ABSTRACT

Title of Document: THE EFFECTS OF DISCIPLINARY LITERACY INSTRUCTION ON READING COMPREHENSION AND HISTORICAL KNOWLEDGE

Caroline Y. Walker, Doctor of Philosophy, 2015

Directed By: Associate Professor Susan De La Paz
Department of Special Education

This study examined the effects of three Tier 2 summer reading interventions on struggling readers who were about to enter the sixth grade. Students were assigned to one of three reading conditions: The first condition provided students with a disciplinary reading strategy utilizing primary and secondary documents on the history of China (N = 35); the second condition provided a generic comprehension strategy utilizing the same history of China materials (N = 30); the third, business as usual comparison condition, provided students with multiple, ad hoc comprehension strategies and varied texts (N = 45). The study sought to test whether a history-specific reading strategy would lead to greater comprehension gains than a generic comprehension strategy and whether both interventions, based in history content, would lead to greater content learning outcomes than ad hoc strategies and unconnected texts.

Results indicate that in comparison to students in the business as usual comparison condition, students in both the disciplinary and generic strategy conditions showed greater growth on a researcher-created content measure of history. Students in these two conditions also showed more growth than peers in the comparison condition on a researcher-developed disciplinary comprehension measure. Contrary to the author's

expectations, students in the two treatment conditions performed similarly on the disciplinary comprehension measure. This finding may have been due to problems with fidelity of implementation, the similarity of the two interventions, or the greater familiarity students and staff had with the generic comprehension strategy. Students in all three interventions showed growth on a standardized reading comprehension measure, the Gates-MacGinitie. In addition, regardless of condition, students did not show growth on a measure of reading motivation. Students who were diagnosed with reading disabilities performed similarly to peers who were struggling readers but not identified as having a disability on all measures. These results, which differ from those with older middle school students, suggest a need for future research on the relative effectiveness of both discipline-specific and generic reading comprehension strategies on comprehending and learning history content.

THE EFFECTS OF DISCIPLINARY LITERACY INSTRUCTION ON READING COMPREHENSION AND HISTORICAL KNOWLEDGE

by

Caroline Y. Walker

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Advisory Committee:

Associate Professor Susan De La Paz, Chair
Professor Patricia A. Alexander
Professor Peter E. Leone
Professor Margaret J. McLaughlin
Assistant Professor Jade Wexler

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ANOVA = Analysis of Variance

AP = Advanced Placement

CARE = Context. Author's point of view, Reaction, Evidence

CCSS = Common Core State Standards

CORI = Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction

CST = California Standards Test

CTBS = Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills

DIBELS = Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills

ERAS = Elementary Reading Survey

FARMs = Free and Reduced-price Meals

FCAT = Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test

FLA = Functional Language Analysis

GMRT = Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test

IEP = Individualized Education Program

ITBS = Iowa Tests of Basic Skills

K-W-L = Know, Want to know, Learned

LEA = Local Education Agency

MSA = Maryland School Assessment

MRQ = Motivation for Reading Questionnaire

NAEP = National Assessment of Educational Progress

NICHD = National Institute of Child Health and Human Development

OECD = Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

PARCC = Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers

PISA = Program for International Student Assessment

PR = Paragraph Restatement

R-LEP = Released Limited English Proficient

RLH = Reading Like a Historian

RTI = Response to Intervention

SAT = Stanford Achievement Test

SES = Socioeconomic Status

SRSD = Self-Regulated Strategy Development

TI = Traditional Instruction

TOWRE = Test of Word Reading Efficiency

TSB = Text-Structure-Based

USED = United States Department of Education

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Problem Statement

Over the last 10 years, researchers and practitioners have come to realize that adolescent literacy is more than a combination of decoding, fluency, and comprehension skills learned in early childhood (Heller & Greenleaf, 2007; Snow & Biancarosa, 2003). Rather, it also represents the acquisition of a new set of context-dependent ways to perceive, process, and communicate about the world. While adolescent literacy certainly builds upon foundational skills that underlie effective reading comprehension, additional strategies are required for the successful mastery of disciplinary literacy (Moje, 2008; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008).

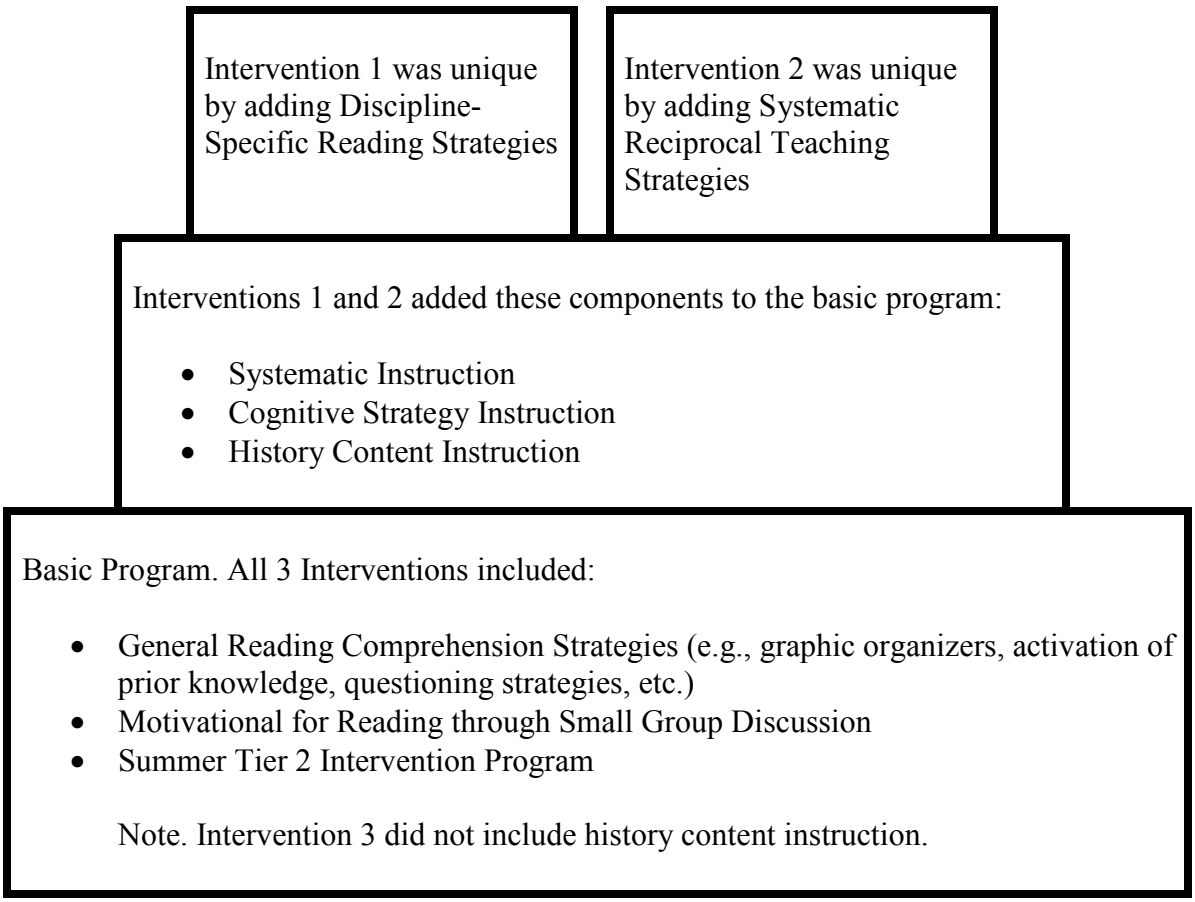
It is not surprising then, that the transition to reading using discipline-specific strategies can place additional challenges for students (as with the earlier transition from learning to read to reading to learn) and result in a new set of reading difficulties and academic underperformance during the middle school years (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Kamil et al., 2008; Snow & Biancarosa, 2003). In a Carnegie Corporation of New York-sponsored report, *Reading Next* (2004), Biancarosa and Snow also noted that fluency and comprehension difficulties are to blame for most of the reading problems seen at this age level (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004).

In this study, struggling readers who qualified for a summer reading intervention (Tier 2 program) were invited to participate in one of three conditions (see Figure 1) as follows: (a) Intervention 1, which used historical content as the basis for information and was taught using a disciplinary reading strategy (CARE, based on Wineburg, Martin, & Monte Sano's 2011 Reading Like a Historian Framework); (b) Intervention 2, which

provided the same historical content as Intervention 1, but utilized a generic reading comprehension strategy (based on Palincsar & Brown's 1984 Reciprocal Teaching); or (c) Intervention 3, based on the cooperating district's traditional Tier 2 Summer Reading Program that utilized several ad hoc reading strategies without historical content. The purpose of the study was to determine which condition(s) could improve students' disciplinary reading and generic reading comprehension skills while also helping them to learn historical information. It also sought to investigate if students with reading disabilities benefitted from the instruction as much other struggling readers, with less severe reading problems.

Figure 1

Intervention Components



Study Context and Rationale

The current study took place in a suburban public school system of approximately 50,000 students, situated between Baltimore and the District of Columbia. Students in this district consistently scored above state averages, performing near the top of all Maryland school systems, based on results from the Maryland School Assessments (MSAs) in reading and mathematics. Because the district includes academically diverse learners, the school system has run a number of summer programs, including an academic intervention summer program, for over a decade. These programs have targeted students entering kindergarten through ninth grade who underperform, or are at risk of underperformance, in reading and mathematics.

In February of 2013, the assistant principals who invite students to the summer program received priority lists to assist them in selecting the students who might receive the greatest benefit from attending the annual summer academic intervention program. For the 2013 summer program, these administrators assigned the existing 5th graders priority for an invitation to the program based on their teacher's most recent rating of individual instructional level (i.e., whether they were on, above, or below grade level performance) in both reading and mathematics, their performance on the reading and mathematics subtests of the prior year's Maryland School Assessment (MSA), and their performance on either their most recent reading and mathematics local assessments (LEA-generated tests) or on their scores on the reading and mathematics subtests of the Measures of Academic Progress (MAP). Assistant principals used to the priority lists in conjunction with teacher recommendations to determine which students to invite to the

program. Students who had extended school year time in their IEPs who were not assigned to a self-contained special education summer program were also selected to attend the academic intervention program.

The programs have been traditionally overseen by county-employed assistant principals and have run for 19 days, 3 hours a day, from late June to the middle of July. Approximately 2,000 students have been served by this program annually receiving (on average) 80 minutes of instruction in mathematics and 80 minutes of instruction in reading every day. Certified teachers provide all instruction, and their supervising assistant principals observed each teacher at least twice during the program.

While students in the program have shown short-term gains in mathematics as well as fluency, word-level reading, and comprehension, evidence of long-term positive effects, as measured by MSA or quarterly local assessment performance, have yet to be found. Therefore, the current study explored whether modification of the system's existing summer reading program might lead to greater gains in comprehension among struggling readers entering sixth grade. These modifications focused on integrating comprehension lessons with primary and secondary source materials into a sixth grade social studies curriculum and teaching students disciplinary reading strategies.

Reading Achievement Data for Adolescents

Evidence that many middle and high school students in this country have not mastered advanced forms of literacy can readily be found in standardized reading test scores. In 2012, fifteen-old students performed just above average in a comparison of 34 countries that report reading outcomes on the Program for International Student Assessment, or PISA (OECD, 2014). Similarly, only 44% of students who took the ACT

in 2014 met the benchmark for reading, with another 14% scoring close to the benchmark and 42% of students scoring significantly below the level that predicts success in college-level reading tasks (ACT, 2014). These outcomes represent declines from just three years prior, when 52% of students who took the ACT in 2011 met the benchmark for reading, with another 12% of students scoring close to the benchmark, and 36% of students scoring significantly below the level which predicts success in college-level reading tasks (ACT, 2011b). It is also discouraging that the average score on the ACT reading assessment has fallen since 2007, from 21.5 to 21.3 in 2011 to 21.0 in 2014 (ACT, 2011b; ACT, 2014).

Younger adolescent students show similar difficulties on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), on the 2014 administration, eighth grade students' average scores were well below proficient (NCES, 2014). While a student who scored at the Proficient level should have been able to identify the main idea, theme, or purpose in a passage, make and support simple inferences, and substantiate judgments, students who scored at the Basic level of proficiency often were unable to do so (NCES, 2011; 2014). Such students were even less likely to make connections across texts, explain causal relationships, and evaluate the strength of the author's presentation (NCES, 2011; 2014).

Components of the Interventions

As illustrated in Figure 1, each of the three interventions shared features. All were Tier 2 interventions, all included discussion to motivate students, and all taught reading comprehension strategies.

Tier 2 Intervention

The response to intervention framework (RTI) is typically conceived as a three-tiered approach to instruction with Tier 1 composed of research-based effective whole class, general education practices, Tier 2 as targeted interventions for students who are not successful with Tier I instruction alone, and Tier 3 as small-group or individualized instruction, often within a special education framework. Central to RTI are screening procedures and progress monitoring tools to track which students are making adequate progress within a given instructional tier and which need to receive additional secondary (Tier 2) or tertiary (Tier 3) instruction. RTI has been shown to improve outcomes for students in the elementary grades (Denton, Fletcher, Anthony, & Francis, 2006) but the results have been more mixed for older, middle school, students (Graves, Duesbery, Pyle, Brandon, & McIntosh, 2011; Kamil et al., 2008; Solis, Miciak, Vaughn, & Fletcher, 2014). The current study explores whether Tier 2 interventions can successfully improve reading outcomes for struggling readers who are about to enter sixth grade.

Summer Programs

One means of providing context-based instruction and shoring up basic and intermediate reading skills is through the use of beyond school hours programs. A recent review of beyond school hours research conducted by Britsch, Martin, Stuczynski, Tomala, and Tucci (2005) argued in favor of the benefits of after school and other out of school time instruction on literacy outcomes while underlining the lack of sound studies on the subject. Further, studies in the related field of summer program interventions have begun to show small, but significant, positive effects on later reading measures. Borman, Benson, and Overman (2005) found that while not all students who attended a Baltimore

summer academy showed decreased summer learning loss, those who attended for the entire 6 weeks of the program did show significantly better fall reading results than controls. More recent studies have also shown that providing students with summer reading books, with or without scaffolding, can also produce small, but significant, positive effects on fall-administered standardized reading tests (Allington et al., 2010; Kim & White, 2008).

Qualitative analyses of effective summer learning programs have also suggested attributes that contribute to student success. Bell and Carillo (2007) identified two types of attributes, one set of which reflected programs' approaches to learning and a second set addressing program infrastructure elements such as professional development, program leadership, and collaborative planning. A 2009 Wallace Foundation report identified other characteristics leading to successful summer programs such as "make learning fun," "ground learning in a real-world context," "hire experienced, trained teachers to deliver the academic lessons," and "keep class sizes small" (Terzian, Moore, & Hamilton, 2009). In their out-of-school time adolescent literacy handbook, Moje and Tysvaer (2010) also stressed that summer school and other beyond school hours literacy programs must possess meaningful content and that programs must have "intentional efforts to link learning to students' everyday experiences and interests" to motivate students to practice and improve literacy skills (Moje & Tysvaer, 2010, p. 21).

Building upon these and other quantitative and qualitative studies, the current study evaluated changes to an academic summer program in an effort to help strengthen the basic and intermediate literacy skills of struggling readers who were entering the sixth grade to prepare them for literacy demands that they would encountered in their middle

school classes. To this end, the current study explored reading instruction that was embedded within the subject of social studies.

Motivation for Reading

A number of recent reports on adolescent literacy have recommended addressing motivation for reading as a means for increasing students' reading performance (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Kamil, 2003; Kamil et al., 2008). These recommendations have been built upon a significant body of research that indicates strong connections between various measures of academic achievement motivation and reading performance.

Beyond adding instructional features to increase motivation, the use of classroom discussion has also received a great deal of focus as a strategy to improve student literacy skills. Kamil et al. (2008), for example, discussed providing opportunities for extended classroom discussion as one of the five best research-based strategies for improving adolescent reading skills. They noted that discussion can help students internalize effective strategies advocated by their peers and that having to defend opinions in front of classmates produces better reasoned and more articulate understandings of text. Researchers such as Applebee, Langer, Nystrand, and Gamoran (2003) also reported that students in classrooms which emphasized discussion-based approaches to instruction performed better on measures of literacy performance than peers in less discussion-focused classrooms. All interventions in the current study included classroom discussion and other motivational elements.

Reading Comprehension Strategies

Research-proven reading comprehension strategies include activation of prior knowledge, comprehension monitoring, graphic organizers, story structures, question

answering, question generating, and summarization (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Kamil, 2003; Kamil et al., 2008). A 2011 review of reading strategy instruction indicates that both text enhancement strategies such as graphic organizers, story maps, mnemonic illustrations, and study guides and cognitive and metacognitive strategies such as identification of text structures, cognitive mapping/story mapping, questioning strategies, main idea instruction, summarization, and activation of prior knowledge have moderate to large effects on students' reading comprehension performance (Jitendra & Gajria, 2011). All of the current study's interventions included these types of reading comprehension strategies.

Intervention 3. School system-employed curricular staff members traditionally create reading lessons for the summer Tier 2 intervention programs, with instruction based on the Great Source Summer Success materials and approach (Baumann, Opitz, & Robb, 2008). The texts used were "magazines" from the commercial summer school reading intervention system, a read aloud text, and additional photocopied passages. The texts focused on informational topics, with subjects such as sports, reptiles, ocean animals, Bigfoot, or masks. The texts were chosen to be high interest and to engage pre-teen readers. The lessons were grouped into three units with varied instructional goals: active reading strategies (unit 1), using textual evidence (unit 2), and summarizing (unit 3). Whole class and smaller group discussions were encouraged in the lesson plans.

Interventions 1 and 2. Interventions 1 and 2 included the use of cognitive strategy instruction to encourage gradual release of responsibility to the students. These interventions also included the use of systematic instruction and historical content instruction.

Cognitive Strategy Instruction

Recent reports on adolescent literacy suggest increasing the reading performance of students through cognitive strategy instruction (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Kamil, 2003; Kamil et al., 2008). Cognitive strategy instruction based on the self-regulated strategy development (Harris, Graham, & Mason, 2003; SRSD) model was used to teach students in both Intervention 1 and 2 and incorporates six stages of instruction: (a) develop and activate background knowledge, in which students are exposed to the knowledge, vocabulary, and pre-skills they will need to be successful in the task; (b) discuss it, in which the strategy to be used is discussed, with each step in the strategy explained, including any mnemonics which will be used; (c) model it, in which the strategy is modeled by the teacher or a peer along with vocalizing self-instructions such as problem definition, attention focusing and planning, error correcting and self-evaluation, and self-control and self-reinforcement; (d) memorize it, in which students memorize the steps of the strategy and the meaning of any associated mnemonics; (e) support it, in which the instructor and peers help students by scaffolding the strategy and accompanying self-instructions; and, (f) independent performance, in which students transition to internalizing the strategy and self-instructions and perform them independently.

Systematic Instruction

Systematic Instruction is a carefully planned sequence of instruction, where the goal is to maximize the likelihood that students learn complex skills by breaking the skill into component parts, or chunks, that are easier for the teacher to scaffold and for students to master before reassembling the chunks into the composite skill. Such

instruction that systematically moves from simple to more complex skills, or to integrate a combination of skills, and which builds upon students' prior learning, has been shown to produce better outcomes for students with learning disabilities (Vaughn, Wanzek, Murray, & Roberts 2012). Such results have also been found with generic reading interventions, (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000).

Content Instruction

To better prepare the rising sixth grade student participants for the demands of their middle school program, the novel reading interventions explored here were grounded in the context of a world history unit that students would encounter in the second semester of their sixth grade social studies class. As advocated by Guthrie with both Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (Guthrie, McRae, & Klauda, 2007) and his suggestions for engaging adolescent readers (Guthrie, 2008), teaching reading in content instruction was done to increase relevance between students' interests and what was being read. The history unit also provided a coherent theme-based context in which to ground students' understanding. Furthermore, the intervention was designed to increase students' feelings of competence and mastery by making their literacy instruction relevant to future social studies content and providing time to acquire deep content knowledge. By utilizing on-grade level texts, it was thought that the intervention would also increase student engagement, reading motivation, and performance by providing students with material that was neither too simple to be engaging and challenging, nor so difficult as to cause frustration (O'Connor et al., 2002). Both Interventions 1 and 2 include history content instruction.

Intervention 2

Intervention 2 used the strategy of Reciprocal Teaching to teach reading comprehension and content. Participating students and teachers should have had some familiarity with the strategies utilized in reciprocal teaching prior to the intervention as strategies used in reciprocal reading are used to teach reading comprehension in the district's elementary and middle schools.

Reciprocal Teaching

Reciprocal teaching includes strategies of summarizing, question generation, clarifying, and predicting (Palincsar & Brown, 1984). The purpose is to facilitate work and discussion among students and between students and the teacher in order to bring meaning to the text. The practice is intended to help students improve their understanding of text. The dialogue is structured to incorporate the use of 4 strategies: a) Summarizing. Students summarize the text that was read, b) Questioning. Students identify key information in the text, frame that information in the form of a question, and self-test for understanding and recall, c) Clarifying. Students note when they have experienced a failure in comprehension, identify the source of that breakdown, and ask for help, d) Predicting. Students make a prediction about what they think will happen next.

Intervention 1

Intervention 1 used a discipline-specific strategy to teach reading comprehension and content. While the secondary social studies teachers in the school district in which the study took place were encouraged to teach history-specific strategies for understanding primary source texts, the participating students had not yet entered middle school, and so would not have been exposed to such strategies prior to the intervention.

Disciplinary Literacy

It was expected that participants would benefit from the intervention's alignment with the district's new middle school literacy program that was focused on teaching disciplinary literacy skills within content area classes, including history. Intervention 1 included aspects of the literacy apprenticeship model described by Schoenbach and Greenleaf (2009) as well as instructional features that are prominent in SRSD techniques (Graham and Harris, 2003). Additionally, instruction was informed by the work of researchers such as Moje and Speyer (2008) who had identified potential challenges in disciplinary literacy instruction and suggested solutions for avoiding these pitfalls. These authors argued that because the texts students encounter in content classrooms are grounded in a different social context from the students' own experiences, teachers need to provide students with the necessary background knowledge and skills to successfully bridge those contexts. In order for students to be successful readers of history, teachers must not only provide them with appropriate and readable texts, but also ensure that students have the requisite background knowledge and skills to effectively utilize those texts. The present intervention addressed these challenges by instructing students on difficult or technical terms, providing historical and geographic context through a variety of texts and aides, and explicitly teaching strategies for tackling historical texts.

Beyond simply embedding literacy instruction within the context of a discipline, the intervention in the current study was designed to teach discipline-specific literacy skills, specifically, developmentally appropriate skills in how to read like a historian. Wineburg (1991) found that historians regard texts as artifacts that give us clues to social exchanges and perspectives from a different time and place. Historical artifacts offer

insight into the people who created them and the world in which they lived. Rather than creating artifacts for our use today, historical artifacts were created by people living at a particular point in time with a motivation, audience, and world view distinct from ours. In order to understand historical artifacts, we must understand these subtexts, not just the literal text as an emphasis on generic reading comprehension might encourage.

In order to understand historical artifacts, Wineburg (1991) found that historians question their sources— recognizing who created the artifact when "sourcing", imagining the context in which artifacts were created during "contextualization", and comparing and weighing different artifacts through "corroboration." Part of historians' interpretive work in Wineburg's study also relied on consideration of the usefulness or relevance of different historical artifacts to an investigation. For example, historians studying what happened at Lexington Green in April 1775 found a modern-day textbook less useful than a testimony given by colonists involved in the event a few days after.

