlighter...oh, I found something awesome yesterday. We can underline and highlight in our test booklets and we don't need to erase this year. We can do things the way we are used to.

OK! Read the first paragraph and highlight anything that will help us with the map or differences- then turn to a different person and tell them if you highlight anything. (gave a minute).

Bell for ELD but groups cancelled so continued.

OK, now that you did that paragraph, read the whole page, highlight and do this (gestured to finish page). After a couple minutes placed the passage on doc cam.

I see some clue words. I see *different* several times on the page. With your partner write two differences. Remember there are two tribes we're focusing on and we'll be circling who hunted buffalo. Raise your hand when you're done.

(After about three minutes). Hands up if you wrote two differences AND you know who hunted buffalo. OK Sweeties, let's get ready for dismissal.

Session 7

1 hour

T: OK So let's review. Compare means how things are alike and contrast means how things are different. Yesterday in the article about Cinco De Mayo we compared and contrasted the holiday with the Fourth of July. We also read about the two girls. We compared and contrasted. So we do it at the same time.

Read aloud standard: We will compare and contrast CA Indian lives. So today we're going to talk about CA Indians. Turn to p. 19.

What's the first thing in nonfiction?

S: The title

T: Let's read it (choral read title). Then? Turn to p 20. We did this yesterday. So let's read the title on p 20. We did questions 1 & 2 yesterday. Question 3- please read this with your partner and underline anything you think is important to remember.

What I'd underline makes sense to me- not necessarily what makes sense to you. Mine would be *groups* and *in common*.

We have a summary. Do you see it over on the right side? OK. They're going to have you write a summary. You know how- not like a little kid with and...and...and...just the important stuff.

OK, I want you to underline what you think is important to use in your summary. Raise your hand when you're done. This word (pointing on doc cam) is *European*- those are people from Europe.

Any captions? Read those with your partner. There's also a painted cave in the photo. I used to hike there in college. Did you read the caption by the painted cave? Down by the picture.

Now you have the title and captions. You know what you're looking for. So read with a partner, underline important information. Focus on the two things: what they have in common and *before* the Europeans. Remember we're reading for a purpose. Two things

the Native Americans had in common from the past. There's more but we need two. It's OK to go back. (Walked around and asked what they had found)

What did you come up with?

S: Pass down folklore

T: Raise your hand if you wrote that

S: Same traditions

T: But they passed down traditions – oh! I'm thinking of the summary

S: They didn't have written language

T: Raise your hand if you wrote that. Anything else that we didn't touch on?

(No response) They also told myths and legends. I think you came up everything in the book and everything I did.

Let's recap. We talked about Native Americans of the past. This speaks to our essential question- *What do you know about Native Americans from the past and the present?*

OK Read the summary with a partner. GO!

OK we're going to wait (for everyone to finish). I want to keep that in mind as we read the next section. Let's look at the next page. Look at question four and read it and underline any important information.

So I probably would underline *leader; perform ceremony*- that's me though.

I'll read question five- you follow along (read aloud). So what are we doing? In the text circle any way they were alike from the past to today. Are we writing anything? No!

We're circling.

First read *Beliefs*. Do not go on. Focus on beliefs. Raise your hand when you've circled what's in common. (Gave several minutes work time.- then got a little noisy). Did we answer our question? Yes? Then our hands should be up.

So the question says, *Why might a leader perform a ceremony?* What did you write? I'm reading what they wrote in my book and it's weird.

S: to get ready for hunt

T: Yes! Anyone write anything different? OK the second one is circling what is the *same*. Read chorally. (read directions to circle how Native Am are alike today). Read this section and circle ways they are alike- from today. Go ahead. All you have to do is circle- you don't even need to write anything! Cool!

Hands up when you and your partner are done and you've circled information. (waited)

Hands up when you've circled. OK- at your table groups talk about what you circled.

What you circled and *why*. That way you can compare what you circled to what your table mates circled. (walked among tables- stopped and encouraged discussion at one table- "you circled traditions, spirits, and ceremonies"). So what I noticed- a lot of you circled the same things but not. You shared and then circled new information. That's why we share. You all circled the same things I circled (but this was not visible). So we're doing our essential question. What so you know about Native Americans of long ago and today? So you did a lot of comparing and contrasting.