Historians also bring questions to their study of the past and this shapes their interactions with artifacts. Yet, balancing the questions we bring to historical study in the present with full appreciation of the original meaning of each artifact examined is crucial to working with evidence. In these ways, generic reading comprehension and historical reading are in constant tension since generic reading comprehension emphasizes our present purposes for reading as well as the literal text. Recent studies have balanced reading comprehension with historical reading strategies so that students improve in both areas (Reisman, 2012).

Applications of Wineburg's seminal research have been found helpful in several studies (e.g., De La Paz, 2005; De La Paz & Felton, 2010; De La Paz et al., 2014;

Reisman, 2012), which is why it forms the basis for Intervention 1 in the current study. By focusing students' attention on to concepts such as author perspective, biases, and interpretation of factual information in historical documents, students may be prompted to develop a more nuanced reading and understanding of historical materials.

Research Questions

The questions that this study sought to address were as follows:

1) Do students who participate in a Tier 2 content-based disciplinary intervention or a Tier 2 content-based generic reading comprehension program show greater reading gains than students who participate in a generic comprehension program?
2) Do students who participate in a Tier 2 content-based disciplinary intervention or a Tier 2 content-based generic reading comprehension program show greater content knowledge gains than students who participate in a generic comprehension program?
3) Do students with reading disabilities show the same reading and content knowledge gains as other struggling readers?

The present study utilized an experimental design. The independent variable was instructional program, with students assigned to one of three conditions: Intervention 1, 2, or 3. Students in Intervention 1 learned a disciplinary reading strategy based on the seminal work of Wineburg (1991) and related intervention work by researchers who implemented his findings with students in K12 settings (e.g., De La Paz, 2005; De La Paz & Felton, 2010; De La Paz et al., 2014; Reisman, 2012). Students in Intervention 2 learned a reciprocal teaching reading comprehension strategy, which was also taught

through a cognitive apprenticeship model, but was generic in focus. Intervention 2 allowed a stringent test of the potential benefits of instruction aimed at disciplinary versus generic reading comprehension. Students in Intervention 3 were taught several ad hoc reading strategies that were not part of a coherent reading framework.

Originally, this study attempted to include instructional features to include student motivation for reading, but including these features with fidelity was not possible within the duration of the intervention.

Significance of the Study

The current study was designed to add to research in adolescent literacy and Tier 2 interventions. This study aimed to examine the impact of a specific, research-based discipline-specific adolescent reading intervention on the reading performance of adolescent readers entering sixth grade. This study adds to the disciplinary literacy research by focusing on younger students as most similar studies have focused on older middle or high school aged students. Unlike many past studies of summer programs, the current study utilized a heterogeneous sample of poor readers from a high-performing suburban public school district. While the sample contained many students who received special education services, the sample also included poor readers who did not receive special education services.

Additionally, this study adds to the research on Tier 2 interventions implemented outside of regular school hours. As discussed in a recent study by Prewett et al. (2012), researchers and school administrators are continuing to search for effective Tier 2 interventions for students who fail to respond with adequate growth and achievement to good, research-based Tier 1 classroom instruction. In secondary schools where

intervention time is at a premium and during school hours and regular school year intervention is usually scheduled at the expense of electives or content classes, beyond school hours interventions are seen by many administrators as an effective means of providing Tier 2 interventions. Support for this contention comes from a recent survey of middle school administrators who saw Tier 2 interventions primarily as a means of closing achievement gaps which are evidenced in classroom performance and local and state measures of reading and mathematics performance (Prewett et al., 2012). The students who participated in the current study were identified by using similar criteria (local and state measures of reading performance) and the study took place within a beyond the school year academic intervention framework that operates as one option for providing a Tier 2 intervention to underperforming students. The lessons learned from the current study may therefore add to the growing body of knowledge of the effectiveness of beyond school hours Tier 2 interventions.

This study also tested an underlying assumption of the disciplinary literacy model of adolescent literacy instruction that providing literacy instruction for adolescents within the context of discipline-specific ways of reading, writing, and thinking about the world produces better readers than students who receive generic reading instruction. While this assumption undergirds much of the research on how to best instruct students using a disciplinary literacy model, there exist a paucity of studies that evaluate whether such a model is, in fact, the most effective approach to adolescent literacy instruction.

Dissertation Organization

Chapter One has addressed the problem at the heart of this research project that significant number of adolescents who already underperform on measures of basic and

intermediate literacy are in danger of failing to master disciplinary literacy and the potential of an academic summer program to ameliorate this underperformance. Context for this research was provided through a brief description of the current beyond school hours program that will be modified for this study, as well as the component parts of the modified intervention: strategy instruction, and content-based reading. These research questions were introduced with an overview of the design and the significance of the research was suggested.

In Chapter Two, the problem of adolescent literacy underperformance is addressed in greater depth, with evidence from a number of studies to describe the extent of the current problem. The current view of adolescent literacy and its relationship to disciplinary literacy are also discussed. Greater analysis is given to the myriad approaches to adolescent literacy intervention, with specific focus given to a variety of comprehension strategies, and strategies for teaching disciplinary literacy. The chapter provides a summary of the research on summer programs and gives a rationale for the current study.

In Chapter Three, the methodology for this study is outlined in detail, including a presentation of the demographics for Interventions 1, 2, and 3 of rising sixth grade students participating in this study, a more in depth description of how the beyond school hours program was modified for this study, a discussion of the assessments that were used to measure the effects of the interventions, and a description of the content and instructional elements of Interventions 1 and 2. Chapter Four presents the quantitative and qualitative findings of this study, and Chapter Five includes a discussion of the results and suggests consequences for future research in the fields of adolescent literacy

and beyond school hours instruction. Appendices provide lesson plans, fidelity of implementation protocols, and rubrics or examples for scoring all dependent measures.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE BASE

Adolescent literacy is recognized as more than merely continuing decoding, fluency, and comprehension skill mastery started in early childhood (Heller & Greenleaf, 2007; Snow & Biancarosa, 2003). Rather, it also represents the acquisition of a new set of discipline-specific ways to perceive, process, and argue for the legitimacy of a specific view of the world. Adolescent literacy builds upon and therefore requires that students have a solid foundation in the basics of reading comprehension. However, such building blocks are not sufficient for successful mastery of disciplinary literacy (Moje 2007; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). Since students need to develop additional skill sets for reading and writing in particular subjects, the transition to adolescent literacy, much like the transition from learning to read to reading to learn, can place additional stresses upon students and result in manifestation of reading difficulties and underperformance (Biancarosa & Snow 2004; Kamil et al., 2008; Snow & Biancarosa, 2003).

The current study aimed to test whether providing a summer reading program focused on literacy instruction within the context of social studies content would increase the reading performance of rising sixth grade students over peers who received a similar program. To illustrate the basis for the present study, this chapter first differentiates the nature of adolescent literacy from literacy in the elementary grades, beginning with an explanation how higher level demands can lead to new types of reading difficulties for students. Focus will be placed on the subject-specific thinking, reading, and writing skills termed disciplinary literacy as a hallmark of adolescent literacy. The current state of adolescent reading performance will then be examined through an analysis of the most recent PISA, ACT, and NAEP reading data. This chapter will then examine a variety of

promising interventions designed to assist older students improve their reading by reviewing interventions related to comprehension strategies and approaches for teaching disciplinary literacy. How beyond school hours programs can be utilized to improve adolescent literacy will also be reviewed including recent quantitative and qualitative studies demonstrating how beyond school hours programs can be used to improve reading skills for adolescent students.

Method

To obtain articles addressing improving the reading performance of middle school aged students through beyond school hours programs, a number of searches were conducted. This literature review was conducted November 2012 through an electronic search of the EBSCO and PSYCINFO databases for the following key words. The keywords used to search reading interventions were "reading comprehension" and "intervention," "reading" and "intervention," and "reading comprehension" and "instruction." Then specific reading intervention and instruction subtopics were searched including "tier 2" and "reading" and "response to intervention" and "reading," and "comprehension" and "instruction" and "comprehension" and intervention" and "reading" plus "strategy" and "instruction" and "reading" plus "strategy" and "intervention." For disciplinary literacy, "disciplinary" and "literacy," "content" and "reading," "history" and "reading" and "social studies" and "reading" were searched. For summer programs, "summer" and "reading" were searched as was "summer" and "instruction," and "out of/beyond school time" and " beyond school hours," and "reading." Based on key articles Web of Science was used to search for articles that were either cited in the articles or cited these articles. Additional references from selected

articles were obtained. Additional criteria were that the studies were published in peer-reviewed journals in English, and that they focused on students from upper elementary, through ninth grade. Information on the background theories was obtained through secondary electronic and hand searches. The narrowing of the topic was necessary to keep the review manageable; by excluding certain research the literature review was able to have a much tighter focus and greater depth.

Adolescent Literacy

While both researchers and practitioners have made great strides in understanding and nurturing early literacy skills (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD), 2000; RAND Reading Study Group, 2002), adolescent literacy is a construct which has become a focus in the research community in the past 10 to 15 years and is still largely ignored in most classrooms (Snow & Moje, 2010). Many practitioners wrongly surmise that adolescent literacy is simply a natural extension of early literacy skills, and that good instruction in word-level decoding, fluency, and basic reading comprehension is sufficient to provide students with the literacy skills needed to be successful in middle school, high school, and beyond (Snow & Moje, 2010). The performance of middle and high school students on standardized measures of reading performance and recent re-conceptions of adolescent literacy illustrate that such an "inoculation" theory of adolescent literacy is a fallacy (Snow & Moje, 2010, p 66).

Academic Performance of Adolescents

Among the OECD countries, the United States has one of the lowest rates of college completion, with only 57% of students who enter college going on to graduate (OECD, 2010). In contrast, the average completion rate for all OECD countries is 70%,

for Polish students it is 61%, for students in Belgium it is 72%, and for Korean students it is 84% (OECD, 2010).

Such a low completion rate is not surprising given the small percentage of students who possess the reading skills necessary for success in college. ACT, Inc. has been tracking the performance of high school students who have taken their ACT college entrance exams, which measure whether or not students possess the English, reading, mathematics, and science skills they need to be successful in college. ACT has created College Readiness Benchmarks, which are the minimum scores which students need to have approximately a 75% chance of earning a "C" in a college-level course or a 50% chance of earning a "B" or better (ACT, 2011a). ACT has demonstrated that their reading benchmark is roughly equivalent to a score of 519 on the 2009 PISA reading literacy assessment, falling in the performance range of students from such countries as Australia (515) and Japan (520) (ACT, 2011a).

Unfortunately, only 52% of students who took the ACT in 2011 met the benchmark for reading, with another 12% of students within 2 points of obtaining the benchmark score of 21 (ACT, 2011b). This leaves 36% of students scoring significantly below the level that predicts success in college-level reading tasks (ACT, 2011b). Also discouraging is that the average score on the ACT reading assessment has fallen slightly since 2007, from 21.5 to 21.3 in 2011 (ACT, 2011b). Perhaps most concerning is that students who achieve the benchmark of 21 or average score of 21.3 still fall within a score range which can be achieved without having such higher-level comprehension skills as being able to identify subtle cause and effect relationships or cause and effect relationships in complicated passages, use context to determine the meaning of figurative

words and phrases in complicated passages, or draw generalization or conclusions about people and ideas in challenging passages (ACT, 2010).

While the PISA and ACT assessments focus on the performance of high school age students, the National Assessment of Educational Progress examines the reading skills of fourth and eighth grade students, and the most recent results show similar levels of underachievement. On the 2011 administration, fourth grade students averaged a score of 221, an average that has remained unchanged from the last two administrations in 2009 and 2007 (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2011). This score would place a student between the Basic (208) and Proficient (238) levels of achievement. Such a student would be able to locate information in texts, make simple inferences, interpret the meaning of words from context, and use text details to support a given interpretation or conclusion (NCES, 2011). However, the student might struggle with integrating and interpreting texts, drawing conclusions, and making evaluations and would likely be unable to demonstrate Advanced level skills such as making complex inferences, constructing and supporting an inferential understanding of the text, and using such an understanding to support judgments (NCES, 2011).

An even greater gap between achievement and proficiency can be seen on the eighth grade assessment. While the average score increased a point from the 2009 administration, from 264 to 265, and two points from the 2007 average of 263, this still leaves the average student almost 20 points below the Proficient level cut score of 283 (NCES, 2011). While an average student should be able to identify a passage's main idea, theme, or purpose, make simple inferences, and discern the meaning of words from context, they may be unable to summarize main ideas or themes, support inferences about

a text, identify text features, or substantiate judgments about the content or presentation of a text (NCES, 2011). They would not likely possess Advanced level skills such as making connections across texts, explaining causal relationships, and evaluating the strength of the author's presentation (NCES, 2011).

Higher Level Reading Skills

Why are secondary level students failing to demonstrate proficiency on such standardized reading assessments as the PISA, ACT, and NAEP? Part of the problem may be that the focus in reading research and instruction has long been on early reading acquisition, with the thought that if students can master the early skills of decoding, fluency, and basic comprehension, then they can progress into adolescent literacy without the need for further reading instruction (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008; Snow & Moje, 2010). However, this assumes that adolescent literacy is not different in kind from basic literacy, but simply requires mastery of early literacy skills.

In their 2008 article, Shanahan and Shanahan laid out a new conceptualization of adolescent literacy and its relationship to early literacy. Shanahan and Shanahan (2008) viewed literacy as a multi-leveled pyramid with three fundamental levels of complexity. At its base, literacy requires students to possess basic reading skills including decoding, a vocabulary of high frequency words, and basic fluency and comprehension skills. "Basic literacy" is usually mastered in the primary grades and it is mastery of these skills that allows students to move from learning to read to reading to learn (Chall, 1996). The next level of literacy is "intermediate literacy," which is characterized by knowledge of generic reading comprehension strategies, a larger vocabulary, and greater reading fluency. Students begin to master this level of literacy in the intermediate grades while

developing more sophisticated comprehension strategies such as self-monitoring, using text features, self-questioning, and making inferences.

At the top of the literacy pyramid is "disciplinary literacy." This level not only requires mastery of the levels below, but also exposure to the specialized modes of thinking, argument, and writing found in the subject area disciplines of mathematics, science, and the social sciences, in addition to literature. Disciplinary literacy also shares elements with what Langer (2001) termed "high literacy" as "the ability to use language, content, and reasoning in ways that are appropriate for particular situations and disciplines" (Langer, 2001, p. 838). Disciplinary literacy not only requires that students have familiarity with the modes of thinking, arguing, and writing in a variety of disciplines, but also that they possess the cognitive flexibility and executive skills to judge when and how to apply this knowledge to a given situation.

Shanahan and Shanahan (2008) noted that while the majority of middle school students can master the first two levels of literacy, many are unable to progress to the highest level because disciplinary literacy has not been a curricular focus. Recent educational reforms have begun to bring disciplinary literacy to the forefront. The Common Core State Standards, which were originally adopted by all but five states, stress the importance of teaching literacy as part of content area instruction (National Governors Association & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010). But while the Common Core State Standards will set goals for integrating literacy within content classrooms, it is up to the individual states and school districts to determine how to accomplish those goals. Indeed, within the field of disciplinary literacy, researchers have begun to suggest, and test, a variety of strategies to effectively communicate discipline-

specific literacy within the classroom. While some researchers try to determine whether existing comprehension strategies such as questioning the author (Buehl & Moore, 2009) or using graphic organizers (Ellis, Wills, & Deshler, 2010-2011) can be effectively translated to the disciplinary literacy context, others stress that individualized approaches need to be developed that are tailored to the nature of each discipline (Pearson, Moje, & Greenleaf, 2010; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008).

While researchers and practitioners continue to work to develop effective practices for teaching high-level disciplinary literacy, the most recent standardized testing data argues that many, if not most, students will be unable to fully comprehend and actualize such practices without remediation of lower-level reading skills. The work of Laberge and Samuels (1974) and Perfetti (1985) strongly suggests that adolescent readers will be unable to devote the cognitive capacity and working memory necessary to apply such higher-order comprehension strategies, unless they have first mastered lower-level comprehension processes and are able to read with fluency. Without developing automaticity and efficiency with basic and intermediate literacy skills, students will not have the free cognitive resources to apply disciplinary literacy approaches to what they read. It is therefore important to determine what intervention strategies are effective in bolstering reading comprehension and its component parts (decoding, vocabulary, fluency) in adolescent readers.

Reading Interventions for Adolescent Readers

Response to intervention (RTI) models of instruction have been found to be beneficial for younger students struggling with reading skills (Denton, et al., 2006) and researchers have explored whether such models would also assist adolescent students

who have demonstrated reading difficulties. A number of meta-analyses and syntheses of research have found moderate positive effects of reading interventions with older students, particularly multi-component interventions that utilize a mixture of decoding, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension strategies (Edmonds, et al., 2009; Scammacca et al., 2007; Solis et al., 2012; Wanzek et al., 2013). Solis et al. (2014) summarized the implications from these studies as follows: while adolescents with reading difficulties do benefit from interventions, reading deficits cannot be remediated quickly or easily and most students will require multi-year interventions; most adolescents with reading difficulties have deficits in multiple reading component areas (decoding, vocabulary, fluency, etc.); adolescents with reading difficulties need explicit instruction with frequent modeling and feedback; interventions with multiple reading comprehension strategies have shown positive outcomes; teachers should try to increase students' motivation to read and increase task engagement; group size does not seem to affect outcomes.

The Texas Center for Learning Disabilities, for example, undertook a longitudinal study of RTI instruction with sixth through eighth graders (Solis et al., 2014). This series of studies took place in seven middle schools in three districts in the southwest United States. An initial sample of 1,025 struggling adolescent readers in grades 6 to 8 was identified as those students who received a scale score below 2,150 (30^{th} percentile) on the Texas state-wide high stakes test of reading, the TAKS. Students assigned to treatment and comparison conditions received Tier 1 reading intervention through their content area classes, with participating content area teachers receiving 6 hours of professional development and classroom support to incorporate research-based vocabulary and reading comprehension instruction in their science and social studies

classrooms. Students assigned to the Tier 2 intervention were provided daily reading instruction during their elective period for the entire school year. Students received explicit instruction in word study, reading fluency, vocabulary, and reading comprehension utilizing commercial reading materials. Sixth graders were taught in groups of 10 to 12 students while seventh and eighth grade students were randomly assigned to groups of 3 to 5 or 10 to 15 students. Students who still met the TAKS criteria after the first year of the three-year study participated in daily Tier 3 intervention and were randomly assigned to either a standardized or individualized treatment protocol. Both protocols included explicit instruction in word study, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. In the standardized protocol the amount of time spent on each of these components was set, while in the individualized instruction lesson sequence was based on student mastery. Students who did adequately respond to the years of Tier 2 and Tier 3 intervention received a continuation of Tier 3 intervention during their eighth grade year.

At the end of the first year of the study, Tier 2 sixth graders showed statistically significant outperformance of their comparison peers on measures of word reading, word attack, fluency, and reading comprehension. In contrast, seventh graders showed few gains compared to peers who did not receive Tier 2 interventions, and there was no statistically significant effect of group size. Additionally, there was no statistically significant effect found with the group size of the seventh and eighth grade interventions. At the end of the second year of the study, students in both Tier 3 interventions performed significantly better than their control peers on reading comprehension tasks. The two Tier 3 conditions differed when compared to the control condition on word reading, word attack, fluency, and spelling, with students in the individualized condition

performing worse compared to controls on all measures. Additionally, students identified by their schools as having disabilities also had significantly better outcomes with the standardized intervention rather than the individualized intervention. Year 3 results focused on eighth grade students who continued to receive Tier 3 interventions. These students had significantly higher scores than comparison students on reading comprehension and word attack measures as a result of Tier 3 students maintaining performance while the performance of comparison students declined.

Taken as a whole, the results of these studies illustrate that Tier 2 and Tier 3 multi-component interventions can show significant benefits over control conditions with middle school students. The studies also showed that struggling adolescent readers likely need multi-year interventions to remediate long-standing reading difficulties. The studies also showed that group size was not related to student performance and that individualized instruction may not be more beneficial than standardized multi-component instruction.

In 2010, the Carnegie Corporation of New York-sponsored a report entitled, *Adolescent Literacy Development in Out-of-School Time* in which Moje and Tysvaer described the myriad characteristics of the struggles commonly faced by adolescent readers. These include: being challenged by basic vocabulary, not performing well on long text passages, reading slowly, possessing poor fluency, struggling with complex writing tasks, and needing help with specific disciplinary literacy skills (Moje & Tysvaer, 2010). Because success in adolescent literacy requires mastery of basic and intermediate literacy skills, struggling adolescent readers may exhibit a wide range of reading skill deficits, including decoding difficulties, limited vocabulary knowledge, insufficient

background knowledge, lack of linguistic/textual skills, insufficient knowledge or use of comprehension strategies, and difficulties in making inferences (Moje & Tysvaer, 2010).

Due to the wide range of reading problems seen in adolescent readers, the suggested intervention techniques have likewise been wide-ranging. In the Alliance for Excellent Education-funded *Adolescents and Literacy: Reading for the 21st Century*, Kamil (2003) proposed intervention strategies related to motivation, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension strategies such as activation of prior knowledge and strategy instruction (Kamil, 2003). Biancarosa and Snow (2004) identified fifteen key elements to improving adolescent literacy achievement, divided into nine instructional improvements and six infrastructure improvements. Among the nine instructional improvements for which they advocated are direct, explicit comprehension instruction, effective instructional principles embedded in content, motivation and self-directed learning, text-based collaborative learning, and diverse texts (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004). The Institute for Educational Science's *Improving Adolescent Literacy: Effective Classroom and Intervention Practices* (2008) focused on a slightly different set of research-based interventions: "explicit vocabulary instruction," "direct and explicit comprehension strategy instruction," "providing opportunities for extended discussion of text meaning and interpretation," "increasing student motivation and engagement in literacy learning," and "making available intensive and individualized interventions for struggling readers that can be provided by trained specialists" (Kamil et al., 2008, p. 7).

Explicit Comprehension Strategy Instruction

The recommendations of Biancarosa and Snow (2004), Kamil (2003), and Kamil et al. (2008) all stressed the importance of explicit instruction in comprehension

strategies. Kamil (2003) focused on activation of prior knowledge and the eight NRP-sanctioned (2000) strategies of comprehension monitoring, cooperative learning, graphic organizers, story structures, question answering, question generating, summarization, and the use of multiple strategies. Biancarosa and Snow (2004) included comprehension strategies instruction and comprehension monitoring and metacognition instruction under their rubric of "direct, explicit, comprehension instruction." Kamil et al. (2008) focused more on the active participation of students in comprehension strategy instruction, rather than on the efficacy of any particular strategy or approach. While these authors differed in the types of comprehension strategy instruction they advocated, a common finding was that many students in the secondary grades need additional, explicit, instruction in comprehension in order to meet increased reading demands.

In their 2011 review of comprehension strategies for students with learning disabilities, Jitendra and Gajria provided a framework for describing and evaluating the various comprehension strategies by dividing them into two groups: text enhancement strategies and cognitive and metacognitive strategies. While the framework was developed within the context of special education instruction, the strategies themselves have proven effective for other struggling readers as well (e.g., Schumaker, et al., 2006).

Text enhancement strategies. Text enhancement strategies help teachers to organize and present complex material in a way that makes it easier for students to understand (Jitendra & Gajria, 2011). These strategies include graphic organizers, story maps, mnemonic illustrations, study guides, and computer assisted instruction. In a 2005 meta-analysis of 23 studies, Jitendra, Gajria, Sood, and Sacks found that text enhancement strategies, also known as content enhancement strategies, produced an

average effect size of .97 with average maintenance effects of .57 (n=3) and a transfer effect size of .67 (n=1). Advanced/graphic organizers were found to have an average effect size of 1.05, while mnemonic techniques had a mean effect size of 1.04. Computer assisted instruction, study guides, and framed outlines also showed positive effects.

A 2004 review of the effectiveness of graphic organizers by Kim, Vaughn, Wanzek, and Wei also found positive results in students with reading disabilities. The authors looked at 21 intervention studies and summarized the results of their data synthesis according to type of graphic organizer, grade level of participants, and other measures. Nine studies of semantic organizers, which "represent relationships between concepts and features of concepts (e.g., related vocabulary)," were examined (Kim et al., 2004, p. 110). These studies included the use of semantic mapping, semantic feature analysis, and semantic/syntactic feature analysis. Eight of the studies showed large effect sizes (d=0.81-1.69) and one showed a moderate effect size (d=0.40).

Three additional studies looked at the effectiveness of cognitive maps with mnemonics on students' reading comprehension, while another seven studies examined cognitive maps without mnemonics. Nine of these ten studies showed positive effects, with effect sizes ranging from .81 to 5.07. The remaining study did not find a significant positive effect of cognitive mapping, however the comparison condition in that study was very similar to the intervention, likely weakening any effect of the intervention (Kim et al., 2004). Two of the 21 studies reviewed examining framed outlines (graphically represented lesson outlines) also showed positive effects on reading comprehension, with effect sizes of 0.80 and 1.78.

A meta-analysis by Dexter and Hughes (2011) also examined the effectiveness of graphic organizers, focusing on studies with participants in the upper-elementary, intermediate, and secondary grades (4-12). The authors found 55 posttest effect sizes in 16 published articles. After removing six outliers, the authors found an overall effect size of .91. Examining the 29 studies which included measures of maintenance, Dexter and Hughes (2011) found a medium effect (ES=.56) on maintenance measures given to students one to four weeks after their interventions. These results confirmed those found through the synthesis of Kim et al. (2004), and extended the earlier analysis by showing that the positive effects of instruction with graphic organizers may continue for weeks.

Positive results have also been found in older students with learning disabilities or reading difficulties and in disciplinary reading contexts. Darch and Carnine (1986) provided fourth through sixth grade students with typical text instruction or instruction which was supplemented with a visual display of the concept relationships within each unit of study. The authors found that the additional visual display of the concept map resulted in an effect size of 1.79.

The results from multiple meta-analyses and specific studies have shown that a variety of text enhancement strategies can improve reading comprehension. While the focus of most of these studies was on younger readers and readers with disabilities, similar results have been reported in studies in which the struggling readers included adolescents with and without specific disabilities.

Cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Cognitive and metacognitive strategies support students as they develop higher-level thinking skills such as those required for reading comprehension (Jitendra & Gajria, 2011). These strategies include identification

of text structures for narrative and informational text, cognitive mapping/story mapping, questioning strategies, main idea instruction, summarization, activation of prior knowledge, and multiple strategy instruction. In their 2005 meta-analysis, Jitendra et al. examined 10 studies using cognitive strategy instruction and found an average effect size of 1.91, an average maintenance effect size of 2.16, and an average transfer effect size of 1.79 (n=4). Looking at specific strategies, the authors found that interactive strategies such as summarization, cognitive mapping, restatement, and identification of text structures resulted in a mean effect size of 1.83. Interventions using multiple strategies had the largest average effect size of 2.06.

Supporting the results of Jitendra and Gajria (2011), Sencibaugh's (2007) meta-analysis examined thirteen studies using 20 interventions that the author described as "auditory/language dependent," making use of strategies that could also be termed "cognitive and metacognitive." Sencibaugh (2007) found effect sizes ranged from 3.65 to .12. The largest effect sizes were found with interventions using paragraph restatement (ES=3.65) and text structures (ES=2.39). Significant positive effects were also found in studies utilizing summarization strategies (ES=2.71), self-instruction strategies (ES=1.33, 1.52, 1,72, 1.16), reciprocal tutoring (ES=1.07), and didactic teaching (ES=.98).

The results of a meta-analysis by Berkeley et al. (2009) also showed positive effect sizes for questioning and strategy instruction approaches. The overall average effect size for the 22 studies utilizing such strategies was .75. These studies represented the use of a variety of intervention approaches, elaborative integration, self-questioning, main idea strategy instruction, and text structure analysis. Five studies had very large effect sizes of greater than 2.0, all instructing students to ask and answer questions about

main idea, and all but one included some form of self-monitoring. However, three questioning/strategy instruction studies also produced negative effect sizes. The authors suggested that two of these studies likely showed such effects because of the nature of the comparison instruction, while the third may have resulted in a negative effect size because the intervention (peer tutoring using collaborative strategic instruction) was complex and took much longer for students to integrate into reading practice than the comparison strategy (Berkeley et al., 2009).

Looking specifically at adolescent readers, a 1992 study by Gajria and Salvia considered how instruction in a summarization strategy would affect the comprehension performance of sixth through ninth grade students with learning disabilities who struggled with comprehension but were adequate decoders. The students in the experimental group received direct instruction in the methods of superordination, deletion of redundant information, selection, invention, and deletion of unimportant information. Students were then tested on a researcher-made multiple-choice assessment comprised of five questions requiring summarization and five factual questions, as well the comprehension subtest of the Gates-MacGinitie. Students in the summarization group significantly outperformed controls on the condensation and factual questions on posttest. They also performed significantly better on a different form of the Gates-MacGinitie comprehension subtest after training than they did before training.

Jitendra, Hoppes, and Xin (2000) examined the effects of summarization and self-monitoring strategies with sixth through eighth grade students with LD. Students in the experimental condition were taught to summarize the main idea of a passage by generating main idea sentences, classifying main action, identifying distracter sentences,

and describing the where/when/why/how of the passage. Students in this condition were also taught a self-monitoring strategy of reading the paragraph, using a prompt card to recall the steps of the summarization strategy. Student comprehension was measured by researcher-developed multiple-choice assessments and student generated main idea responses. Students in the experimental condition significantly outscored control on the multiple-choice assessment (ES=2.71) and generative responses (ES=1.28), and multiple-choice items at posttest (ES=2.13) and delayed posttest (ES=1.46).

Summary. The above studies were used to design the intervention in the current study. They illustrate that a variety of specific comprehension strategies have been shown to increase students' reading performance on text-specific comprehension measures. While these studies primarily used students with diagnosed reading disabilities as their subjects, there is evidence to suggest that these approaches would also be successful for other struggling adolescent readers (Shaywitz, Fletcher, Holahan, & Shaywitz, 1992). Based on this review in the present study, students in both Intervention 1 and 2 received text enhancement strategy instruction. Students in both conditions made use of graphic organizers to better comprehend difficult material. Additionally, students in the Intervention 1 used a mnemonic (C.A.R.E.) as the basis for their close reading strategy.

The present study also made use of such approaches for students in Intervention 1 and 2, especially self-monitoring strategies. Students in Intervention 2 utilized the reciprocal teaching strategies of summarizing, question generation (self-questioning), clarifying (a self-monitoring strategy), and predicting (from the activation of relevant prior knowledge) (Palincsar & Brown, 1984). Students in Intervention 1 also received

strategy instruction focused on activating prior knowledge, specifically knowledge for the historical content that formed the basis of their lessons.

Disciplinary Literacy/Reading in Context

As mentioned, the concept of disciplinary literacy has been incorporated in the Common Core State Standards that serve as the basis for K-12 curriculum in the majority of states (National Governors Association & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2011). But while disciplinary literacy as a concept, laid out by researchers such as Shanahan and Shanahan (2008), is becoming a curricular focus, there still remain extensive questions surrounding how to best instruct students in the classroom under this new conceptualization. Even more basic is the question whether disciplinary literacy instructional practices will produce students who are more successful on the types of reading and writing tasks which are assessed by tests such as the NAEP and the ACT, and which will be required for success in future educational and career pursuits. While there is yet a paucity of research addressing the second question, researchers possess a number of different views on how to best teach disciplinary literacy in the classroom.

One approach currently championed by a number of researchers is the use of multiple texts (Reisman, 2012; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). This approach, rather than relying on a single authoritative textbook, focuses on teaching students how to navigate among a variety of texts, including authentic primary and secondary sources, in order to build an understanding of how content practitioners read and write within a particular discipline. However, such an approach requires direct instruction in how to read and build knowledge from multiple texts. For example, Wineburg (1991) delineated fundamental historical reading strategies of sourcing, corroboration, and

contextualization after comparing the way in which historians read accounts of the Revolutionary War with how high-achieving students read those same texts. While the historians were easily able to rate a textbook account as unreliable and substantiate why they found it to be untrustworthy, students failed to question the validity of the account and missed several context clues which indicated authorial bias. Similarly, Monte-Sano (2010) examined 56 high school students' essay responses to a document-based question about the bombing of Hiroshima and found that students' essays varied widely on measures of historical writing: factual and interpretative accuracy, persuasiveness of evidence, sourcing of evidence, corroboration of evidence, and contextualization of evidence. Like the students in Wineburg's (1991) study, Monte-Sano's (2010) high school students stood out in the lack of attention they paid to sourcing of the evidence presented in the documents on which they based their essays, seeming to think that authors' biases or the sources of their claims were not pertinent to their analysis. The author suggested that this was the result of a lack of explicit instruction in the types of literacy and writing skills that are specifically related to the field of history.

That students need explicit instruction if they are to learn to think, read, and write like historians, is supported by Monte-Sano's (2008) earlier examination of how history was taught in two U.S. History classrooms in Northern California. Both teachers worked in urban schools, had taught for 10 or more years, possessed degrees in history, had improving their students' writing as one of their main instructional goals, and provided their students with writing opportunities at least once per week. However, one teacher worked at a public college-preparatory charter high school whose 440-student enrollment was almost equally composed of students who were Caucasian, African-American, Asian

American, and Latino. The other teacher worked at a comprehensive high school of 2,300 students, where most students were Latino or Asian American. Both schools had approximately 32% of students enrolled in the federal Free and Reduced-price Meal program (FARMs).

Classroom instruction was monitored through interviews, observations, and instructional artifacts (e.g., lesson plans, readings, assignments, tests, etc.). Student progress was measured using pre- and posttest instruments, approximately 7 months apart, which required students to utilize multiple primary and secondary documents to formulate written arguments in response to open-ended questions concerning the inclusion of slavery in the Constitution and the dropping of the atomic bomb on Hiroshima. The student essays were graded on argumentation (claims, evidence, and analysis) and historical reasoning (supporting evidence, addressing documentary evidence, explaining historical perspectives, placing evidence in context, accounting for biases in sources, recognizing causal relationships, and qualifying their arguments).

Monte-Sano (2008) found that while the juniors in each class received equivalent numbers of reading and writing opportunities, students in one course learned analytic writing and worked in groups to analyze source documents, while the students in the other, AP U.S. History classroom, tended to listen to lectures and work independently on reading the textbook and completing essays. Whereas the first teacher structured reading assignments around questions that emphasized close reading of primary and secondary source texts and historical perspectives, the second had students focus on reading their entire AP U.S. History textbook and completing take-home tests measuring student knowledge of historical terms. Students in the first teacher's class received explicit

instruction on how to structure a written argument and also received regular written and oral feedback on their writing, while the second teacher provided little writing advice and minimal feedback to his students.

Students' pre- and posttest essays reflected these differences in instructional style. Looking at differences between their pre- and posttest essay ratings, 81% of students in the first teacher's class improved in argumentation, 75% improved in historical reasoning, and 12 out of 16 students improved on both measures. In the second class, only 2 of 26 students improved in their essay's ratings of argumentation and historical reasoning, while the rest of the students had no change or showed a decline in essay quality. Monte-Sano's (2008) study illustrated that not all students receive instruction which approaches history from the perspective of evidence-based interpretation, provides explicit instruction in how to interpret or compare and contrast historical texts, or scaffolds historical literacy and argumentative writing. It also strongly suggests that providing students with such instruction can significantly improve student performance on the sort of analytical tasks that prepare students for success in college and beyond.

In order to provide suggestions for such explicit forms of instruction, Shanahan and Shanahan (2008) argued for students to be taught three basic skills for analyzing historical texts, based on prior findings from Wineburg's seminal 1991 work: sourcing, finding information about the author, his or her sources, and the type of document being read; contextualization, placing the document within the political, socioeconomic, and cultural context of when and where it was created; and, corroboration, comparing and contrasting the facts and opinions within text with each other and with their own knowledge of the subject. Researchers have found that adolescent readers are able to

learn these strategies and that such an approach improves their comprehension of such texts. De La Paz (2005) provided 10 days of instruction in argumentative writing strategies and 12 days of instruction on versions of Wineburg's (1991) historical reading strategies to a group of 70 eighth graders who varied in initial learning and writing abilities and included 12 students with disabilities, 19 students who were considered to be talented writers, and 39 students demonstrating average academic achievement.

Students were taught to identify the purpose of a text and its trustworthiness (sourcing) by addressing three questions about the author: "(a) What was the author's purpose, (b) do the supporting reasons and explanations make sense, and (c) do you find evidence of bias?" (De La Paz, 2005, p. 144). These questions helped alert students to how an author's purpose shapes the content of his/her text, how textual inconsistencies might cause the reader to question its authority, and how specific word choices might reveal authorial bias. Students were prompted to compare details of a text against others in order to gauge the text's trustworthiness (corroboration) by answering the following questions: "(a) Is an author inconsistent, (b) is a person described differently, (c) is an event described differently, (d) what is missing from the author's argument, and (e) what can you infer from reading across sources?" (De La Paz, 2005, p. 145). The participating history instructor modeled answering these questions while students used a graphic organizer and notepaper to record their own notes.

De La Paz (2005) found that students who received the 22 days of instruction wrote essays on historical topics that were longer (effect size = 1.23), more persuasive (effect size = 1.19), and more historically accurate (effect size = .57) than the essays of students in the control condition. While the larger effect sizes for the length and

persuasiveness of the essays were most likely the result of the writing strategy, the significant effect size for historical accuracy strongly suggests that the instruction in sourcing, contextualization, and corroboration also had positive impacts on students' ability to write about historical texts.

In 2010, De La Paz and Felton published a follow-up study that taught high school students to engage in similar historical reading and argumentative writing strategies in a more naturalistic classroom setting. In their more recent research, the authors extended the original study in the following ways: (a) students in the control group received feedback and practice on the reading and writing tasks on which both groups would be evaluated using existing classroom strategies rather than the experimental approaches; (b) the instructional strategies were taught by the students' social studies teacher only, rather than in a co-taught unit by an English and a social studies instructor; (c) the teachers in the study did not present the strategies in a contiguous block of lessons, but taught them over an entire semester with intervening units that focused on regular social studies content standards; students were eleventh graders, rather than eighth graders as in the original study; and (d) the student groups included students who were average or poor writers, rather than including students with IEPs. Also, as the students in this study were older, both the strategies and the measures of essay quality were more sophisticated in the earlier study. Students were provided with additional questions to consider when sourcing documents, including ones designed to place the text within a specific historical frame to determine when the text was written vis-à-vis its subject matter and whether the time in which it was written could help reveal authorial purpose or bias. Students were also asked to try to determine the "world view"

reflected in the text to better understand what values or assumptions contained in the text might produce bias. In addition to length and overall quality, the high school essays were evaluated on both the number and development of claims and arguments that negate opposing claims they contained, as well as references to the provided source documents.

The results from this second study were equally positive in comparison to those from De La Paz's (2005) previous research with younger students. Although neither study reported reading comprehension outcomes, students in the experimental condition wrote longer essays (effect size =.66), their essays were of better quality (students in the experimental group were twice as likely as students in the control group to receive the highest score of "4" on their essays), their essays more likely to contain a developed rebuttal (78% for students for the experimental group, compared to 44% for all essays), and students in this group were more likely to contain references or cites to source documents (83% for student in the experimental group and 54% for students in the control group). However, students in the experimental group did not produce essays with significantly more claims than students in the control group when the analysis controlled for the length of students' essays. Overall, the results supported the hypothesis that strategy instruction with an emphasis on historical reasoning and writing can assist high school students in developing both writing and disciplinary literacy skills, just as it had with middle school students, and the study provided a recent illustration that high school students benefit from instruction in reading with multiple texts to understand historical events and argue positions on historical questions.

Wineburg's groundbreaking 1991 research delineated the fundamental historical reading strategies of sourcing, corroboration, and contextualization and demonstrated that

all students, unlike historians, fail to question the validity of historical accounts and miss context clues which indicated authorial bias. In 2011, Wineburg, along with Martin and Monte Sano, created a tool for teaching disciplinary literacy strategies in history classrooms: *Reading Like a Historian: Teaching Literacy in Middle and High School History Classrooms* (Wineburg, Martin, &Monte Sano, 2011). The text provided the structure for teaching students the strategies of sourcing, corroboration, and contextualization through a comparison of primary source documents with differing points of view on an historical event or question (modified for readability per the suggestions of Wineburg and Martin [2009]), along with sample lesson plans showing how to bring such disciplinary literacy instruction to middle and high school classrooms.

The materials in the book have since been expanded, with 71 United States History lessons and 31 World History lessons currently posted on the Reading Like a Historian website (http://sheg.stanford.edu/rlh). The Reading Like a Historian (RLH) Framework has been utilized both by numerous school districts, including the one in which the present study took place, and as a resource for developing curricular materials for research of the effectiveness of history-based disciplinary literacy instruction.

For example, Reisman (2012) used a modified RLH intervention to build upon the findings of Wineburg, De La Paz, and others by not only examining students' reading skills and written products, but also assessing the effects which disciplinary literacy instruction has on their content knowledge. Using a quasi-experimental design with 236 eleventh grade students in five urban public high schools, the author examined the effects of a six month document-based disciplinary literacy U.S. history intervention on (a) students' historical thinking skills, (b) students' ability to transfer disciplinary literacy

strategies to contemporary situations, (c) students' factual knowledge of U.S. history as measured by released multiple choice test questions drawn from the New York State Regents Exam in U.S. History and the Grade 11 California Standards Test (CST) in U.S. History, and (d) growth in general reading comprehension skills as measured by the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test (GMRT).

For the intervention, the author made use of a reading apprenticeship model with instructors providing explicit strategy instruction, students engaging in guided practice including group activities, and students independently applying the strategies to new situations. Like De La Paz and Felton (2010), Reisman (2012) focused the intervention around the three historical reading strategies of sourcing, contextualization, and corroboration, but also trained students on "close reading": careful examination of the authors' word choice and use of language in assessing the authors' authority and potential bias. Like De La Paz and Felton (2010), Reisman (2012) provided students with multiple texts related to a historical event and then modeled the historical reading strategies which the students would use to reconcile the texts and address larger historical questions. In addition to adding a separate strategy of "close reading," the RLH approach utilized by Resiman (2012) differed from De La Paz and Felton's (2010) model by being more narrowly focused on addressing specific questions than De La Paz and Felton's more open-ended self-questioning approach.

Reisman (2012) found that the intervention had positive effects on all four measures: historical thinking (ES=17.37, $p<.001$), strategy transfer (ES=14.95, $p<.001$), factual knowledge (ES=5.65, $p=.019$), and reading skills (ES=8.70, $p=.004$). On measures of historical thinking, the author found significant effects on two of the four

strategies taught, sourcing (ES=15.89, p<.001) and close reading (ES=9.62, p=.002), but not corroboration or contextualization. The author speculated that the salience of sourcing and close reading, which teachers could demonstrate with visible, concrete actions on single texts, caused students to be more successful on those two strategies than corroboration and contextualization, which were more difficult, intertextual strategies. The study's overall results, however, provided further evidence that students can successfully utilize disciplinary literacy strategies, and that focusing instruction on such strategies does not result in detrimental effects to students' content knowledge.

In their discussion of utilizing multiple texts, Shanahan and Hynd (2008) provided guidance on how to mitigate possible problems with implementing a multiple text strategy in the classroom. In order to support students whose independent reading levels might be below the levels of the texts being used, they suggested the following: pre-teaching of potentially difficult vocabulary; providing students with easier texts to anchor their understanding before moving on to more challenging texts; teaching students about the types of literary genres they will encounter, the purposes for each genre, and how meaning is typically constructed in each genre; using cooperative learning to have peers share reading strategies with less proficient readers; and, provide basic discipline-specific background information before students begin to work with texts. Using these approaches, content teachers can help ensure that students who enter their classrooms with different levels of reading proficiency can all be successful in learning disciplinary-specific strategies.

Other approaches to teaching disciplinary literacy also focused on providing reading supports to students of all ability levels while instructing students how to think,

read, and write as historians do. Schoenbach and Greenleaf (2009) presented anecdotal evidence to support an engaged academic literacy model based upon dispositions for academic engagement, text-based problem solving, discipline-based literacy, and resilient learner identities. Within this model, academic engagement in adolescents was established through a literacy apprenticeship approach. Under such an approach, teachers explicitly shared with students the strategies, processes, and "discourse rules" which formed the basis for reading and writing within a discipline. Teachers supported dispositions towards engagement in academic activities by encouraging students' curiosity, desire to actively construct meaning rather than just receive facts, and tolerance for ambiguity. Persistence was encouraged and students were taught that making mistakes is an integral part of learning. Students were also taught that texts are constructed by individuals for particular purposes and based in authorial biases and assumptions, that they are not objective repositories of facts, and that they can be questioned by readers. Teachers explicitly modeled problem-solving and discipline-based literacy practices and helped students to develop resilient literacy identities by encouraging them to learn new information and try new experiences and by supporting and valuing the participation of all students.

To show the value of engaging students in academic literacy activities, Schoenbach and Greenleaf (2009) presented qualitative findings from two high school classrooms, an Introduction to Chemistry classroom and a U.S. History class. In the Introduction to Chemistry class, the teacher's apprenticeship approach helped him to engage a student who began the school year by only reluctantly participating in classroom activities and receiving poor marks but ended the year with an "A" and an

expressed desire to become an engineer. In the U.S. History class, students were able to read and understand the majority and dissenting opinions in the 1944 Supreme Court case, *Korematsu v. United States*, which upheld the detention of citizens of Japanese ancestry during World War II. Students worked in pairs to prepare for reading the decisions by reviewing the Articles of the Constitution and reflecting on related historical events such as Lincoln's suspension of *habeas corpus* during the Civil War. Their teacher supported their analysis of such difficult documents by probing student thinking and prompting larger group discussions with open-ended questions. In both classrooms, the majority of instruction was through classroom discussion, with students talking through comprehension strategies with peers as well as their instructor. Based on the descriptions of the two classrooms, the authors made a strong case that an engaged academic literacy approach allowed students to tackle difficult subject matter and engaged students who would have otherwise remained reluctant readers.

Beyond promoting specific strategies, critics have suggested solutions to pitfalls that might be encountered in any disciplinary literacy model. Moje and Speyer (2008), for example, argued that because the texts students encounter in content classrooms are grounded in a different social context from the students' own experiences, teachers need to provide students with the necessary background knowledge and skills to successfully bridge those contexts. Using the example of the Emergency Quota Act of 1921, the authors identified six types of knowledge or skills that students needed to understand text: (a) semantic knowledge of the technical meanings in the passage; (b) mathematical knowledge of terms and calculations described in the Act; (c) historical knowledge to place the legislation in its social and political context; (d) geographic knowledge to

recognize patterns among the countries of the immigrants in the Act; (e) discursive knowledge to understand the type of document being read, the audience to which it was addressed, the form in which it was written, and the choice of words; and (f) pragmatic knowledge to understand that texts can be questioned and that authority needs to be evaluated.