On Monday we'll read the next two sections. So I'd like you to preview. Like at the movies. Look at what we'll be doing. There's a lot of cool pictures. I also llllooooove maps. What kind of book has maps?

S: Atlas

T: So we're going to have a different focus. All right. Put your books away.

Session 8

40 minutes

T: We're going to do some Social Studies but also some reading. Take out your books and journals. Turn to p.20 and raise your hand when you're ready. Read aloud to yourselves *CA Indian Life* (gave a couple minutes)

You're writing a summary. You need to write a summary so that someone whose not in class would know what this is about. Do not start with "they." Who's *they*?

What are we talking about?

S: CA Indians

T: Just of today?

S: No

T: What specifically?

S: Traditions

T: What will you put as the title:

S: *CA Indians and their Traditions* (same title as workbook page)

T: And what about the title?

S: Capitalize it all.

T: And when you begin?

S: Indent

T: What are we doing? Any talking?

S: No (unison)

T: Open your journal. I'm going to tell you how much time you have to write your summary. You have 11 minutes to write your summary- to make it clear to any reader who walks by. You cannot just copy it. This is a no talking zone.

Can you look back? (no answers or hands) Yes! The title can't just be "*CA Indians*"

Why not? Because we're talking about their tradition.

(Just quiet- T remained at desk)

Time's up! Share with your partner and decide who goes first (gave several minutes).

How were our summaries? (Picked one up and read it aloud). This is short!

S: I ran out of time.

T: So what you need is a main idea. Read your main idea. We need to let our reader know what we're talking about- that's our main idea.

Bell for ELD

Session 9

50 minutes

On Tuesday we wrote a summary of what has stayed the same for CA Indians.

(asked a few students to stop sharpening pencils and hopping out of their seats)
Let's see how fast we can go. We're going to look at maps. What kind of book has maps?

S: Atlas

T: Yes, sweetie. We're going to be learning about absolute location and relative location, which I just learned about the other day. And if we have time we'll look at some maps.
Open your books to p. 22

We're going to be reading some charts. We need to charts because they are part of our third grade standards (used fingers to make quotes). (Gave side story about visiting the office and it was getting close to "THE TEST" so they are tackling standards). So we're talking about location. Charts give information in a nice compact way. It's like reading captions for a picture. When we read a chart we need to read the title and any special headings. We want to look at the chart.

What is the title? 1, 2, 3 (her cue to read aloud). (Students read title chorally). The title is important. Tells us what this is about. The heading across gives us important information. They tell us how the chart will be grouped. For each group of Native Americans this tells us.

With your partner read the chart. It doesn't talk about all the Native Americans in CA- it only talks about four CA Native American tribes. See if you can figure out why they chose these four groups and not the others. (gave about 30 seconds)

Why did they choose these four? (No response) Time out- I want everyone to know this so discuss this with your table.

(walked around)

Table two said they are from four different regions in CA. Raise your hand if these are what your table talked about. There's way more but they focused on these four because there's one from each region and that can give us a more thorough coverage.

Look at the "*Try It*" (doc cam). Read number one with your partner. Hands up when you and your partner have underlined what it said in the directions. (waited for tables and hands) 3,2,1- (all students shouted answer in unison).

I'll read number two, it's really long. (read aloud) I'll read that again. (again). Look at the heading. Reread this now with your partner. (gave 30 seconds). That's what I'd like you to do and I'll give you 1 minute to do that. (circulated and asked students to show her their work).

OK *Houses*- that's a heading. *The Miwok* is NOT a heading. So that's why you have to circle *houses*- that's a heading. I want you to read number three and follow the directions. You're reading with a partner, not out loud to me (gave a moment).

So is it alike or different?

S: Different

T: Just different. So we are CONTRASTING only, which is our skill focus. Remember we're writing how they're *different*. So let's talk about how they are different from each other. I heard (student) say acorns. One of the tribes eats acorns and one eats antelope. Acorns come from the oak tree. Boy! We sidetrack a lot- but that's cool! Hey! Whose house is that? (gestured to picture).

S: Chumash

T: They have one in Santa Barbara. Read the top paragraph. This will tell you how to read a chart. Do they know more than I did or did I say the same things?

S; You said the same things (referring to her notes filled in on doc cam)

T: Cool! That's why I'm a teacher.

Bell for ELD

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