In order to help students acquire the knowledge and skills they need to comprehend disciplinary texts, the authors suggested five strategies: "(a) whole group knowledge building, (b) scaffolded reading, (c) questioning, (d) visualization, and (e) summarizing" (Moje & Speyer, 2008, p. 202). Whole group knowledge building is used at the beginning of a unit to identify the purpose of the unit and framing the problems that will be encountered. Students can engage with the problems at the beginning of the unit through free writing or other methods which serve to focus student attention and active background knowledge on the subject. Teachers should also have students engage in previewing activities such as K-W-L, advanced organizers, or anticipation guides as they make explicit what they expect students to gain from the text. Teachers model appropriate discipline-specific reading strategies such as asking questions, defining words from context, interpreting charts and tables, and connecting images to text. By pressing for understanding from students in response to open-ended questions, teachers can help students develop deep understandings of texts by encouraging them to ask and answer "why" questions. Teachers can also enhance student understanding of text by presenting them with appropriate images and visualizations of people and events, although these should not take the place of the text itself. Lastly, teachers need to instruct their students how to summarize what they have read in the text. To that end, the use of K-W-L charts

and other artifacts can help focus students on important information and how it relates to the purpose and problems addressed by the text.

In addition to requiring a variety of types of knowledge and skills, disciplinary literacy often requires that students understand different types of language than those they learned earlier in their schooling or utilize in their extracurricular lives. In reading history, for example, Fang (2012) identified four features that characterize the type of texts adolescents encounter in history classes: generic nouns, nominalizations, causality, and texture. In analyzing and interpreting events, historical discourse often makes use of generic nouns to refer to classes of people, places, and things. Students need to be aware that the use of generic nouns might be used to blur differences among individuals within the same group in order to bolster the author's conclusions. Similarly, nominalizations can be used "efface historical actors or the writer, inject judgment, and obscure interpretations" (Fang, 2012, p. 5) in order to reify the author's viewpoint.

Unlike in elementary history texts, causality is not always explicitly stated in the history texts which adolescent readers encounter. Indeed, causality is sometimes, implicitly or explicitly, conflated with temporal connectedness. Students, therefore, need to be careful in analyzing historical texts to determine the relationship between events. Lastly, the writing in secondary history texts is often not organized chronologically, as it usually is in elementary texts, but rather is layered, with abstract introductory statements followed by narrative recounting of events, and ending with abstract analysis and conclusions. Students need to be cognizant of this shift in structure to better comprehend secondary history texts.

To help students navigate these unfamiliar textual features, Fang (2012) proposed a functional language analysis (FLA) approach to provide students with strategies to identify and analyze the language in disciplinary texts. The approach centers on three comprehension issues: (a) Content, as in "What is the text telling us?"(b) Structure, or "How is the text organized physically and logically?" and (c) Style/voice/tone, as in "What is the author's perspective and how does s/he interact with the reader?" The author suggested that teachers can model such an approach so that students can begin to recognize and anticipate the language patterns of particular disciplines and shift focus to higher-order analysis, rather than focusing on passage comprehension.

Another, more direct, approach to helping adolescent readers navigate unfamiliar text features in primary source documents is to simply adapt those documents to make them more accessible to their audience. Wineburg and Martin (2009) have suggested that presenting students with adapted primary source documents, in conjunction with the unaltered original texts, is a powerful vehicle for helping students to better focus on relevant aspects of the texts, makes the documents more accessible to struggling readers, and encourages engagement rather than discouragement or intimidation. The authors suggested three main strategies for adapting primary source documents: (a) excerpting documents so they focus students' attention on the relevant aspects, (b) modifying syntax, conventionalizing spelling, punctuation, and capitalization, and changing vocabulary (or providing readers with definitions) to simplify the documents and make them more accessible, and (c) presenting documents in large font with ample white space to make documents less intimidating. The authors admitted that the alteration of documents may deprive them of some of their subtlety, but argued that the benefits of providing

struggling readers with access to primary documents and the ambiguity they embody outweigh this loss of nuance.

De La Paz and her colleagues (2014) extended work on history-specific literacy by teaching disciplinary reading and writing instruction to eighth grade US History students in a large diverse school district. Thirteen eighth-grade teachers were recruited for the study, with eight teachers instructing students in the experimental condition and five in the control condition. Students in the experimental condition received 18 periods of the intervention curriculum, taught in three days of six different units that spanned from the American Revolution to Reconstruction. The curriculum was taught by the students' classroom teachers and focused on reading, discussing, and evaluating evidence from primary source historical documents, planning construction of essays in response to historical questions, and then writing those essays. Students were taught using separate reading and writing heuristics. For reading, students were taught to focus on the author's perspective, the context of the text (what type of document it was, where and when it appeared, why was it written?), and substantiation (did the evidence presented support the author's perspective, what evidence was left out?).

Approximately 1,330 students across both conditions completed both the pretests and posttests. The pre- and posttests consisted of essays in which students responded to the historical question "Were African Americans free after the Civil War?" by comparing two primary source documents with opposing viewpoints. Student essays were scored on their ability to write historical arguments, the overall quality of the writing, and the length of the essays. The authors also focus on the fidelity with which the participating teachers delivered the instruction. Teachers received robust professional development across four

full-day Saturday workshops, allowing them to practice teaching key elements of the intervention. The investigators also worked with the teachers on an ongoing basis during their planning time to remind them of the goals and essential components of each lesson. Fidelity was tracked by in person observations of the lessons and scored on four measures: building understanding of strategies, promoting independence in using strategies, building historical and disciplinary knowledge, and classroom management.

The authors found that the intervention had a positive significant impact on the historical argument and essay length scores at posttest, although not on the essays' holistic quality. They also found that the size of the effect was related to how well the teachers implemented the program with fidelity. These effects were stronger with the quality of the students' historical arguments than with their essay length or the holistic quality of their essays. Students with higher reading proficiency, as measured by performance on the state's high-stakes reading assessment, outperformed the lower performing peers on their posttest essays. However, students from all reading proficiency levels showed significant growth at posttest. These results added to the body of research showing positive effects for history-specific disciplinary literacy interventions, and extended those findings to middle school students of mixed ability levels.

Integrating Cognitive and Strategy Instruction with Older Readers

As discussed above, cognitive/metacognitive and text-enhancement reading comprehension strategies have proven successful in improving the reading abilities of students with learning disabilities and other students underperforming in reading. Additionally, increasing student motivation for and engagement in reading activities, through a focus on classroom discussion, providing students with choices in their

learning activities, and connecting reading instruction to relevant and coherent content, has produced positive outcomes for students struggling with reading.

De La Paz and her colleagues completed two additional studies focused on disciplinary literacy outcomes for students through the application of a cognitive apprenticeship model (De La Paz & Felton, 2010; De La Paz et al., 2014). Her work has been discussed above for its findings supporting the belief that adolescents can be successfully instructed in strategies which allow them to read and write like historians. In this section, De La Paz's work will be discussed as the basis for the present study, specifically its ability to unite cognitive reading approaches and strategy instruction within the context of disciplinary literacy.

De La Paz's research (2005; 2010; 2014) was based upon increasing the cognitive sophistication of adolescents' reading and writing through strategy instruction and an apprenticeship model of teaching. As with the teachers in Schoenbach and Greenleaf's 2009 study, the teachers in De La Paz's research used an apprenticeship model to move students towards independence in the cognitively challenging strategies of reading like a historian. De La Paz (2005) based her apprenticeship approach on the self-regulated strategy development (SRSD) model. The SRSD model incorporates six stages of instruction (Harris, Graham, & Mason, 2003): (a) Develop and activate background knowledge, in which students are exposed to the knowledge, vocabulary, and pre-skills they will need to be successful in the task; (b) Discuss it, in which the strategy to be used is discussed, with each step in the strategy explained, including any mnemonics which will be used; (c) Model it, in which the strategy is modeled by the teacher or a peer along with vocalizing self-instructions such as problem definition, attention focusing and

planning, error correcting and self-evaluation, and self-control and self-reinforcement; (d) Memorize it, in which students memorize the steps of the strategy and the meaning of any associated mnemonics; (e) Support it, in which the instructor and peers help students by scaffolding the strategy and accompanying self-instructions; and, (f) Independent performance, in which students transition to internalizing the strategy and self-instructions and perform them independently.

De La Paz (2005) adapted Harris and Graham's original SRSD model for use in general education classrooms to instruct eighth grade students on two strategies: (a) an historical reading strategy which incorporated sourcing, contextualization and corroboration elements, and (b) a prewriting strategy for helping students compose historical arguments; however, only the historical reasoning strategy is discussed here, as the focus of the present intervention is not on writing. The social studies teacher in the experimental condition modeled the historical reading strategies to her students by addressing out loud the questions used to guide students through the strategies of sourcing and corroboration. Students applied the historical reading steps, which were shown on a graphic organizer that outlined each element, and used them as a guide for annotating documents first with the entire class, then in small groups and finally, doing so independently. Students engaged in several days of guided instruction, with the social studies teacher modeling the strategy, then guiding students in a whole class application, and then assisting students as they applied the strategies in small groups and independently. Instructional supports (e.g., the historical reasoning strategy steps) were gradually withdrawn as students developed the ability to independently apply the historical reading strategies. The SRSD model was adapted by dropping criterion-based

decision-making. In addition, the general education students were not prompted to use self-monitoring statements during use of the strategy.

De La Paz and Felton (2010) similarly made use of five elements of the SRSD strategy (students were not required to memorize the strategy) in teaching a more sophisticated historical reading strategy to eleventh grade U.S. history students, although with further adaptations (e.g., dropping memorization of the mnemonics) were made for older students. The participating teachers described and modeled the historical reading strategies, highlighting each component with appropriate documents. The instructors then provided students with a sample structure and essay example for utilizing the strategies to develop historical essays. Students then worked in small groups to apply the strategies while the teachers provided them with a rubric for grading future essays. During independent performance, students used the sourcing and corroboration strategies to read historical documents and write two essays.

In both studies, the authors found that using a modified SRSD strategy as the basis for the disciplinary literacy apprenticeship resulted in important student learning outcomes. Across the two studies, students producing essays which were longer (ES=1.23 for eighth graders; .66 for eleventh graders), were rated as more persuasive (ES=1.19), contained more arguments (ES=1.17), contained more rebuttals (ES=.79), had greater historical accuracy (ES=.57), and showed greater use of historical documents (ES=1.42). While some of these effects are certainly the result of the writing strategies which were also taught to students in the experimental condition, it is clear that the historical reading strategies and the general instructional approach are also responsible for the higher overall quality of the students' responses.

Summary

This study, like that of Reisman (2012), focused on reading comprehension outcomes. The present study aimed to determine whether a disciplinary reading strategy taught using a cognitive strategy instruction model would positively affect students reading outcomes, rather than their writing prowess or historical understanding. To that end, the present study, which also took place with younger readers than the De La Paz studies discussed above, measured the success of the historical reading strategy by students' responses to multiple-choice informational reading items, rather than constructed responses. However, the study implemented several features prominent in De La Paz and colleagues' research by combining cognitive comprehension techniques, an apprenticeship model of instruction, and disciplinary literacy reading strategies. This study looked at similar-aged students as much of the Tier 2 literature.

Beyond School Hours Instruction and Adolescent Literacy

Given the number of middle and high school students who struggle with adolescent literacy demands, it is not surprising that school systems increasingly look to before school, afterschool, and summer school programs, collectively known as beyond school hours instruction, to provide additional literacy interventions for struggling readers. Unfortunately, there is a paucity of quality experimental studies to which LEAs can look for guidance on constructing an effective beyond school hours reading intervention. In their 2005 literature review for the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, Britsch et al. (2005) found only 20 studies related to literacy and afterschool programs, of which only seven found statistically significant positive effects. Of these seven studies most suffered from methodological problems such as small sample sizes

and the absence of control groups. As a result, the authors could only conclude that beyond school hours programs do have some positive benefits on participants' reading achievement (Britsch et al., 2005).

More methodologically sound studies have been done on literacy instruction in summer school programs. The foundation of this research is the 1996 meta-analysis by Cooper, Nye, Charlton, Lindsay, and Greathouse that first provided extensive quantitative evidence for a phenomenon familiar to most teachers, what has come to be known as the "summer slide," the loss of knowledge and skills which students exhibit after returning to school from summer vacation (Borman et al., 2005). Cooper et al. (1996) confirmed and quantified this phenomenon by examining 39 research reports examining summer learning loss. For the 26 of the studies that occurred before 1975, and that were not conducted under conditions that could provide sound data for meta-analysis, the authors simply took note of whether the studies did or did not show evidence of summer learning loss. From those 26 studies, the authors found 86 comparisons of before and after summer break skills and knowledge in the areas of mathematics, reading, language arts, and other subject matter (Cooper et al., 1996). Of these 86 comparisons, 48 indicated summer learning loss. Specifically in the area of reading comprehension, 10 comparisons showed a gain in comprehension skill, seven comparisons showed a loss, and two comparisons showed no pattern of change. The authors noted, however, that the early studies were of "uneven quality" and their conclusions should not be given much weight unless corroborated by more recent results (Cooper et al. 1996, p. 241).

The 13 studies conducted after 1974 yielded 62 independent samples that could be used in the meta-analysis to determine the overall effect size of summer vacation on

student learning. When each sample was equally weighted, the authors found an overall effect size of -.09, which equated to approximately one month of learning loss (Cooper et al. 1996). When the effects on individual subjects were assessed, it was found that effect size on reading in general was -.14, with the effect size on comprehension at -.10. Socioeconomic status was also found to have an effect on summer learning loss in reading, with lower-income students exhibiting an average loss in reading of -.21 and middle-class students actually showing a slight gain of +.06.

Other researchers have built on the authors work, further refining the size of summer learning loss and exploring the factors that are behind the significant achievement gap between middle-class and lower-income children. Borman et al. (2005) examined summer learning loss, and ways to ameliorate its effects, by studying the Teach Baltimore Summer Academy. The Teach Baltimore Summer Academy was an "academically intensive summer program" that trained college students to teach reading and writing to Baltimore City Public School students during approximately 6 weeks each summer (Borman et al., 2005, p. 137). Students began each day with breakfast, followed by 3 hours of reading and writing instruction, lunch, and then afternoon activities, including read-alouds, mathematics activities, foreign language instruction, and art, drama, and recreation. Students also benefited from weekly field trips and "cultural enrichment" activities (Borman et al., 2005, p. 137).

For the study, parents of students at 10 Baltimore City public schools were offered the opportunity to register for the Teach Baltimore program in the spring of 1999. From the registered students, 293 were chosen to receive three summers of intervention through the Teach Baltimore program and 135 were selected for the control condition. An

additional cohort of 145 students began the Teach Baltimore intervention in the summer of 2000, with 113 students placed in the control condition.

The researchers examined the amount of summer learning loss experienced by students in the Teach Baltimore and control groups by testing them on the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills, Fourth Edition (CTBS/4) within a few weeks of the end of school and a few weeks after the beginning of the following school year. In order to better understand the reasons behind the summer learning loss gap between lower-income and middle-class students, the researchers also tracked family influences through school data (e.g., Free and Reduced-price Meals (FARMs) status) and parent surveys.

The authors found that, on average, students in the control and Teach Baltimore conditions exhibited similar summer learning loss effects, approximately 0.10 standard deviations (SDs) for each, comparable to the results from Cooper et al. (1996; Borman et al., 2005). The authors also found that the students' race, gender, and socioeconomic status (SES) did not affect the extent of their summer learning loss. However, they did find that the number of weeks that students attended the Teach Baltimore program did have a significant effect, with each additional week of attendance translating into nearly 5 scale score points on the CTBS/4, or 0.05 standard deviations. Attendance for all 6 weeks of the Teach Baltimore program was associated with a .27 effect size on the fall administration of the CTBS/4.

The authors found factors that influenced student attendance. These included SES, with students coming from families with higher SES attending the program more regularly. An increase of 1 SD in SES was associated with approximately 2 more days of attendance. The authors suggested that higher SES might have contributed to greater

attendance through better access to transportation, flexibility in parental work schedules, and affiliations with the middle-class summer program staff (Borman et al., 2005).

Also, students from families with larger numbers of children showed better attendance, as did students from families who reported greater church participation. For each additional sibling a Teach Baltimore student had, students attended approximately 1.5 more days of the program. Students also realized this 1.5 days of attendance gain for every 1 SD increase in participation in church activities by the students' families. The authors speculated that having more children would encourage families to take advantage of the summer program as a means of childcare as well as academic support. The researchers suggested that greater church participation reflected a willingness to engage in community supports, making it more likely that parents would utilize the Teach Baltimore program as well.

Other researchers, rather than studying full-scale instructional programs such as Teach Baltimore, have focused on smaller-scale summer interventions involving summer reading. Kim (2007) provided 10 Scholastic books to 279 first through fifth grade students at a kindergarten through sixth grade public school. One hundred thirty eight students in the treatment group received their books at the end of the school year and 141 students in the control group received their books after the new school year had begun. Students were administered the Stanford Achievement Test, 10th Edition (SAT10) reading test before and after summer school in order to measure reading growth or loss. Students were also given the Elementary Reading Attitudes Survey (ERAS) before summer break to gauge students' attitudes towards recreational reading, a reading preferences survey to identify their reading genre preferences, and a survey of summer

reading activities after the break. The fall survey also asked students to identify how many children's books were present in their homes. Students' SES were also determined based on school records of students receiving FARMs.

Students received a short lesson during the last week of school to explain the study, inform then that they would receive a letter to remind them to read their books, and show them how to respond to the questions on the reading postcards that they would complete and return during the summer. These postcards asked students to name the book they read and answer three yes/no questions: (a) "Did you finish reading your new book?" (b) "Did you like reading this book?" (c) "Was the book easy to read?" The books provided were matched to the students based on their SAT10 reading level and the genre interests they identified on reading preferences survey.

Kim (2007) reported that that while students in the treatment group who received their books before summer break reported reading more books during the summer than their peers in the control group (4.72 vs. 3.45), posttest SAT10 scores did not show any significant effects on reading skills. The fall survey data did reveal that lower-income students owned fewer books (2.97) than their middle-class peers (4.15). However, lower-income students in the intervention were less likely to report owning only 0-10 books (3%) than their peers in the control group (32%), suggesting that the intervention did help create home libraries for lower-income students.

In the discussion section of his 2007 study, Kim suggested that providing instruction on how to read books over the summer might make summer reading a more effective intervention. Kim and White (2008) reported on such an intervention that did make use of scaffolding to support students' summer reading. Five hundred fourteen,

third through fifth grade students at two public kindergartens through sixth grade schools had their reading skills assessed using the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills (ITBS). After attrition and removal of an extreme outlier, 400 students remained who had both a pretest and posttest ITBS Total Reading score. In June, in addition to the ITBS, students had oral reading fluency assessed with Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS), and were given a pretest reading survey which included the ERAS and a reading preferences survey. During the second week of September, students were given a posttest reading survey to assess their summer reading activities and the number of children's books they owned.

Students were assigned to one of four conditions: control in which students received books in the fall, after summer break, books only, books with oral reading scaffolding, and books with oral reading and comprehension scaffolding (Kim & White, 2008). Scaffolding consisted of three lessons. Lesson 1 focused on the strategies of rereading, prediction, asking questions, making connections, and summarizing. The teacher modeled these strategies by reading a book out loud with the students and stopping to model the strategies at appropriate points. This lesson also explained to the students how to complete the reading postcards they were to complete and send back during the summer vacation. Lesson 2 focused on fluency practice with the teacher first modeling non-fluent reading and then reading fluently while the students made note of the elements of fluent reading. Students then paired up, with one reading a passage while the other provided feedback on fluent reading. Lesson 3 allowed students more practice with a non-fiction book, with the teacher modeling the previously taught strategies and students practicing them alone for comprehension, or with a partner for fluency.

Students in the treatment conditions were mailed one book a week for the 8 weeks of summer vacation. Each book was matched to student preferences and reading level, as determined by the ITBS. Parents of students in the treatment conditions also received a letter and a postcard and were asked to encourage their students to read the books and complete and return the postcard. Parents of students in either of the two scaffolding conditions were also asked to listen and provide feedback as their children read the books out loud to them. The postcard for these students also had a question asking the student to indicate whether their reading improved after reading out loud a book passage a second time and a space for the signature of the person they read to. Students who also received comprehension scaffolding received a postcard with an additional question asking students to indicate which strategies they used to better understand the book they read.

ITBS posttest data showed that students in the control and books only conditions performed similarly, with control students averaging 203.07 and students in the books only condition averaging 203.57 on posttest. However, students in both of the scaffolding conditions significantly outperformed the control students ($p<.03$) with an effect size of .14. Students in the scaffolding groups also did better than the students in the books only condition, although this effect did not reach the level of significance ($p=.063$). Students who received both oral reading fluency and comprehension scaffolding instruction also performed better than students who received only fluency scaffolding (207.0 vs. 204.82), although this difference was not significant. All groups performed similarly on the posttest DIBELS measure. All groups also owned similar numbers of children's books, although the group receiving both forms of scaffolding owned slightly more books than students in the fluency scaffolding only group, the books only group, or the control

group. These results suggested that any type of scaffolding instruction which reminds students to utilize reading strategies and engage in their summer reading books, can help to ameliorate summer learning loss (Kim & White, 2008).

However, it is also worth noting that a comparison of the pretest and posttest ITBS scores did not reveal summer learning loss in any of the student groups, including the control group whose scores increased from 203.3 on the pretest to 204.6 on the posttest. Kim's 2007 study also failed to show loss from pretest to posttest on the SAT10, even for the control groups at all grade levels from 614.9 on the pretest to 618.6 on the posttest. These results might suggest that reading skill loss may not be as pronounced as suggested by the meta-analysis by Cooper et al. (1996).

Allington et al. (2010) demonstrated that scaffolding might not always be necessary to ameliorate summer reading skill loss or produce significant gains, and that providing students with books alone might be as effective over the long term. The researchers pulled their participants from 17 high-poverty (FARMs = 65%-98.5%) Florida elementary schools. The participants were first or second graders when the study began, with 1,082 students being assigned to the intervention condition and 631 students in the control condition. For 3 years, students in the intervention were allowed to select summer reading books from a book fair run by the researchers. Students were told to select 15 books they would like, and were then provided with 12 of their selections on the last day of school (the children were told to order more books than they would receive in case any titles were out-of-stock). The researchers tracked the genres of the selected books and found that pop culture and series books were much more popular with the students than culturally relevant or curriculum related titles. Students' reading skills were

tracked using their performance on the Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test (FCAT), the high-stakes test administered to all third through eighth grade students.

The authors found that students in the treatment group performed significantly better than controls on the FCAT administered after they participated in the summer reading intervention for 3 consecutive years (ES=.14, p=.015; Allington et al., 2010). Students in the intervention group averaged a scale score of 852, compared to students in the control group who averaged 478. The authors also looked only at the scores of students who received Free and Reduced Meals (FARMs), and found that these students who received the summer books intervention also significantly out-performed their control peers, with an even larger effect size than the samples as a whole (ES=.21, p=.001). These results suggested that a books-only intervention might be especially effective for lower-income students who have been shown to suffer the most from lack of educational opportunities during the summer.

Research has also been conducted to identify programmatic factors that can bolster a beyond school hours program's effectiveness. For example, Bell and Carillo (2007), working at the Center for Summer Learning at the Johns Hopkins University School of Education, identified nine attributes for successful summer programs, divided into two categories. The first set of attributes reflected the program's approach to learning: "(a) intentional focus on accelerating learning, (b) firm commitment to youth development, (c) proactive approach to summer learning (Bell & Carillo, 2007, p. 46)." The second set of attributes addressed program infrastructure: "(d) strong, empowering leadership, (e) advanced, collaborative planning, (f) extensive opportunities for staff development, (g) strategic partnerships, (h) rigorous approach to evaluation and

commitment to program improvement, and (i) clear focus on sustainability and cost-effectiveness (Bell & Carillo, 2007, p. 46).” The authors provided examples of these attributes at work in a variety of existing summer programs. However, even within the examples given the details on how to implement these attributes remained fuzzy. Additionally, it is unclear what, if any, quantitative evidence supported the effectiveness of the examples the authors provided.

Also in 2007, the Center for Summer Learning, with support from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, published the findings from 2005 and 2006 adolescent literacy summits. This report provided more specific recommendations for creating summer school and afterschool programs that can support student growth, specifically in the area of adolescent literacy. Among their recommendations were several which addressed professional development, practice, and engaging families (Center for Summer Learning, 2007). Suggestions for improved professional development focused on “professionalizing” beyond school hours staff by providing them with ample opportunities for professional development to learn the research supporting their instruction, build their skill sets, and learn new instructional techniques. Also suggested was creating a “career ladder” for staff, particularly those not employed by the school system during the regular school day. Suggestions for practice also echoed the need for more in depth professional development, including providing staff with searchable databases of instructional techniques and out-of-school-time resources and allowing more time for collaboration among out-of-school-time staff or between such staff and regular school day instructors. Suggestions for engaging families in out-of-school-day learning focused on extended learning to the home environment by providing resources guides for

families and allowing them opportunities to learn how to support their students' learning from trained staff members (Center for Summer Learning, 2007).

A 2009 report commissioned by the Wallace Foundation reviewed eight experimental summer interventions and developed a set of indicators for successful summer programs. The recommendations had a different focus from those produced by the Center for Summer Learning (Terzian et al., 2009). The characteristics that these authors identified were: "make learning fun;" "ground learning in a real-world context;" "integrate hands-on activities;" "content should complement curricular standards;" "hire experienced, trained teachers to deliver the academic lessons;" "keep class sizes small" (Terzian et al., 2009).

The above attributes were echoed in the suggestions of Moje and Tysvaer (2010) in their beyond school hours adolescent literacy handbook. They stressed that summer school and other beyond school hours literacy programs must possess meaningful content and that programs must have "intentional efforts to link learning to students' everyday experiences and interests" to motivate students to practice and improve literacy skills (p. 21). To further motivate students and separate out-of-school time learning from the student's regular classroom experience, programs should utilize project-based learning, particular when the projects grow out students' own interests. For example, literacy instruction could be embedded in art projects, creative writing opportunities, or theatrical performance, and it can reflect students' interests and pop culture memes (Moje & Tysvaer, 2010). The authors further suggested that programs incorporate elements of productive learning spaces such as reference books and computer resources. Beyond school hours programs could also increase student dedication to reading by providing

practical applications and audiences for their work. By incorporating youth development principles, beyond school hours programs could provide students with opportunities to exercise choice and assume leadership roles, which, in turn, could increase student engagement and motivation, particularly in the area of self-confidence.

While it is important to develop beyond school hours programs that do not simply replicate during the day classroom instruction, it is equally important to link beyond school hours literacy instruction to what students are learning in their courses (Moje & Tysvaer, 2010). For adolescent learners, it is especially important for beyond school hours instruction to reinforce disciplinary literacy knowledge and skills, while bolstering the basic and intermediate literacy skills that support the highest level of literacy skills. The present study was designed to accomplish this by presenting disciplinary literacy instruction that builds upon students' social studies lessons and provided students with additional motivating elements such as student choice and hands-on activities.

The current study sought to push forward the research on reading instruction in beyond school hours programs by providing sixth grade students with explicit reading instruction during a summer school program. Like Borman et al. (2005), the present study examined whether demographic factors and student attendance mediated reading performance gains. The summer program that served as the setting for this research also exemplified many of the characteristics of a successful program identified by Bell and Carillo (2007), including "[i]ntentional focus on accelerating learning," a "[p]roactive approach to summer learning," "[s]trong, empowering leadership," "[a]dvanced, collaborative planning," a"[r]igorous approach to evaluation and commitment to program improvement," and, a [c]lear focus on sustainability and cost-effectiveness" (Bell &

Carillo, 2007, p. 46). Students also benefited from an increased focus on "mak[ing] learning fun," "ground[ing] learning in a real-world context," "integrat[ing] hands-on activities," and providing "content [which] should complement curricular standards" (Terzian, Moore, & Hamilton, 2009).

Synopsis

Results from recent administrations of national (NCES, 2014; ACT 2014) and international (OECD, 2014) assessments of reading make it clear that many adolescent readers do not possess the higher literacy skills necessary for success in college or careers in the global marketplace. An outmoded view of reading instruction which focuses on only explicitly teaching the base reading skills of decoding, fluency, and basic comprehension is at least partially to blame for poor adolescent reading performance (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008; Snow & Moje, 2010). While a solid foundation of basic literacy abilities is essential for the development of higher order, discipline-specific reading skills, it is not sufficient. Students must also be exposed to the particular ways of thinking, arguing, reading, and writing in a variety of disciplines in order to develop context-specific literacy skills (Shanahan & Shanahan).

For students who enter their middle and high school years without a solid foundation of basic literacy skills, acquisition of disciplinary literacy skills will be even more challenging. Just as many students experience difficulty during the intermediate grades as they move from learning to read to reading to learn (Chall, 1996), so is it likely that struggling adolescent readers may show even greater reading underperformance when they face new cognitive demands in developing discipline-specific reading skills

without first achieving automaticity in basic comprehension strategies (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; Perfetti, 1985).

Across these reports, a number of themes relevant for designing an effective reading intervention emerge. They are: word-level reading, explicit strategy instruction, increasing fluency, explicit vocabulary instruction, and increasing student motivation for reading through opportunities for student choice, collaboration, and content-based instruction are all of value during comprehension instruction. The present study provided reading instruction that focused on explicit comprehension strategies, motivation, and disciplinary literacy instruction. In addition, it also contained direct vocabulary instruction, by explicitly defining discipline-specific word meanings, and by providing explicit instruction in word-level reading 'fix-up' strategies.

The current study did not however focus instruction on decoding strategies. However, students in both Intervention 1 and 2 who demonstrated decoding and word-level reading deficits received the type of instruction suggested by Thomas and Wexler (2007), specifically, word attack strategies focusing on syllabication and morphology. This was done during independent or small group work with a teacher working individually with struggling decoders. In the current study, repeated reading was utilized to increase fluency, and thereby also increase reading comprehension, both in the students who did and did not receive the experimental reading instruction.

The present study also made use of specific comprehension strategies that have been shown to increase students' reading performance on text-specific comprehension measures. The lessons in both Interventions 1 and 2 especially included self-monitoring strategies. Students in Intervention 2 utilized the reciprocal teaching strategies of

summarizing, question generation, clarifying, and predicting (Palincsar & Brown, 1984). Students in Intervention 1 received strategy instruction focused on activating prior knowledge, specifically, knowledge for the historical content that formed the basis of their lessons.

Both Intervention 1 and 2 stressed the value of authentic dialog and whole class discussion to increase student motivation for and engagement in reading (Antonio & Guthrie, 2008; Applebee et al., 2003; Furrer & Skinner, 2003). The present study sought to align students' desires for social interaction with peers and their instructor by maximizing authentic whole class discussions to increase engagement and motivation, as well as to produce greater increases in student reading performance.

While researchers within the field have proposed a number of sound strategies for implementing the instruction of disciplinary literacy with older adolescent readers, there is still little experimental data to support their use with younger students who are entering middle school. With implementation of the CCSS, results on the effectiveness of disciplinary literacy approaches are important. The present study attempted to add to this body of research by examining reading performance gains in students who did and did not receive instruction in the types of disciplinary literacy strategies described above. Specifically, students were instructed on the strategies suggested by Reisman (2012), taught through an apprenticeship model akin to that advocated by Schoenbach and Greenleaf (2009) and De La Paz and colleagues (2005; 2010; 2014). Additionally, students received explicit instruction in the use of vocabulary within historical writing as suggested by Fang (2012) and Moje and Speyer (2008).

The current study introduced history-specific disciplinary literacy strategies to groups of students who were underperforming on measures of reading comprehension to determine whether such an approach would be more effective than instruction in general, non-discipline specific reading comprehension strategies in improving overall reading comprehension and helping students master discipline-specific content. A diverse group of rising sixth grade students who underperformed on state and/or local reading assessments were randomly assigned to Intervention 1, 2, and 3. Because many students had deficits in basic reading abilities, students in all groups received instruction that minimally addressed decoding, vocabulary, and fluency deficits. Students in these conditions received instruction that incorporated what researchers have found to be the best approaches for addressing such difficulties in adolescents, as reflected in the reports by Biancarosa and Snow (2004), Kamil (2003), and Kamil et al. (2008), and Moje and Tysvaer (2010). Students in both Intervention 1 and 2 received help in decoding through explicit instruction in word attack strategies (Thomas & Wexler, 2007), received explicit instruction in high usage academic vocabulary (Lawrence, White, & Snow, 2010), and engaged in repeated reading of text with a previewing model to develop fluency skills (Wexler, Vaughn, Edmonds, & Reutebuch, 2008).

Students in both Intervention 1 and 2 also received instruction meant to strengthen basic comprehension skills through explicit strategy instruction. Text enhancement strategies such as graphic organizers and mnemonics were used with students in both the comparison and experimental groups to help present complex content material in a way that facilitated student comprehension (Dexter & Hughes, 2011; Jitendra & Gajria, 2011). The close reading strategy which was the basis for the disciplinary literacy reading with

CARE instruction in Intervention 1 was also based on a mnemonic to assist students in remembering and implementing the new strategy. This close reading strategy served as the primary cognitive or metacognitive comprehension strategy for students in the Intervention 1. Students in Intervention 2 used a more established cognitive comprehension strategy, reciprocal teaching (Palincsar & Brown, 1984), which incorporates a number of cognitive strategies which have showed significant positive effects on student performance in experimental settings (Berkeley et al. 2009; Jitendra et al., 2000; Jitendra & Gajria, 2011). These strategies are summarizing, question generation (self-questioning), clarifying (a self-monitoring strategy), and predicting (from the activation of relevant prior knowledge) (Palincsar & Brown, 1984).

Students in both groups were given the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) to assess baseline levels of reading motivation. Students in Intervention 1 and 2 also received instruction based upon open-ended questions, authentic dialog between students and teacher, and whole-class discussion (Applebee et al., 2003; Antonio & Guthrie, 2008; Furrer & Skinner, 2003).

The essential difference between the Intervention 1 and 2 in the proposed study was that students in Intervention 1 were explicitly taught the disciplinary literacy strategies of reading like a historian. The strategies of sourcing, corroboration, and contextualization delineated in Wineburg's 1991 study were included in varying degrees within a close reading strategy similar to that Reisman (2012) utilizied. This strategy, referred to as *Reading with CARE*, asked students to analyze text by asking themselves the following questions: (a) What is the context in which the text was written? (b) What is the author's point of view which s/he is trying to share through the text? (c) What is

your reaction to the text? How does it make you feel? Is it different than ways you've previously seen the subject matter presented? and (e) What evidence is used in the text and what is left out?

As in the works of De La Paz (2005) and De La Paz and Felton (2010), the reading strategy focused on analyzing the texts for authorial bias and inconsistencies to determine the texts' credibility (sourcing) and comparing texts to both assist in assessing the texts' trustworthiness and to build a better understanding of event the texts' address. Students were given sufficient background knowledge through lectures and secondary sources to frame the subject matter, had difficult or discipline-specific vocabulary defined, were provided with visuals to enhance their understanding of the texts, and were given advanced organizers to help structure their knowledge of the material (Moje & Speyer, 2008). Primary sources were adapted to make them more accessible to struggling readers (Wineburg & Martin, 2009). Instruction of the strategies followed a cognitive strategy instruction model similar to SRSD as utilized by De La Paz and Felton (2010), however, the memorization component was retained in the current study, given the more simple nature of the reading with CARE strategy and the age of the participants.

Unlike the disciplinary literacy research cited in this chapter, the current study took place during a summer school program. Following the summer school research of Borman et al. (2005), the current study also examined whether demographic factors such as receipt of Free and Reduced-price Meals (FARMS), provision of special education services, English Language Learner status, and student attendance mediated reading performance gains. By situating this study in a beyond school hours program with young middle school students as its subjects, it is hoped that the results of the present

investigation will help to determine how early disciplinary literacy instruction can begin to be taught successfully and whether effective instruction or intervention can occur beyond school hours. The answers to these questions can help to inform practice within schools to maximize the chances that students will be successful in applying discipline-specific reading strategies in higher education and careers.

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

The present research project examined the effects of modifying an existing academic intervention summer school reading program to determine whether either of two modified versions of the program's existing reading instruction might lead to larger gains in reading comprehension performance than a traditional summer reading intervention program for students who would enter sixth grade in the fall of 2013. Both versions of the modified lessons embedded the reading lessons within the context of the social studies curriculum the students would encounter in the second semester of sixth grade while one of these programs also taught students historical literacy skills. There were three research questions that guided this study:

1) Do students who participate in a Tier 2 content-based disciplinary intervention or a Tier 2 content-based generic reading comprehension program show greater reading gains than students who participate in a generic comprehension program?
2) Do students who participate in a Tier 2 content-based disciplinary intervention or a Tier 2 content-based generic reading comprehension program show greater content knowledge gains than students who participate in a generic comprehension program?
3) Do students with reading disabilities show the same reading and content knowledge gains as other struggling readers?

Participants and Setting

The study took place in a medium-sized suburban school district in central Maryland. Each summer, the school system runs an academic intervention summer

school reading program, which targets approximately 2,500 pre-kindergarten to eighth grade students (students who are starting kindergarten to ninth grade the following fall) who are underperforming, or at risk of underperforming, in reading/English Language Arts and mathematics. Students are generally identified by school personnel either through the IEP process, if the student was identified for Extended School Year (ESY) services, or through a data review process, in which administrators look at MSA performance, grade level status (i.e., if the student was marked below, on, or above grade level), teacher developed assessments, or the Measures of Academic Progress (MAP) reading and mathematics test scores. Additional students receiving special education services, including those who do not qualify through the IEP process, and English Language Learners who are thought to be at risk for difficulty in learning are also targeted for inclusion in the program. In general, the program invites students from the county's 41 elementary schools, 19 middle schools, and 12 high schools to participate in the summer program. The program has been run at 6-8 middle school sites each summer, serving approximately 800 students in rising grades 6 to 8, with participating students receiving intervention in reading and mathematics.

The current study took place in 2013 during the 80 minutes of daily reading instruction received by all sixth grade students during the traditional 19-day summer intervention program. Certified teachers previously employed by the school system provided all instruction. All participating teachers had a minimum rating of "satisfactory" on his or her most recent teaching evaluation and two were social studies or history teachers. The sixth grade summer reading program included 250 rising sixth grade students who would attend the school system's 19 middle schools in fall 2013 and who

received reading intervention instruction at one of the seven summer sites. All participating students were invited to participate in the study; however, the final number of participants was much lower due to several factors.

Sixteen families did not provide consent for their students' learning histories to be shared, six students left the program having attended six or fewer days and having taken no pre- or post-assessments, leaving 228 students for whom consent was obtained and one or more dependent measures were collected. Due to the voluntary nature of the program, students were not required to attend summer school and many students had missing data due to absenteeism on days in which assessments were given. In addition, one teacher's posttests were lost for all of her students for the content measure. In all, pretest and posttest measures for all assessments were available for only 90 students. Therefore, results for the current study are based on the students for whom all academic data is available, which included 90 students mentioned above and 20 more students who had all data with the exception of either the pretest or posttest motivation assessment. These students were not included in the reporting of the motivation data.

Of the 110 resulting students (hereafter called participants), 12 of the students (10.9%) were Hispanic/Latino. Student races were reported as: 54.5% African American/Black, 29.1% Caucasian/White, 6.4% Asian, 5.5% American American/Native Alaskan, 4.5% Two or More Races, and 0.0% Pacific Islander/Native Hawaiian. Fifty-three students (48.2%) were either actively receiving special education or Section 504 services or had recently exited from special education, within the past two years. Fourteen students (12.7%) were active English Language Learners or were Released

Limited English Proficient (R-LEP). Forty-three (39.1%) students received Free or Reduced-price Meals (FARMs).

During the 2012-2013 school year, the school system in which this study took place had a total enrollment of just over 52,000 students, of which, 21.2% were African American, 45% Caucasian/White, 17.6% were Asian, 8.8% were Hispanic, 6.5% were two or more races, and less than 1% were Native American or Pacific Islander. The percentages of students receiving special services in the district were as follows: 9.8% of students received special education services, 6.8% of students were limited English proficient, and 20.8% participated in the Free and Reduced-price Meals (FARMs) program.

The participating students differed from the general population of the school system in ways that suggest they are more at risk for school failure (e.g., not finishing high school or being college ready, etc.). In the school system as a whole, 20.8% of the students receive free and reduced meals, while 39.1% of the sample did. In the school system population, 6.8% of students received services as English Language Learners, while 12.7% of the study participants did and 9.8% of students received special education services, while 2.8% of the study sample did. Participating students were also more than twice as likely to be African American/Black (54.5%) than students in the general school system population (21.2%).

The participating students who completed all of the academic measures were compared with the larger population of students who were invited to participate in the summer intervention program. This was done to establish the similarity between individuals who completed the treatment and individuals who were eligible to receive the

treatment, to gauge whether the results from this study might be representative of the entire population of students. Results from a series of chi square tests indicated there were significant differences at p=.05 between groups on two measures. First, for students identifying as Hispanic, 10.9% of students with complete data were Hispanic (12 students) whereas 21.4% of students without complete data were Hispanic (24 students). Moreover, with respect to the number of students who were receiving free and reduced meals, 39.1% of students with complete data received free and reduced meals (43 students) whereas 54% of students who did not have complete data received free and reduced meals (61 students). These differences are likely due, not to differences in dropping out of the summer program but rather to one teacher with a high number of Hispanic and FARMS students in her class who failed to turn in her students' history of China posttests. There were no significant differences between students with complete academic data and students with incomplete academic data in terms of gender, race, limited English proficiency, or receipt of special education services.

In order to verify that students with school identified disabilities needed instructional support in reading, for the purpose of this study, students with disabilities with reading IEP goals were considered as having a reading disability. A chi square test indicated there was a significant difference on MSA proficiently level at p=.05 for students who had IEP goals in reading as compared to students with disabilities without IEP reading goals: 39.4% of students with reading IEP goals scored at the Basic reading proficiency level, while only 21.6% of students without IEP goals in reading scored lower than Proficient in reading.

Assessments

The Maryland School Assessment (MSA) was the standardized test used by the State of Maryland to determine compliance with the provisions of the No Child Left Behind Act through the 2013-2014 school year. Of students participating in the current study, 68.9% scored Proficient or Advanced on the reading subtest of the 2013 MSA, while 27.8% scored Basic. It is important to note, however, that of the overall elementary population of the school system, 93.9% scored proficient or advanced on the reading MSA, and, at the state level, 86.4% of students in the state where the study took place were proficient or advanced. The percentage of participating students who were considered by their teachers to be on grade level was 31.1% whereas fully 68.9% were considered by their teachers to be below grade level in reading for their fourth quarter of fifth grade. None of the participating students were considered by their teachers to be above grade level in reading.

Design

The study utilized an experimental design. The independent variable was instructional condition (Intervention 1, 2, or 3). The dependent variables included a mixture of standardized and researcher-developed measures as follows: (a) two measures of reading comprehension (one standardized measure and one experimenter-developed measure), (b) a measure of content learning (history of China), and (c) motivation for reading, as measured by the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997).

To control for teacher effects, each of the 15 participating teachers were randomly assigned to conditions using a stratified random assignment procedure. The academic

intervention summer program has two instructional periods. Typically, students attend one session focused on reading and one focused on mathematics. Eleven teachers taught two periods of rising sixth graders each day, while four of the fifteen teachers taught only one period each day, teaching either rising seventh or eighth grade in the other period. This resulted in 26 different sections. If participating teachers taught two sixth grade periods, they were assigned to teach Intervention 1 lessons one period and then randomly assigned to a different intervention during the other period. In all, the 15 teachers taught 9 Intervention 3, 8 Intervention 2, and 9 Intervention 1 classes. Moreover, students at each of the participating sites were randomly assigned to one of the conditions (i.e., to one of three sixth grade reading classes at each site). See Table 1 for number of students per groupings by intervention.

Historical Content

In order to examine the effects of reading intervention embedded within a disciplinary literacy content, new summer school reading materials were created for Intervention 1 and 2, while students in Intervention 3 continued to use existing lessons. To build upon prior work in disciplinary literacy by De La Paz (2005), De La Paz and Felton (2010), and Reisman (2012), the lessons focused on historical content. The history of China was chosen because it was part of the school district's sixth grade social studies curriculum so that the students could not only benefit from the reading intervention but also begin to build knowledge for the unit later in the year.

Table 1

Summary of Number of Students per Grouping for Intervention 1, Intervention 2, and Intervention 3

	Condition		
Teacher	Intervention 1	Intervention 2	Intervention 3
Teacher A	0	0	
Teacher B	4	6	
Teacher C			12
Teacher D	4	3	
Teacher E		3	
Teacher F	5	3	
Teacher G	3	3	
Teacher H	5		0
Teacher I	5		
Teacher J		4	4
Teacher K	9	8	
Teacher L			7
Teacher M			5
Teacher N			4
Teacher O			13

The historical events that were the subject of the students' daily reading passages were chosen with Intervention 1 in mind: to introduce students to historical controversies by first presenting neutral second source background knowledge and then two primary source documents representing conflicting points of view on the same historical event. Through these controversies and conflicting points of view, the students could be taught the basic principles of historical literacy.

The RLH framework, lessons based upon primary sources that provided opposing perspectives on how to address historical controversies or questions, and approach to modifying passages utilized by Wineburg et al. (2011) were used as the foundation for the development of the reading content of Interventions 1 and 2. These were used as a

model for the Intervention 1 lessons and Intervention 1 and 2 reading passages, with modifications made as needed based upon the differing subject matter (the history of China as compared to the history of the United States), age of the students, and length of the program. The strategies taught also differed from those used by Wineburg et al. (2011). Because of the young age of the students, the nature of the instruction (all students were struggling readers), and the brief 19-day length of the program, less developed versions of historical disciplinary reading strategies were utilized. These will be discussed in full below.

All secondary source background passages were taken from National Geographic Countries of the World: China (Green, 2009). Following the procedures utilized by the RLH framework (Wineburg et al., 2011), all secondary and primary source documents were made more accessible to struggling readers. All documents were adapted to have Lexiles under 700, with mean sentence lengths between 9 and 11 words, mean log word frequencies between 3.0 and 4.0, and word counts between 200 and 400 words. Documents were reduced in length to convey the "essence of a historical problem" but with extraneous language omitted (Wineburg et al., 2011, p. vii). The documents were modified by substituting modern and more frequently used words for archaic or obscure language, spelling was standardized to modern English, and syntax was simplified. Each document contained a head note providing historical context. Students were given access to the "original" versions of certain excerpts for comparison, as suggested by Wineburg et al. (2011), but instruction took place with the modified versions. Tables 2 and 3 provide the Lexile information for all materials.

Table 2

Lexile Measure Components for Reading Comprehension Passages

Source	Word Count	Lexile Measure	Mean Sentence Length	Mean Log Word Frequency
Cpt. Preston's Account	276	630L	10.62	3.75
Samuel Drowne's Account	246	480L	8.20	3.65
Matthew Murray's Account	250	490L	9.62	3.93
Robert Goddard's Account	219	370L	8.42	3.98

Dr. Avishag Reisman, an expert in history education, reviewed the materials for this study and provided feedback that was followed when preparing the final version of the lessons. She confirmed that the reading with CARE strategy in Intervention 1 was in alignment with the RLH framework, and offered suggestions how to better incorporate historical inquiry questions into the lessons as well as ways to improve the lessons' focus on reading historical texts to help students determine what occurred in the past. She expressed uncertainty as to whether 19 days of lessons would be sufficient to find significant differences in reading comprehension outcomes between Intervention 1, 2, and 3, especially given that reciprocal teaching was a research-grounded strategy that had been shown to improve reading comprehension. One notable change to the current study (in response to her suggestions) was to design a central focus on answering historical questions as the primary means that historians, and students, could learn what happened in the past.

Table 3

Lexile Measure Components for Materials

Lesson(s)	Source	Source Type	Word Count	Lexile Measure	Mean Sentence Length	Mean Log Word Frequency
1	*Letter from the Anne Arundel County Public School System*	Primary	228	570L	8.44	3.48
2	*7 year old suspended:* FOX45 News	Primary	345	570L	9.08	3.61
3	*China: Countries of the World – Geography*	Secondary	223	540L	8.58	3.58
4	*China: Countries of the World – History*	Secondary	255	580L	7.73	3.29
5	*China: Countries of the World - First Opium War*	Secondary	266	580L	8.58	3.48
6, 8-9	*The Treaty of Nanking*	Primary	146	590L	8.11	3.35
7, 8-9	*The People of Canton: Against the English*	Primary	195	580L	8.48	3.46
10	*China: Countries of the World - The Cultural Revolution*	Secondary	288	580L	8.47	3.46
11, 13-14	*Spider Eaters: A Memoir*	Primary	271	580L	8.74	3.52
12, 13-14	*Under the Red Sun*	Primary	261	570L	9.32	3.66
15	*China: Countries of the World - First Opium War*	Secondary	207	560L	7.96	3.39
16, 18-19	*Entire Body of the Beijing University Hunger Strikers Group*	Primary	288	560L	8.23	3.46
17, 18-19	*The Truth about the Beijing Turmoil*	Primary	289	580L	8.50	3.47

Instruction was focused on three content units: English Colonialism, The Cultural Revolution, and the Tiananmen Square Protests. To minimize potential outside influences, units during the intervention were those that students would not encounter

until the second semester of sixth grade. While the units dealt with China, a country from which some participating students could trace their ancestry, providing potentially greater interest or intrinsic motivation, such effects were likely to be mediated by ensuring stratified ethnic composition of students in Intervention groups 1 and 2, as well as by the low number of students identified as Asian in the program as a whole (6 Asian students participated in the study.

Differences between Intervention 1 and 2

Appendix A describes the elements of the reciprocal teaching strategy utilized in Intervention 2 in greater detail and outlines how they were implemented in the intervention. Appendix B, which describes the elements of the reading with CARE strategy in greater detail, links the elements with the RLH framework and illustrates how reading with CARE was implemented in Intervention 1. The essential difference between the two strategies is that while the reciprocal teaching strategy was a general comprehension strategy that was designed for narrative and expositional texts, the CARE strategy was developed for specific use within a history context (Wineburg, Martin, & Monte-Sano, 2011). Appendix C provides an overview of the units for Intervention 1 and 2. Appendix D describes how the two different reading strategies were implemented within the five-day a week instructional framework.

Intervention 1: Read with CARE

Students in Intervention 1 were instructed how to use the Read with CARE disciplinary reading strategy, and it served as their primary reading comprehension intervention. This strategy differed from the instruction that students previously received in their reading and language arts instruction. Students had previously been taught

general reading strategies, similar to the reciprocal teaching approach that was used in Intervention 2. Middle-school social studies teachers in the participating system have been encouraged to include RLH elements in their lessons, however, systemic monitoring for this approach has never taken place and the staff members included in this study have not received prior training on how to implement specific RLH strategies at the middle school level, nor have they received RLH-based curricula or resource materials. Additionally, as none of the participating students had yet attended middle school prior to the study, they would not have been exposed to the RLH elements during the regular school year studies.

Like the research conducted by Reisman (2012), the present study emphasized the process of close reading. Modifications were made to the RLH approach because students in the present study were younger than students in Reisman's study, and because the subject matter was world history. Reisman's (2012) study provided strong evidence that contextualization and corroboration were harder concepts for her eleventh graders participants to master than sourcing and close reading. The present study took place over only 13 80-minute periods, in contrast to Reisman's (2012) study where RLH lessons were implemented during a year-long American History course, in total, 36 to 50 lessons.

Additionally, the participants in the present study were 6 years younger than students in Reisman's study. Due to these differences it seemed prudent to focus on one of the two strategies that showed significant treatment effects with Reisman's (2012) students, and to focus specifically on close reading as a basic step towards historical disciplinary literacy. In this regard, while the sixth grade student participants would not be taught the full RLH strategies, they would be able to practice scaffolded disciplinary

literacy activities and develop basic historical literacy awareness (Lee & Shemilt, 2003). Specifically, lessons attempted to teach students to understand historical accounts as being influenced by the time and place they were written, reflecting an author's point of view and purpose for recounting an event, framed in a manner to elicit a specific response from the reader, and including only the evidence that the author wanted included and that supported the author's purpose and point of view.

To help students focus on key elements of the RLH close reading strategy, this author developed a mnemonic acronym: C – "What is the **context** in which the test was written?" Students were directed to the headnote and source information provided on each document to learn when the text was written, obtain brief background on who wrote it, and learn the document's genre. They were instructed to read the text within this historical context and understand that the time a text is written, who it is written by, and the form in which it was written influence the author's perspective. A – "What is the **author's** point of view which s/he is trying to share through the text?" The students were taught that history is not a series of snapshots, but rather that an author's perspective shapes how they recall and share a historical event. This question reminds students to identify the author's point of view, perspective, or purpose and determine how the historical context might have influenced the author to have such a viewpoint. Students were also shown how the author's point of view influences how she or he constructs the text, what evidence is included and what is left out, and what sort of reaction she or he tries to solicit from the reader. R – "What is your **reaction** to the text? How does it make you feel? Is it different than ways you've previously seen the subject matter presented?" Students were taught that an author might attempt to manipulate the reader's emotions so

that he or she agrees with the author's point of view. Students were reminded to determine how a text made them feel and think about how their emotional reaction might lead them to agree with the author's perspective. E – "What **evidence** is used in the text and what is left out?" Students were prompted to determine which facts or assertions did or did not support the author's point of view, whether they felt these had merit and were persuasive. They were also asked to speculate what information the author may have left out because it did not align with his or her viewpoint. Taken together, these four steps sought to help students to evaluate what weight should be given a text and how much they should trust the author's view of the event.

As can be seen from the Read with CARE acronym, while this approach was focused on instructing students in close reading, it also incorporated elements of sourcing by having students question why the text was written and focus on the author's point of view and corroboration by having students link the text to other knowledge of the subject matter, whether gathered from other texts during instruction or from their own prior knowledge. The inclusion of a question prompting students to self-reflect on their own cognitive and emotional reactions to the text also served as a means of engaging students in authentic whole-group discussions based on open-ended questions and encouraged connections to their own experiences in order to maximize motivation for reading (Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Antonio & Guthrie, 2008; Applebee et al., 2003). See lessons in Appendix E.

Intervention 2: Reciprocal Teaching

Students in Intervention 2 were taught the reciprocal teaching strategy developed by Palincsar and Brown (1984; see Appendix A for an overview). This strategy is the

standard reading comprehension approach used in the school system in which the proposed study took place. It represents an established cognitive comprehension strategy which has been shown to be an effective intervention for adolescent struggling readers (Alfassi, 1998). Utilization of this strategy allowed students in the Intervention 2 group to make use of a general, discipline non-specific reading strategy to comprehend the primary and secondary source historical texts, in contrast to the history-specific reading strategies that were utilized by Intervention 1.

Intervention 2's reading strategy was reciprocal teaching, which was developed for use with middle-school students by Palincsar and Brown (1984), and has been shown to successfully increase literacy skills in elementary-, middle-, and high- school students (Slater & Horstman, 2002). The strategy focuses on instructing students in four general reading strategies (predicting, questioning, clarifying, and summarizing), with teachers modeling behaviors out loud and scaffolding the strategies for students, and gradually releasing leadership to small groups of students while monitoring implementation, until students are able to master the strategies independently (Slater & Horstman, 2002).

The reciprocal teaching strategy was chosen, in part, due to its similarity to typical reading classroom instruction in the school system in which the study took place. Most students were familiar with the concepts of predicting, questioning, clarifying, and summarizing, and had previously used them independently to comprehend informational text, even if they had not been taught together as part of a more systemic research-based reading strategy. See lessons in Appendix F.

Procedures Common to Intervention 1 and 2

During the first week of the program, students in both Intervention 1 and 2 received 2 days of instruction focused on introducing and modeling the specific reading strategy that the students would use in the following 3 weeks. The teacher modeled how to utilize the CARE or reciprocal teaching strategy with two primary source documents, a letter and a news story, that presented conflicting perspectives on the same event (a second grader being expelled for eating a breakfast pastry into the shape of a gun). The teacher modeled use of the strategy on the first document and then asked students to participate in using the strategy on the second document.

The last 2 days of instruction during the first week focused on developing background knowledge of the geography, history, and culture of China. Lessons focused on where China was located on maps, its relative size, varied environments, and a brief overview of its history and relationship with America and European nations, from approximately 3,000 BCE to today. Instruction was in the form of mini-lectures, group discussions, and small group/individual reading activities.

Sequence of Pretests, Instruction, and Posttests

All participating classroom teachers administered the pretests on Days 1 to 3 and Days 15 to 17 of the study, in a full-class testing environment. On Days 2 and 16 of the 19 of the program, students were administered the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests (GMRT) comprehension subtest, Form S. On Days 3 and 17, students were administered the content assessment and the MRQ. During the first week, students were introduced to the reading strategy they would be using, as well as background information about China.

Instruction the following three weeks was focused on three content units: English Colonialism, The Cultural Revolution, and the Tiananmen Square Protests

Cognitive Strategy Instruction

Instruction of the close reading strategy and the history content was accomplished using a cognitive apprenticeship model of instruction with students in both Intervention 1 and 2. During the first week, the students were introduced to the reading strategy they would use throughout the rest of the program. The first step of the model strategy, "Background Knowledge," aimed at providing students with the background knowledge and vocabulary that they needed to later successfully implement the reading comprehension strategy. Having students answer questions about the strategy steps and rationale for those steps checked student knowledge. In the second step, "Discuss It," the teacher discussed each step of the strategy and in step three, "Model It," the teacher modeled how to use the strategy with two primary source documents representing differing perspectives on the same event. Instructional focus was on the teacher demonstrating how to use the strategy while the students followed along as the teacher re-read the documents and spoke aloud the steps of the reading strategy, with students volunteering answers to the questions utilized in the strategy. Students were also prompted to memorize the steps in the strategy through the completion of exit tickets in the fourth step "Memorize It."

In the second week of instruction, the teacher began to release responsibility for utilizing the strategy during reading through calling on students to assist in answering the questions posed by the strategy during the third step "Model It" and encouraging students to use the strategy during independent reading time during the fifth step "Support It."

Students continued to be encouraged to memorize the steps of reading strategy through the use of exit tickets and by removing the reference worksheets they used during the first week, which had the steps typed out, and requiring them to record the steps of the reading strategy in a blank worksheet during the fourth step "Memorize It." During the writing task on the second to last day of the week, the teacher modeled answering historical questions based on the primary and secondary texts by utilizing the reading strategy, which students then used to write their own answers during the third step "Model It."

During the third week of the program, the students became responsible for demonstrating knowledge of the steps of the reading strategy and how to appropriately apply them to primary source documents using the fourth step "Memorize It," both in independent reading and whole-class contexts, with the teacher clarifying students' use of the strategy during the fifth step, "Support It," and only when needed returned to the third step, "Model It." During the third week, reliance on memorized strategy components was also encouraged by not providing students with strategy worksheets but simply scrap paper on which to write down the steps from memory. Using the fifth step, "Support It," for the historical question writing task, which demonstrated student knowledge of what was read, students worked together in small groups to outline their answers while the teacher circulated and provided assistance as needed. Students then used the group-generated outlines to draft their own answers.

With the fourth week, students moved to truly independent performance in their use of the strategy using the sixth step "Independent Performance" with the teacher clarifying and correcting only as necessary during step five, "Support It." For the

historical question-writing task, students worked independently to outline and draft their answers during the sixth step "Independent Performance."

Fix-up Strategies

Students in both of these conditions were also instructed in the use of fix-up strategies, modeled on those used in CORI (Guthrie, McRae, & Klauda, 2007). As many students were likely to have word-level reading difficulties, the lessons included explicit instruction on the following fix-up word level reading strategies: (a)"re-read" the sentence with the difficult word or idea and see if it makes sense the second time, (b) "read ahead" keep reading for a couple of sentences to see if you get clues to help you understand the word or idea, (c) "context clues" use context clues to determine unknown words or ideas, (d) "sentence structure" if the sentence structure is confusing, rearrange the words and see if that makes it easier to understand, (e) "look it up" look up difficult words in the dictionary, and (f)"ask for help" ask your teacher for help with a word or idea. Additionally, to assist students with fluency deficits, repeated reading of the texts occurred in both conditions. First, the teacher would read the text aloud and then the students would re-read the passage individually in Intervention 2 or in pairs in Intervention 1.

Days 1-5

Each of the three China units was taught in five 80-minute classes. Both Intervention 1 and 2 utilized the same primary and secondary texts and the same schedule of instruction. The first day of each unit consisted of activities to develop background knowledge on the focus of the unit. On the second and third days, the students examined primary source documents on the subject matter. On day 4, students reviewed the

materials and drafted written responses to the big questions of the unit. On the fifth day, students received feedback on what they had written and discussed any outstanding questions from the unit.

Day 1 - introduction of material through secondary sources. Students in both the Intervention 1 and 2 groups were introduced to the units through activities that activated background knowledge, included teacher lecture, and secondary source excerpts from textbooks and other informational texts. Maps and other static visual media (e.g., portraits of key figures or events) were also used with short video clips to develop engagement and provide content to connect to new information students would learn through their exploration of primary source documents later in the week. Students were explicitly instructed in the key vocabulary terms that were used in the unit at the beginning of each unit. During the initial teacher reading of a text, the teacher would call on student volunteers to attempt to define unfamiliar or difficult words. The teacher would correct and refine the student suggestions as needed and then write the word and its definition on the board for students to copy onto their text. Students in both groups read modified secondary source documents to build background knowledge. After hearing the teacher read the texts aloud, students in Intervention 1 engaged in partner or small group reading of the secondary sources, while students in Intervention 2 read the texts individually. Students in Intervention 1 were given a choice of which of two short videos they wish to watch, while all students in Intervention 2 watched a single video.

Day 2 - first primary source. Students reviewed the secondary source documents from day 1 and were introduced to the primary sources related to the unit. Both groups received adapted primary source documents. These adaptations contained the key

features of head note, author, and source highlighted to draw student attention to the text elements which would help them place the document in historical context and, for the group in Intervention 1, assist them in analyzing the document for authorial bias and trustworthiness. For Intervention 1, days 2 through 5 had a sustained focus on disciplinary literacy through use of close reading strategy, while students in Intervention 2 utilized the reciprocal teaching strategy. Students in both groups received further instruction in the content through lecture and were provided with excerpts from primary source documents. In both groups, the teacher assisted students in utilizing their reading strategies with the primary documents.

Day 3 - contrasting primary source. On the third day, the students focused on learning more about the unit's themes through discussing first-person written accounts (e.g., memoirs, letters), government documents (e.g., treaties), and contemporary news accounts (e.g., internet-published stories, newspaper articles). Students in both groups were assisted in using their reading strategies to understand the texts. Students in Intervention 1 read the texts with partners or in small groups and received instruction in comparing and contrasting the differing primary accounts using the reading with CARE strategy. Students in Intervention 2 read the sources independently using the reciprocal teaching strategy.

Day 4 - review and short responses. On the fourth day of each unit, students reviewed the secondary and primary documents they read the previous 3 days. Students in Intervention 1 did so through hands-on engaging activities (i.e., negotiating their own Treaty of Nanking, writing propaganda as part of the Cultural Revolution's Red Guard, and creating an "accurate" account of what occurred at Tiananmen Square). Students in

Intervention 1 were encouraged to draw connections between what they read, the active participation activities, and their own lives or current events to further increase relevance and intrinsic motivation for reading. Students in Intervention 2 reviewed the material by responding to comprehension questions asked by their teacher to the whole class.

Students in both groups then demonstrated their knowledge of the material by creating written responses to the big questions of the units. Utilizing the gradual release model, initially (in Unit 1), students in both groups helped their teachers to draft sample answers to the questions and then wrote down their own responses, using the sample answers. In Unit 2, students in both groups worked together to draft answers and worked with their teacher to create final responses. In Unit 3, students worked independently to draft their own responses to the questions. Students moved towards independence in application of their group's cognitive reading comprehension strategy through the 13 days of instruction. The writing exercise on the final day of each unit represented students' ability to practice the reading strategy with novel unit material, after having it modeled with similar content in prior lessons.

Day 5 - feedback on responses. On the fifth day of each unit, students in both conditions received feedback about their writing assignments and engaged in a culminating discussion of the unit's big ideas. Students in Intervention 2 received general feedback through a whole class discussion and the teacher lead the students in summarizing the unit's main ideas. Students in Intervention 1 received individualized positive, constructive feedback from the teacher while their peers engaged in constructive critiques of each other's essays. This approach was designed to optimize students' feelings of self-efficacy and peer collaboration. Students and teacher then jointly engaged

in an open-ended discussion of outstanding questions or concerns about the unit, again to maximize collaboration and pro-social motivating elements.

Intervention 3

This condition consisted of reading intervention materials used during the rising sixth grade academic intervention summer school reading program. The school district's secondary reading/language arts curriculum staff created these lessons. Lessons were grouped into three units: active reading strategies (unit 1), using textual evidence (unit 2), and summarizing (unit 3). The reading strategies were similar to those used in Intervention 2 (e.g., summarizing, question generation) but were taught as isolated concepts. The texts were from a commercial summer school reading magazine system, a read aloud text, and other photocopied passages, and focused on disparate subjects (e.g, sports, reptiles, ocean animals, Bigfoot, and masks; see Appendix G).

Training

Participating staff engaged in training on two separate occasions, for a total of 4 hours. At the first training session, teachers were given a description of the study and presented with consent forms. Teachers who refused to participate in the study were assigned to teach Intervention 3, while those who agreed to participate were assigned a condition for each period that they taught sixth grade reading, as described above. Teachers then received the appropriate lesson plans and were asked to review them before the second training.

At the second session, staff were presented with the materials that they would need to teach the lessons (e.g., lesson plans, dictionaries for student fix-up strategies, assessments, etc.) and those who had consented to audiotape themselves were given

digital recorders and shown how to operate them. At that time, all but two teachers had given consent to be recorded, although one additional teacher would later rescind consent and another would neglect to record her lessons or experience technical problems with the recorder. As a group, all Intervention 1 and 2 teachers were provided with an overview of the cognitive strategy instruction model, the structure of the lessons, and an overview of historical information on the content. In doing so, the author stressed the content-focus of the lessons and the coherent nature of the lesson plans and instruction. Questions that applied to both conditions were addressed.

Teachers were then broken into three smaller groups: one group of teachers who would only teach Intervention 1 lessons, one group who would only teach Intervention 2 lessons, and one group of teachers who would teach both. To emphasize active learning and collective participation, teachers in each group were tasked with discussing the lessons, anticipating potential barriers to student understanding, and brainstorming solutions and ways to improve the lessons. The author and the certified teacher who would be observing the teachers who did not consent to audiotaping circulated and worked with each group, keeping them on task and addressing any condition-specific questions they had. The author and certified teacher also stayed after the group exercises ended to address individual teachers' questions and concerns.

Based on the feedback gathered from these groups, the author sent out clarifying emails before the beginning of summer school. Additional "check in" emails were sent during the first and second weeks of instruction to ensure that teachers were comfortable with the lessons and to maximize fidelity. The author and/or the certified teacher who assisted in the training also visited each summer school site at least once during the first 2

weeks of the program to answer questions and address teacher concerns. Most of the clarification sought by teachers involved questions about how closely they had to adhere to the lessons, how much they were able to personalize instruction based on student needs, and whether they could introduce new elements to the lessons. Teachers were consistently told that they could modify the lessons as long as they taught all activities in each lesson. Examples of ways in which teachers modified the lessons included changing how students were called upon to share answers, addition of content review questions, including posters of China visuals on the walls of the classroom, and playing music while teaching the reading strategies.

Fidelity of Implementation

A certified teacher colleague of the author, who is employed by the same school system, monitored fidelity of implementation. All but two teachers agreed to have their lessons audiotaped. The teachers who agreed to audiotaping were visited once during the program to check for fidelity of instruction and to discuss and troubleshoot any problems or concerns. The two teachers who did not agree to being taped were instructed to self-assess their instruction using a checklist that asked for the teacher to record the length of each lesson activity (see Appendix H for a sample). The checklists detailed each part of every lesson, categorized into three types of lesson elements – anticipatory set/context setting, development/procedures, and summary/closure -- and required the teachers to check off whether or not they completed that part of the lesson and to estimate how many minutes they spent on that element. Although their reports may be suspect for lack of independent verification, these teachers did report on their ability to complete the instruction as designed. The certified teacher, who visited these two teachers during 20%

of their lessons, used a similar checklist (see Appendix I for a sample). She rated the teachers on a scale of 0-4 for implementation of each activity and also timed the length of each part of the lesson. She also made notations to explain low scores or to remark on a teacher altering a lesson element or doing an especially good job conveying the lesson.

For the teachers who agreed to be audiotaped, each session was recorded and a certified teacher scored at least 20% of their lessons using the same checklist utilized during in person observations. A second certified teacher then scored the same lessons. Inter-rater agreement for the score given to each lesson component was 85.2%.

While it might have been expected that those teachers teaching in both the Intervention 1 and 2 conditions may use what was called for in the other intervention and influence other conditions, while memorable to the teacher observers, was very limited. In the form of a teacher referring directly to the reading strategy used in Intervention 1 while teaching Intervention 2 or vice versa was found in the rater comments of only 4 of the 634 lesson components reviewed and limited to a single teacher. But while such obvious lesson bleed was scarce, a more subtle confusion of reading strategy elements may have arisen because using two texts with contrasting opinions about the same event may have led to disciplinary thinking occurring within Intervention 2. As students enacted the reciprocal learning strategy of questioning, the questions were often disciplinary in nature. In constructing the two sets of lessons it was challenging to not propose examples of self-questioning that were disciplinary in nature. As students then clarified the questions, they often sought information about what "really happened" in the historical context of the texts read. The students' predictions also often called for hypotheses about the truthfulness of the text. Likewise, the students' summaries often

addressed ideas of accuracy and evidence. So while teachers may not have deliberately taught disciplinary strategies within Intervention 2, the generic strategies took on disciplinary properties when used with historical texts with contrasting points of view.

Four participating teachers from Intervention 1 and 2 agreed to be interviewed after the study to assess their evaluation of the instruction. This low number reflects the fact many staff went on vacation immediately after the summer school program ended and then were reluctant to revisit the lessons once school was again in session. Interviews were conducted by a certified teacher and were used as another means of determining the validity of the interventions by examining the extent to which participant experiences reflected the goals of each treatment condition. On the final day of data collection, Day 19, teachers also asked their students to reflect on the China content and reading strategy that they were taught during the program. Teachers typically asked students to respond in a whole group exercise but one teacher had her students write down their responses. Responses to the student questions were obtained from four teachers. The other teachers were unable to have the students respond to the questions because of truncated instructional time on the final day of the study, due to summer school celebrations.

Dependent Measures

Students in all three conditions completed the same series of pretests and posttests. Testing took 6 days total, with 3 days for pretesting occurring during the first week of the study, and 3 days for posttesting during the last week of the summer program. If a student was absent on a testing day, their teacher was instructed to attempt to have the student complete the test at another time that week that did not interfere with

the student taking part in that day's instruction. Some participants were lost because there was no appropriate time to conduct missed assessments.

All participating classroom teachers administered the pretests on Days 1 to 3 and Days 15 to 17 of the study, in a full-class testing environment. Students with disabilities not directly related to reading disabilities received the same accommodations (e.g., extended time, scribe) that were outlined in their IEPs for state and local assessments. Students did not receive accommodations that directly addressed reading disabilities/difficulties (e.g., modified text, reading text out loud) in order to assess the students' performance on all the components that make up reading comprehension – decoding, fluency, and comprehension skills.

Students completed a multiple choice assessment that was developed by the researcher to determine the extent to which students learned historical information about the China units that were addressed during the intervention (see Appendix J). The content assessment was administered at the start and end of the summer program. The test included 10 multiple-choice questions, with three options to select the correct fact. The questions tapped students' understanding of the geography, culture, and history of China during three time periods covered in the lessons - 19th Century colonialism, the Cultural Revolution of the 1960s-1970s, and the Tiananmen Square protests of the 1980s. To minimize the possibility that gains could be based on taking the same assessment twice, parallel forms of the test were created, with approximately half the classes taking form A at pretest and form B at posttest and the other half taking form B at pretest and form A at posttest. Each form contained the same number of questions for each time period. Students were given 10 minutes to complete the test. Students whose IEPs stipulated

extended time were given additional time; however, nearly all students were able to complete the test without the need for extension during both the pretest and posttest administrations. The tests were scored by a college intern. Students received one point for every question answered correctly. The tests were re-scored by a second college intern. Inter-rater reliability was calculated at 98.9% exact agreement. On a paired t-test, scores on versions of A and B of the History of China assessment were not significantly different across the pre- and post-administrations. Therefore, the tests appear equivalent.

All participants completed a researcher-created disciplinary reading assessment on the topic of Boston Massacre, on the first and last day of data collection (see Appendix K). The test was developed to assess students' general and disciplinary reading comprehension of primary source documents. Two parallel versions of the test were again developed in order to minimize the possibility that students would remember the assessment; in addition, counterbalancing was again accomplished by approximately half the classes taking form A at pretest and form B at posttest and approximately half the students taking form B at pretest and form A at posttest. After developing the two test versions (described below), they were evaluated for appropriateness and equivalence by two high school social studies teachers as an additional validity check. The teachers made recommendations to edit phrases that may be more challenging for middle school students, reformatted the test so the passages could be reread easily as the students answered questions, and made some general edits. The teachers found the tests equivalent.

Each disciplinary reading measure was developed with several goals in mind. First, the question of who started the Boston Massacre was selected because the Massacre

was contested for many years. Thus, when reading about it, students could apply historical literacy skills as well as more generic reading comprehension abilities. The Boston Massacre was appropriate as it was covered in their prior history curriculum, meaning students would likely have some prior knowledge of the event. A wealth of primary source documents was readily available on the topic due to the availability of John Adam's dispositions prior to his defense of the British Commander, Captain Preston. The nature of the source documents as disposition also set up a very clear eyewitness account, a type of primary source with which the students were already familiar. The test was structured around the central historical question of "who started" the Boston Massacre.

Based on findings from Stahl et al. (1996), students were provided with background information that provided a summary of the controversy that they were about to read. Each version of the assessment included two adapted primary source excerpts on the Boston Massacre taken from John Adams' depositions that were chosen to represent opposing perspectives on the event in question. One passage was taken from an eye witness account of the events which asserted that Captain Preston gave the order for the British troops to fire on the colonists and was therefore responsible for the Boston Massacre. The other eyewitness testimony asserted the opposite position, that the Captain did not give the order to fire and so was not responsible.

The historical texts were modified to reduce their length to no more than 300 words, with a mean sentence length no longer than 11 words, and a Lexile Measure no greater than 650L following guidelines by Wineburg and Martin (2009). Details that directly implicated causality in what occurred (e.g., the colonists threw snowballs at the

soldiers, the colonists dared the soldiers to fire) and details that supported the veracity of the speaker's point of view (seeing Preston demonstrate remorse post-incident, proximity to the events to therefore have seen what actually occurred) were maintained in the modified text while less central descriptive details and excess tangential testimony were removed. This was done to give the students, as poor readers, the greatest possible chance to draw connections between details in the texts, the truthfulness of the passages, and what they feel actually occurred during the incident.

Students were asked two multiple-choice questions, each with three potential responses each and a fourth "I don't know" choice, specifically about the historical context at the beginning of the test. These were literal comprehension questions, constructed to assess general reading comprehension ability. The questions were also intended to focus students on the background information about the controversy. By requiring them to answer two questions on the background, students would be prompted to carefully read about the historical context of the passages, and this contextual knowledge could inform their answers to the open-ended questions appearing later in the test. For example, on one version of the assessment, students were asked "What was happening in Boston at the time of this event?" In order to correctly answer, "Officers were stationed there to protect colonial officials," students had to read the background information that also provided information suggesting that the colonists resented the British soldiers. This information not only helped them to interpret the two primary source texts but also to discern the motivations of the colonists and British soldiers for when they had to decide which account they believed.

Following the first passage, students were presented with two more multiple choice and one direct comprehension question on the passage to assess general reading comprehension ability. One more multiple choice question required students to infer the author's purpose for including a particular detail in the text, as both a general reading comprehension indirect question and to cause students to draw connections between the author's point of view and why he chose to include particular pieces of evidence to support his argument. Two more short answer response questions further required students to draw conclusions based upon the inclusion of particular details in the account, the author's point of view, and the reader's reaction to the text. The questions after the second passage followed a similar pattern, with a direct comprehension multiple choice question followed by a short answer question asking students to consider why the author chose to include a detail in the account and how it impacts the reader's perception of his truthfulness. Then students answered another multiple choice question asking them to infer the author's intent, followed by a short answer designed to again tap how the inclusion of details, as evidence, impacts perceptions of the truthfulness and accuracy of the account. Finally, students were asked to write an argument addressing the historical question of who started the Boston Massacre by discussing which of the two accounts they believed and why. Table 3 provides information on the comparability of each primary source.

Students were given 20 minutes to complete the test; students whose IEPs provided extended time were given additional time. Students whose IEPs provided for a scribe were paired with a paraeducator to record their short answer and short essay responses. While most students completed the entire test in the time allotted during the

pre- and posttest administration, fewer blank and "I don't know" responses were found at posttest.

The rubrics were based on the approach used by De La Paz (2005), De La Paz and Felton (2010), and Reisman (2012), with students receiving points based on their use of the historical close reading strategies of identifying the context of what is read, identifying the author's point of view, describing the reader's reaction to the text, and discussing the evidence utilized by the text and the evidence missing from the text. Students received 1 point for each multiple choice question answered correctly, up to 3 points for each correct short answer, and up to 5 points for students' response to the historical question. A college intern scored all of the multiple choice questions which were then re-scored by a certified teacher. Inter-rater reliability for the multiple choice scoring was 98.9%. A certified teacher scored the short answer and essay questions using separate rubrics (see Appendix L). A second certified teacher re-scored all responses using the same rubric. Inter-rater reliability for all assessments was calculated by determining the number of assessments on which both scorers gave every response the identical number of points and dividing that number by the total number of assessments. Inter-rater reliability for the disciplinary literacy assessment was 95.0% for the short answers and 92.2% for the short essay.

After the study ended, statistical analyses were conducted to determine whether the two forms of the experimenter-developed tests were equivalent in difficulty. Unfortunately, the results of a paired t-test indicated that versions of A and B of the Reading Comprehension (Boston Massacre) assessment were significantly different across the pre- and post-administrations. However, the effects of this problem were

minimized as counterbalancing was used during administration of the pretests and posttests, ensuring that at each time point, equal numbers of student in each condition received each version of the assessment.

The Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997) was administered to students before and after the 13-day intervention to determine whether the summer interventions produced positive impacts on each student's motivation for reading. All teachers read the MRQ aloud to their classes, while students circled how much they felt each of 53 questions represented their own views and behaviors. Teachers were allotted 15 minutes for this assessment. The MRQ was scored by a certified teacher and re-scored by a second certified teacher. Student answers to multiple questions were averaged to obtain scores in 11 subcategories of motivation for reading. Inter-rater reliability was calculated at 99.44%.

On Days 2 and 16 of the 19 of the program, students were administered the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests (GMRT) comprehension subtest, Form S. This standardized reading comprehension subtest was utilized to determine growth in general reading comprehension ability (as opposed to discipline-specific skills) from the first to last weeks of the study. Students were given 35 minutes to complete the test, students whose IEPs provided extended time were given additional time. A certified teacher scored the tests and a second certified teacher re-scored them. Students were given 1 point for every question they answered correctly. Inter-rater reliability was calculated at 98.3%.

Pretest scores were used to determine whether students randomly assigned to each condition differed significantly from each other on measures of reading skill, knowledge of history content, and reading motivation. Students' most recent reading Maryland

School Assessment (MSA) scores from spring of fifth grade were also compared to determine if the students in the 3 groups differed significantly on the high-stakes test of reading performance. A series of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to evaluate the relationship between the three conditions and students' reading ability (pretest reading assessment, fifth grade reading MSA, GMRT), knowledge of the history (content pretest), and motivation for reading (MRQ). Findings of no difference would imply comparability in terms of general reading ability, content knowledge, and motivation for reading.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of three summer school reading programs on middle school struggling readers' (a) reading comprehension, using a standardized measure (Gates-MacGinitie), (b) motivation for reading, as measured by the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ), (c) ability to learn historical content (history of China), and (d) disciplinary reading (Boston Massacre). This chapter will also examine the impact on students with disabilities. This chapter presents the results from 110 rising sixth grade students who completed all reading and learning measures. The unit of analysis in the present study was the individual student score on each dependent measure.

Intervention Groups Demographic Comparisons

Table 4 presents demographic information for students in each condition. Student attendance was tracked across the 19 days of the academic intervention summer school reading program. Participating students attended an average of 17 days (range = 5 to 19). In comparison, attendance for all students participating in the summer school program averaged 14.7 days. In analyzing the results of this study, attendance was considered a measure of student fidelity because it indicates how much instruction the students received, and in examining measures of growth between pretest and posttest was considered a potential covariate in determining the effects of instruction. This was not necessary, however, because an analysis of participating students' attendance suggested that students in all three conditions attended a comparable number of days (between 16 and 17 days) during the 19 day summer school program [$F(2,107) = .665$, $MSE = 7.758$, $p = .516$ (ES = -.24).]

Table 4

Demographics by Condition

Demographic	Intervention 1 (n=35)	Intervention 2 (n=30)	Intervention 3 (n=45)
Gender			
Male	22	13	28
Female	13	17	17
Ethnicity			
Hispanic/Latino of Any Race	3	1	8
Race			
American Indian/ Native Alaskan	3	1	2
Asian	1	3	3
Black/African American	22	18	20
Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander	0	0	0
White/Caucasian	7	7	18
Two or More Races	2	1	2
Special Groups			
Special Education/504 - Active & Exited	15	12	26
Reading Goals	16	9	8
Limited English Proficient - Active & Released	2	4	8
Free and Reduced-price Meals	14	12	17
MSA Scores			
MSA Reading Scale Score Average	403.2	399.5	393.7
MSA Math Scale Score Average	393.9	391.1	391.3
Attendance			
Summer School - Average Number of Days Attended	16	17	17

Note. MSA scaled scores at or above 384 in reading, 392 in mathematics = Proficient and scaled scores at or above 425 in reading, 453 in mathematics = Advanced.

In addition to comparing students on demographics, their pretest scores were compared to determine whether the three groups differed significantly before instruction began. Separate ANOVA tests were conducted to evaluate the relationship between the three instructional conditions and the four assessments: the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Comprehension Subtest, the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire, the researcher-created content knowledge test, and the researcher-created disciplinary reading assessment. Because there were 3 instructional groups, it is important to mention that effect sizes were based on difference between Intervention 1 and 3, rather than differences between Intervention 1 and 2.

Table 5 provides means and standard deviations for these measures. At pretest, there were no significant differences between students in the three conditions on the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Comprehension subtest [$F(2, 107) = .692$, MSE = 23.953, $p = .503$, ES = -0.09,] the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire [$F(2, 99) = .094$, MSE = 23.952 $p = .910$, ES = -0.09,] the researcher-created evaluation of disciplinary reading comprehension [$F(2, 107) = .544$, MSE = 11.815, $p = .582$, ES = -0.11,] and the Chinese content knowledge assessment [$F(2, 107) = .794$, MSE = 2.043, $p = .455$, ES = -0.08.]

Treatment Validity

For the teachers who agreed to provide evidence of fidelity of implementation, each session was audio recorded and a certified teacher scored at least 20% of randomly selected lessons using the same checklist utilized during the in-person observations for the teachers who refused to be audiotaped. A second certified teacher then independently scored the same lessons. One of the teachers in Intervention 1 did not tape most of her lessons due to technical problems and forgetting to follow up with the researcher on

remedying those problems. Another teacher in Intervention 2 initially consented to be taped, as reflected in her consent form, but did not actually tape her lessons. This omission was discovered in the middle of the program and so there is no fidelity information for that individual. For the eight teachers of Intervention 1 and/or 2 for whom in-person observations and/or recordings were available, average teacher fidelity averages across all conditions that each teacher taught ranged from 2.42 to 3.09 (each element could be scored from a low of 0 to a high of 4 points).

Table 5

Summary of Dependent Measures by Condition at Pretest

	Condition					
	Int. 1		Int. 2		Int. 3	
Variable	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Gates-MacGinitie (GMRT-4)	20.86	7.468	20.53	7.431	19.16	6.007
Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ)	30.780	3.5807	30.925	5.1154	31.264	5.4265
Content Knowledge	2.80	1.106	3.23	1.736	2.91	1.427
Disciplinary Reading	6.29	3.435	5.80	3.925	6.64	3.076

Note. GMRT-4 = Gates-MacGinitie Reading Comprehension Subtest – 4th Edition Raw Score; Motivation for Reading Questionnaire = student ratings on 53 Likert scale items to determine student motivation for reading; content knowledge = students' scores on a 10 item multiple choice content knowledge assessment taken prior to instruction; disciplinary reading = researcher-created multiple choice and short answer 10 item reading comprehension assessment requiring students to utilize knowledge of history discipline-specific reading strategies

Teachers in both Intervention 1 and 2 had the most difficulty implementing with fidelity the summary/closure activities, which included student completion of the exit ticket and the teacher preview of the next day's lesson. This was because other parts of the lesson had taken more time than budgeted in the lesson plans and so the closure activities were either rushed or skipped altogether. It could also be that because the students found writing their responses to the exit tickets to be onerous that the teachers were motivated to skip those activities. The mean fidelity scores for closure activities were 1.27 in Intervention 2 and .88 in Intervention 1 (range = 0.00 to 3.00 for teacher instruction in Intervention 2; 0.00 to 2.00 for teacher instruction in Intervention 1).

Teachers in both Intervention 1 and 2 did substantially better in adhering to the lesson plans on the anticipatory set/context setting and development/procedures tasks, aspects of the lessons more directly tied to instruction in the reciprocal teaching and reading with CARE strategies. Anticipatory set/context setting activities included administration of the assessments at the beginning and end of the study, the icebreaker on the first day, reviews of the reading strategies and differences between primary and secondary sources, reinforcement of the historical question or main idea, reviews of independent and partner reading, and discussion of how to properly provide peer feedback. The mean fidelity scores for anticipatory set/context setting activities were 3.00 in Intervention 2 and 3.26 in Intervention 1 (range = 2.34 to 3.78 for teacher instruction in Intervention 2; 2.44 to 4.00 for teacher instruction in the Intervention 1).

The scores may have actually been higher (or lower), but scores for many of activities were missing because teachers did not begin recording their lessons until after some activities may have transpired. When teachers were known to deviate from the

lessons it was typically due to perceived time constraints, as activities were omitted. This was the case when testing took longer than scheduled or activities from the prior lesson were not finished.

The development/procedure activities included discussion of the steps of the reading strategy, modeling the strategy, watching videos and examining visuals, reading the texts (as a group, in partners, or individually), comprehension checks and content review, practicing the reading strategies, taking part in hands-on activities in Intervention 1, drafting short answers, and providing feedback in pairs, individually, or as a whole classroom. These activities were observed and determined to be enacted with a high level of fidelity. The mean fidelity scores for development/procedure activities were 3.15 in Intervention 2 and 3.01 in Intervention 1 (range = 2.50 to 3.76 for teacher instruction in Intervention 2; 2.03 to 3.45 for teacher instruction in Intervention 1).

As was the case for the other types of activities, deviations from the lessons occurred most often because of time constraints, with other activities taking longer than expected and the teacher then not having enough time to complete all of the development/procedures elements. Teachers also sometimes skipped steps to an activity, whether due to time constraints or simply because they appeared to forget activities that were outlined in the lesson plans. Additionally, there were two instances of one teacher who taught both Intervention 1 and 2 beginning to teach the wrong reading strategy before self-correcting (one instance) or being reminded by a student (one instance). This was observed to occur twice during the lessons of one of the two teachers who did not consent to having their lessons audiotaped. The two certified teachers who scored the recorded lessons were not specifically asked to note whether this occurred in the

instruction they listened to, however, no mentions of this occurring were present in the notes sections of their scoring rubrics.

Learning Outcomes

Table 6 shows the mean scores and standard deviations for the content knowledge assessment, reading comprehension test, disciplinary reading assessment, and motivation for reading questionnaire in Intervention 1, 2, and 3 at posttest. Repeated-measures ANOVAs were used to explore results for the academic and motivation measures. This procedure was chosen because both variables are scale variables, and there were no significant pre-instruction differences between groups. This procedure is more stringent than using a posttest ANOVA comparison and less likely to produce spurious results (Leach, Barrett, & Morgan, 2012, pp. 81-82).

Standardized Reading Comprehension (Gates-MacGinitie)

A repeated-measures ANOVA test was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the three conditions and performance on the reading comprehension test. There was a main effect for time [$F(1,107) = 23.45$, $MSE = 21.158$, $p = .000$] but not for condition [$F(2, 107) = .525$ $MSE = 81.104$, $p = .593$.] Nor was there an interaction between time and condition [Wilks' $\Lambda = .99$, $F(2,107) = .142$, $p = .867$.] Therefore, after instruction, students in all conditions showed small but significant, positive changes in their reading comprehension after participating in the summer reading program, however students in Intervention 1 and 2 did not improve more than students in Intervention 3.

Table 6

Summary of Dependent Measures by Condition at Posttest

	Condition					
	Int. 1		Int. 2		Int. 3	
Variable	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Gates-MacGinitie (GMRT-4)	23.77	7.59	23.27	7.82	22.64	6.95
Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ)	30.18	4.23	31.87	5.02	30.97	5.68
Content Knowledge	6.0	1.81	5.7	1.56	3.56	1.53
Disciplinary Reading	8.6	3.59	8.87	3.43	6.56	2.74

Note. GMRT-4 = Gates-MacGinitie Reading Comprehension Subtest – 4th Edition Raw Score; Motivation for Reading Questionnaire = student ratings on 53 Likert scale items to determine student motivation for reading; content knowledge = students' scores on a 10 item multiple choice content knowledge assessment taken prior to instruction; and disciplinary reading assessment = researcher-created multiple choice and short answer 10 item reading comprehension assessment requiring students to utilize knowledge of history discipline-specific reading strategies

Motivation for Reading (MRQ)

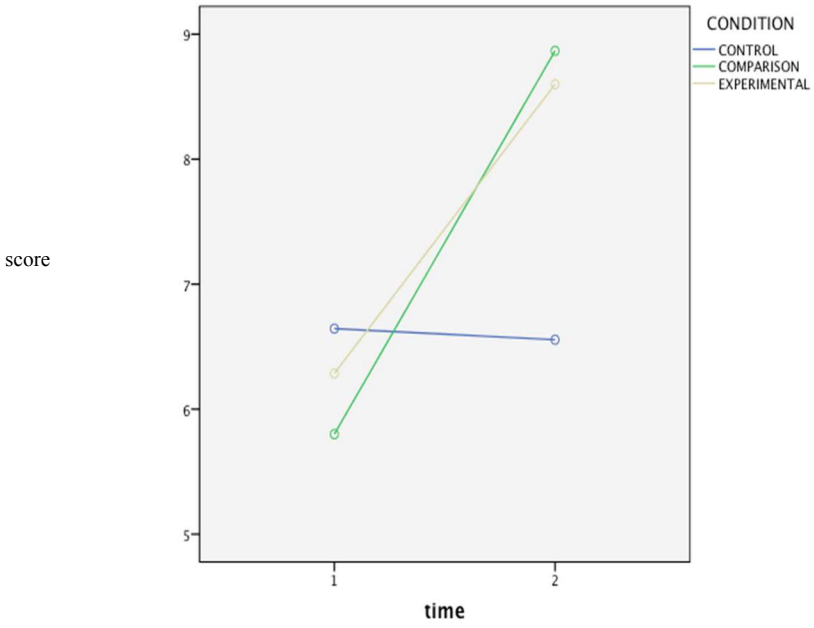
A repeated-measures ANOVA test was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the three conditions and performance on the MRQ. It showed there were no significant effects by time [$F(1, 86) = .028$, MSE = .133, $p = .867$.] Nor were there differences for condition [$F(2, 86) = .258$, MSE = 46.707, $p = .773$.] Nor was there a significant interaction: [Wilks' $\Lambda = .974$, $F(2, 86) = 1.155$, $p = .32$.] These results indicated that students in each condition reported comparable levels of reading motivation and that they did not show differences in motivation from pretest.

Content Knowledge (History of China)

A repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the three conditions and performance on the content knowledge assessment. The ANOVA showed a main effect for time, [F(1,107) = 92.21, MSE = 2.567, p=.000] and a main effect for condition [F(2, 107) = 17.823, MSE = 2.143 , p = .000.] In addition, there was a statistically significant interaction between time and condition [Wilks' Λ = .798, F (2,107) = .13.575, p = .000.] Because the covariance was found to be similar across groups and Levene's test of equality of error variances was not violated at pre- or posttest, Scheffe's post hoc multiple comparison test was used to determine the differences between groups. This test revealed a statistically significant difference between students in Intervention 1 and Intervention 3 p = .000, and between students in Intervention 2 and Intervention 3 p = .000, but not between students in Intervention 1 and 2 p = .967. Therefore, after instruction, students in both Intervention 1 and 2 gained better content understanding of the four historical topics (e.g., Geography and Culture of China, Treaty of Nanking, Cultural Revolution, Tiananmen Square Protests) than students in Intervention 3. Figure 2 illustrates how the students in Intervention 3 saw a small decrease in the average score on the history of China assessment, while students in Intervention 1 and 2 had significant increases from pre- to post-assessment.

Figure 2

Interaction between condition and outcome on the content assessment



Disciplinary Reading Comprehension (Boston Massacre)

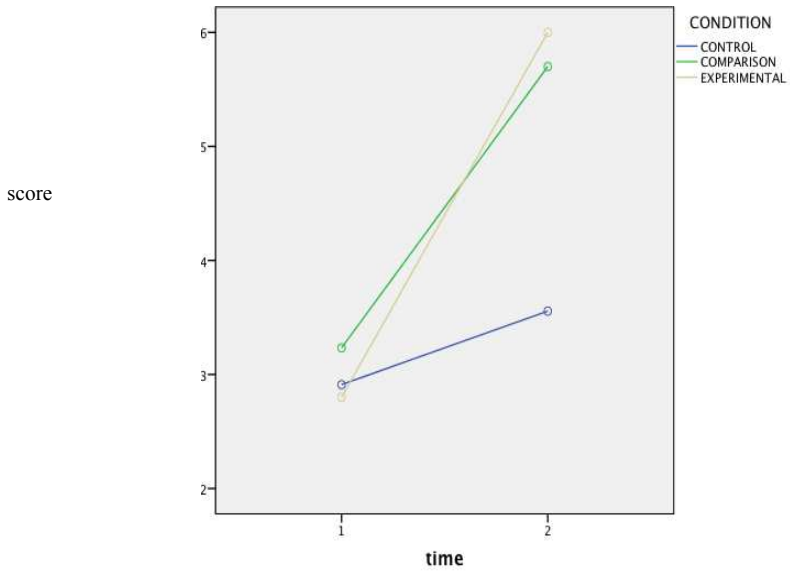
A repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the three conditions and performance on the disciplinary comprehension assessment. There was a main effect for time F (1,107) = 28.07, MSE = 5.93, p = .000 but not for condition F (2, 107) = 1.04, MSE = 16.25, p =.357. Importantly, there was a statistically significant interaction between time and condition Wilks' Λ = .858, F (2,107) = 8.866, p = .000. The covariance was equivalent across and Levene's test of equality of error variances was not violated at pre or posttest. Using Scheffe's test to look at differences between means at posttest, no difference was found, presumably due to a large error term (8.125) or low sample size. Therefore, after instruction, students in Intervention 1 and 2 showed significant, positive changes in their disciplinary reading after participating in the summer reading program. An examination of the interaction shows that students in

Intervention 1 and 2 improved from before to after the summer reading program, but students in Intervention 3, on average, did not improve in their disciplinary reading skills. Figure 3 demonstrates how the students in Intervention 3 had no significant change on the disciplinary reading assessment, while students in Intervention 1 and 2 had significant increases from pre- to post-assessment.

Using a repeated measures design, further analyses were conducted to determine whether students who received the disciplinary intervention outperformed students who received the generic strategy instruction on comprehension questions that tapped disciplinary thinking (and vice versa), by dividing the dependent measure into (a) generic comprehension questions and (b) disciplinary questions. A repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the three conditions and performance on the generic comprehension questions. There was a main effect for time $F(1,107) = 458.57$, $MSE = 4945.55$, $p = .000$ but not for condition $F(2, 107) = 1.14$, $MSE = 12.28$, $p = .324$. Importantly, there was a statistically significant interaction between time and condition Wilks' $\Lambda = .865$, $F(2,107) = 41.785$, $p = .000$. The covariance was equivalent across and Levene's test of equality of error variances was not violated at pre or posttest. Using Scheffe's test to look at differences between means at posttest, no difference was found, presumably due to a large error term or low sample size.

Figure 3

Interaction between condition and outcome on the disciplinary reading measure



A repeated measures ANOVA was also conducted to evaluate the relationship between the three conditions and performance on the disciplinary questions. There was a main effect for time F (1,107) = 41.785, MSE = 144.74, p = .000 and condition F (2, 107) = 8.38, MSE = 29.03, p =.000. Importantly, there was a statistically significant interaction between time and condition Wilks' Λ = .858, F (2,107) = 8.866, p = .000. The covariance was equivalent across and Levene's test of equality of error variances was not violated at pre or posttest. Using Scheffe's test to look at differences between means at posttest, no difference was found, presumably due to a large error term or low sample size. Therefore, after instruction, students in Intervention 1 and 2 showed significant, positive changes in their performance on both the generic comprehension questions and disciplinary questions after participating in the summer reading program. An examination

of the interaction shows that students in Intervention 1 and 2 improved from before to after the summer reading program, but students in Intervention 3, on average, did not improve on either type of question. There was no significant difference between Intervention 1 and 2, however, students in Intervention 2 performed slightly better than Intervention 1. This could be due to the fact more students took test B, a slightly easier test, as the post-measure in Intervention 2.

Summary of Results

Students in all groups improved on a standardized measure of reading. Students in Intervention 1 and 2 improved on the disciplinary reading and content measures. Students did not increase their motivation for reading.

Outcomes for Students with Disabilities

Outcomes were examined to determine whether students who had IEP goals in reading differed significantly from their peers who were struggling readers allowing for additional comparisons according to students' disability status. The comparisons were conducted as ANOVA tests for each outcome to determine whether students with and without disabilities made comparable learning gains for the reading comprehension and content learning measures.

Standardized Reading Comprehension (Gates-MacGinitie)

The ANOVA analyses did not show significant differences on performance among the two groups of students with and without disabilities on the Gates-MacGinitie before [F (1, 108) = 0.275, MSE = 13.106, p = .601 (ES = .00)] or after the intervention [F (1, 108) = 3.770, MSE = 198.411, p = .055 (ES = .03).] Pretest Gates scores averaged 20.30 (SD = 6.55) for the general education students and 19.55 (SD = 7.67) for the

students with disabilities. Posttest Gates scores averaged 24.05 (SD = 7.25) for the general education students and 21.12 (SD = 7.27) for the students with disabilities.

Motivation for Reading (MRQ)

Pretest MRQ scores averaged 30.99 (SD = 4.51) for the general education students and 31.02 (SD = 5.73) for the students with disabilities. Posttest MRQ scores averaged 30.65 (SD = 5.30) for the general education students and 31.68 (SD = 5.09) for the students with disabilities. The ANOVA analyses did not show significant differences on performance between two groups of students with and without disabilities on the MRQ before [F (1, 99) = .001, MSE = .016, p = .979 (ES = .00)] or after the intervention [F (1, 93) = 0.686, MSE = 18.901, p = .410 (ES = .01).]

Content Knowledge (History of China)

Pretest content knowledge scores averaged 2.99 (SD = 1.35) for the general education students and 2.91 (SD = 1.61) for the students with disabilities. Posttest content scores averaged 5.10 (SD = 1.90) for the general education students and 4.49 (SD = 2.14) for the students with disabilities. Results of the ANOVA before the unit were not significantly different [F (1, 108) = 0.068, MSE = 0.140, p = .794 (ES = .00),] nor were they after the unit [F (1, 108) = 2.28, MSE = 8.853, p = .134 (ES = .02).] Both students with and without disabilities learned historical content about China to equivalent degrees, with each group of students being able to answer approximately 60% of the multiple choice questions correctly at posttest.

Disciplinary Reading Comprehension (Boston Massacre)

Pretest disciplinary reading scores averaged 6.38 (SD = 3.94) for the general education students and 6.12 (SD = 3.94) for the students with disabilities. Posttest content

scores averaged 8.29 (SD = 3.29) for the general education students and 7.2 (SD = 3.43) for the students with disabilities. Results of the ANOVA analyses before the unit were not significantly different [F (1, 108) = 0.128, MSE = 1.507, p = .722 (ES = .00).] In addition, after the unit they remained similar [F (1, 108) = 2.675, MSE = 29.716, p = .105 (ES = .00).] Therefore ANOVA analyses revealed similar levels of growth among the students with and without disabilities on the disciplinary reading measure.

Summary

Students with disabilities scored in a manner consistent with that of peers without disabilities on all of the variables under consideration. Students with disabilities scored at comparable levels as students without disabilities on the Gates-MacGinitie, content measure and the disciplinary reading measure. Students with disabilities were no different in terms of motivation than general education students.

Social Validity

Teacher Reaction

Participating teachers who taught in Intervention 1 and 2 were interviewed after the study to assess their evaluation of the instruction. Interviews were conducted by a certified teacher and were used as another means of determining the validity of the interventions by examining the extent to which participant experiences reflected the goals of each treatment condition. On the final day of data collection, Day 19, teachers also asked their students to reflect on the China content and reading strategy that they were taught during the program. Teachers typically asked students to respond in a whole group exercise but one teacher had her students write down their responses.

Teachers reported that both the Intervention 2 reciprocal teaching strategy and the Intervention 1 reading with CARE approach made it easier for their students to learn historical content. They stated that the structure of the lessons, utilizing the cognitive strategy instruction model and reinforcement of the steps in the reading strategy, helped the students focus. Two teachers who taught both Intervention 1 and 2 thought the students were more easily able to understand and implement the reciprocal teaching strategy than reading with CARE. Students enjoyed and were better able to enact the more concrete and explicit question generation element of reciprocal teaching than the more complex questioning strategies embedded in the reading with CARE steps. Both teachers felt that the reading with CARE approach was too advanced for students about to enter sixth grade, in that they had difficulty at that age in being able to judge the reliability of sources. Another teacher who taught both conditions and had a number of students with special education needs concurred that her students enjoyed the reciprocal teaching approach more, although she herself preferred reading with CARE. She also stated that she was impressed that students in both conditions did not balk at the repetitive nature of the lessons and credited the high-interest China content with motivating her students to persevere.

All teachers reported that the cognitive strategy instruction model was effective, that students were able to learn the steps of the strategy at the pace prescribed by the lessons. Many of the teachers noted that the mnemonics for the strategies were very useful in this regard. All teachers reported that the visuals, videos, and hands-on activities (for Intervention 1) helped to keep the students engaged. The students enjoyed learning about China and the teachers often did research on their own to fill in the historical gaps

between the lesson units, to answer specific student questions, or to learn more about Chinese history to sate their own curiosity. Teachers highlighted the importance of the class-wide discussions in helping students to understand the texts and reported high levels of student enthusiasm during these exchanges. On the other hand, all teachers reported that students struggled with the writing exercises, both in terms of execution and motivation to complete the exit questions and short answers, and students in the Intervention 1 had difficulty assisting each other during partner reading and peer feedback.

The teachers interviewed reported that both the reading with CARE and reciprocal teaching lessons, built around both primary and secondary source documents, could be used in history classrooms at the middle school level, with the reading with CARE strategy being a more "natural" fit for history instruction. They also agreed that both strategies could be used in reading/English Language Arts classes, although reading with CARE would be more appropriate for teaching biographies or historical fiction. One teacher who taught both conditions and teaches English during the school year asked to use the reading with CARE lessons for her unit on argument writing. She said that the students struggle with the unit and that the reading with CARE strategy embedded in the China context seemed like a better approach than what she has used in the past.

When asked what could be done to improve the lessons in both conditions, teachers noted that the 80-minute lessons were too long to adequately hold student attention. They reflected that if they were teaching the lessons in their classroom they would have modified the pacing of the lessons based on how quickly their students grasped the strategies and might even individualize instruction at the student level, but

were afraid to do over the summer and "mess up" the study. All teachers also wanted more hands-on group activities, particularly if the lessons were to be used with older students.

All teachers also reported that most of the students felt more confident about their reading skills at the end of the lessons. They reported that the students seemed to learn the China content, but were unsure if the lessons had a positive impact on reading or writing skills. They also stated that the students seemed very engaged with the content, especially the units about the Cultural Revolution and Tiananmen Square protests, and that both the students and teachers greatly enjoyed the hands-on activities in Intervention 1, especially the Cultural Revolution poster activity.

Student Reaction

The students' feedback echoed that of their teachers. Students in both conditions stated that they preferred to learn history using primary and secondary sources rather than reading a textbook. One teacher suggested this was due, in part, to students being able to interact with the handouts (by underlining, highlighting, taking notes) in ways that they could not do with a school-owned text. The majority of students also said they learned more about China from the class-wide discussions than if they just read a text. Students also enjoyed the social aspects of the lessons, from the group lessons, to the teacher read aloud, to the group hands-on activities in Intervention 1. Students stated that the historical questions helped them to better understand the units by helping them focus and frame what they were learning. A majority of students also agreed that both Intervention 1 and 2 lessons made them enjoy reading and history more than they had at the beginning of the summer, although many students who already enjoyed these subjects reported no change

to their levels of enthusiasm. Students in both conditions disliked the amount of writing and the repetitive nature of the exit questions, however. Most students in both conditions also wanted to see the instructional approach they experienced implemented in history classes during the school year, although some students in Intervention 1 thought that reading with CARE was "too hard" and "took too long."

Summary

In this chapter, an introduction was given to the analysis and statistical tests that were to be discussed and the order in which they were to be addressed. This was followed by a demographic analysis of the sample and a comparison of excerpt transcripts from group discussions and treatment fidelity data provide information on the nature of the intervention. The one-way and repeated measure ANOVA's comparing Intervention 1 and 2 outcomes and the social validity check of the 19 day investigation provide some indication on the benefits and limits of the instruction under investigation. Students in all groups improved on a standardized measure of reading. Students in Intervention 1 and 2 improved on the disciplinary reading and content measures. Students did not increase their motivation for reading. Students with disabilities scored in a consistent manner to peers without disabilities on some but not all of the variables under consideration.

Students with disabilities scored in a manner consistent with that of peers without disabilities on the Gates-MacGinitie, MRQ, History of China test and the disciplinary reading measure.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

Introduction

Chapter Five provides a summary of the study, discussion of the findings, limitations of the current study, and implications for future research and practice. The purpose of this chapter is to expand upon the prior analysis, examine how the results did or did not align with what was predicted from past research, and examine how the methodology utilized could be improved upon to yield clearer results. Based on my findings, I provide suggestions for future research on disciplinary literacy instruction, adolescent reading interventions, and summer programs.

Summary of the Study

This study was conducted to test the effectiveness of three interventions with identified struggling readers during the summer before they attended sixth grade. The interventions were as follows: (a) Intervention 1, with instruction based in history content, taught with a disciplinary literacy strategy (CARE) similar to that utilized in the research of De La Paz (2005), De La Paz & Felton, (2010), and Reisman (2012) and based upon a version of the RLH framework developed by Wineburg and others (Wineburg, et al., 2011); (b) Intervention 2, based in the same history content as Intervention 1, but that utilized a reciprocal teaching reading strategy, a multi-component generic literacy intervention that encouraged group work and discussion among students and between students and the teacher (Palincsar & Brown, 1984); and, (c) Intervention 3, a literacy intervention unconnected to the world history context and using multiple ad hoc reading strategies. The study took place in a summer program, not as part of regular

school day and year instruction, and the length of the intervention was relatively short – 80 minutes a day for 13 days.

Based on prior research on the utility of disciplinary literacy strategies, it was anticipated that students in Intervention 1 would outperform their peers in the other two conditions on measures of non-discipline specific reading comprehension, motivation for reading, content knowledge, and history-specific disciplinary reading comprehension, and that students in Intervention 2 would outperform students in Intervention 3 on content knowledge and history-specific disciplinary reading comprehension. Utilizing these three conditions, the study sought to answer the following three research questions:

1) Do students who participate in a Tier 2 content-based disciplinary intervention or a Tier 2 content-based generic reading comprehension program show greater reading gains than students who participate in a generic comprehension program?
2) Do students who participate in a Tier 2 content-based disciplinary intervention or a Tier 2 content-based generic reading comprehension program show greater content knowledge gains than students who participate in a generic comprehension program?
3) Do students with reading disabilities show the same reading and content knowledge gains as other struggling readers?

Discussion of Findings

Researchers and practitioners have come to realize that adolescent literacy is more than simply a continuation of the decoding, fluency, and comprehension skills learned in early childhood (Heller & Greenleaf, 2007; Snow & Biancarosa, 2003), but that it also

represents the learning of new discipline-based comprehension and communication strategies (Moje, 2007; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). In recent years, several studies have revealed robust approaches for teaching disciplinary literacy (Reisman, 2012; De La Paz et al., 2014). However, much of this research has taken place with older students who are many years past when the transition to mastering discipline-specific comprehension would optimally begin. Additionally, most of these studies have taken place during regular school hours, as part of general education content class instruction. While good Tier 1 general education classroom instruction is the primary means by which students learn to navigate transitions in learning, this alone is not sufficient for all students, especially those who have struggled with mastering more basic reading skills and so having been identified as having a reading-based learning disability or simply labeled as poor readers. To that end, the field benefits from examining how to best support disciplinary literacy instruction through Tier 2 targeted interventions, interventions that, due to the time constraints inherent in students' regular school day schedule, may need to occur beyond school hours. It was with these research and practice needs in mind that this study was undertaken.

Research Question One

Do students who participate in a Tier 2 content-based disciplinary intervention or a Tier 2 content-based generic reading comprehension program show greater reading gains than students who participate in a generic comprehension program?

In assessing the relationship between the three conditions and performance on the Gates-MacGinitie, a test of generic, discipline non-specific, reading comprehension, it was found that there was a main effect for time but not for condition. Nor was there an

interaction between time and condition. Students in all three conditions showed significant, positive changes in their reading comprehension after participating in the summer reading program.

The most likely explanation for significant growth for all students on the Gates-MacGinitie, which measured generic reading comprehension, was that the instructional programs used in all three conditions were specifically designed to produce growth in reading comprehension even in a 19-day summer school program (some days longer than others). Even Intervention 3 included reading comprehension strategy instruction, although of a less coherent nature than the reciprocal teaching or reading with CARE strategies. While the additional motivational elements and more systemic, coherent natures of the Intervention 1 and 2 might have led to greater growth over Intervention 3 were the program longer, the differences among the three conditions were not enough to manifest large differences across conditions in reading comprehension growth during the short timeframe of the study.

Varied types of multi-component reading comprehension assessments may lead to increased performance for students. In contrast, when looking at an assessment specifically designed by the primary investigator to measure history-specific disciplinary reading performance, there was a statistically significant interaction between time and condition with students in Interventions 1 and 2 showing significant, positive changes in their disciplinary reading, after participating in the summer reading program, in contrast to students in Intervention 3 who did not improve in their disciplinary reading skills. These results were true for the measure as a whole and also when the test results were examined by type of comprehension questions (generic vs. disciplinary).

Furthermore, there were no significant differences between Intervention 1 and 2 on the assessment of disciplinary reading, although students in both groups, on average, performed better at posttest than those in Intervention 3. In addition, students in Intervention 1 and 2 scored just as well on this measure at posttest, showing similar ability to correctly address direct and indirect reading comprehension questions related to sequencing of events, causation, and details of the accounts. They were also comparable in their ability to connect particular elements of the texts to the authors' points of view and then draw a conclusion about the relative trustworthiness of the two eyewitness accounts. There was no significant difference in performance between Intervention 1 and 2 on any type of question. Explicit instruction on challenging vocabulary, introduction of "fix-up" strategies to assist with decoding, and provision of repetitive reading opportunities to increase student fluency may have addressed many of the word-level barriers to comprehension for students in Intervention 1 and 2, allowing them to focus cognitive resources on higher-level comprehension activities, such as those requiring them to link author's intent and the content of the eyewitness accounts with the trustworthiness of each text. This could also be due to the fact more students took test B, an easier version of the test, as the post-measure in Intervention 2

The students in Intervention 2, who were taught using the reciprocal teaching strategy, may also have shown the best results (they performed better at posttest, although not significantly so, on the measure as a whole as well as on both the generic comprehension and disciplinary questions when they were examined separately) due to teacher and student familiarity with the reciprocal teaching strategies or with the fact students starting grade 6 may need a greater emphasis on generic comprehension

strategies. The strategies that make up reciprocal teaching were similar to those used in teaching reading comprehension in the participating district's elementary and middle schools and these strategies may have met the needs of students.

Furthermore, as all but three of the participating teachers taught reading or English/language arts in the district during the school year, they were familiar with these strategies and had practice instructing students in their use, in contrast to the reading with CARE lessons which were new to both teachers and students. The students also had prior exposure to reciprocal teaching strategies through their prior experiences in reading instruction.

Research Question Two

Do students who participate in a Tier 2 content-based disciplinary intervention or a Tier 2 content-based generic reading comprehension program show greater content knowledge gains than students who participate in a generic comprehension program?

There were no significant differences between Intervention 1 and 2 on an assessment of content, indicating comparable levels in learning historical information although students in both groups, on average, performed better at posttest than those in Intervention 3. Intervention 1 and 2 students were exposed to the history of China content, unlike those in Intervention 3. Both Intervention 1 and 2 used the same passages to expose students to historical content. Therefore, the finding that students exposed to historical information outperformed students who had not been taught any history of China content is not surprising.

Research Question Three

Do students with reading disabilities show the same reading and content knowledge gains as other struggling readers?

On average, the identified struggling readers in all three conditions improved on a standardized measure of non-discipline specific reading comprehension. Students in Interventions 1 and 2 also improved on the disciplinary reading and content measures. With the researcher-created assessment of content knowledge, students were required to answer multiple-choice questions drawing on the knowledge of the history, culture, and geography of China that they acquired through the 4 weeks of the program. Questions required them to identify the decade in which specific historical events occurred, why such events occurred, and which global powers were actors in these events. Students in Interventions 1 and 2 nearly doubled their number of correct responses from pretest to posttest, however, their posttest scores, on average, would still have been below the 65% correct level usually required to pass such an examination.

Additionally, students with disabilities scored in a manner consistent with that of their peers without disabilities on all of the variables under consideration. Students with disabilities scored at comparable levels as students without disabilities on a generic reading comprehension, a disciplinary reading measure, and a historical content measure. Students with disabilities showed no difference in motivation for reading than their general education student peers. These results illustrate that both discipline-specific and generic reading comprehension strategies can be effective for students receiving special education services.

The results from this study may provide the rationale for including this type of instruction as an appropriate part of a Tier 2 small group intervention in a Response to Intervention (RTI) framework. As mentioned by Prewett et al. (2012), researchers and school administrators continue to search for effective Tier 2 interventions for students who fail to respond with adequate growth and achievement to good, research-based Tier 1 classroom instruction. In secondary schools where intervention time is at a premium during school hours, many administrators may see beyond school hours programs as an effective means of providing Tier 2 interventions.

The students who participated in the current study were identified using criteria similar to those typically used to select students for Tier 2 interventions (local and state measures of reading performance). Moreover, the study took place within a beyond the school year academic intervention framework that operates as one option for providing a Tier 2 intervention to underperforming students. Therefore, the finding that students who received special education services and those without disabilities grew at comparable rates on both generic and discipline-specific reading comprehension measures, argues in favor of the utility of beyond school hours programs such as the one outlined here as a Tier 2 intervention.

Limitations

This study is not without limitations that should be recognized. The current research would likely have benefited from more clearly delineated intervention conditions, a longer intervention period, more extensive training before the program began, and greater monitoring and correction of lapses in fidelity during the program. As the study took place during a summer school program that was designed to improve the

comprehension skills of struggling readers, it was not possible to include a true control condition where students received no instruction. While Intervention 3 suffered from a lack of coherence in the strategies taught and the content covered, it was still designed using proven comprehension strategies and engaging texts. Intervention 2 also unintentionally contained disciplinary literacy aspects within the questioning and clarifying reciprocal teaching strategies, which when applied to two primary source historical documents with differing points of view, was essentially the same as the rReading with CARE elements such as author's point of view, historical context, and the evidence each author did or did not include in their version of the event.

Fidelity was likely negatively impacted by the author's inability to provide as in-depth and sophisticated professional learning as originally intended. Due to other obligations related to the author's employment in the school system and the end of school year schedule of the participating teachers, there was insufficient time to conduct more and longer training sessions that could have more effectively modeled how instruction should take place in each condition. Ideally, professional learning would have looked similar to that which took place over the four full-day Saturday sessions in the recent study by De La Paz et al. (2014), with researchers modeling use of the curriculum materials and participating teachers having the opportunity to practice instruction in a model lesson and receive feedback from the author and the other teachers instructing in the same intervention group.

However, it is also possible that even if the author had the opportunity to implement more training, the teachers may have balked at additional training, as many had taught in the summer program for several years and were accustomed to limited pre-

program training. Also, unlike in the recent study by De La Paz and her colleagues (2014), training for this study necessarily had to occur at the end rather than the beginning of the school year, a time when teachers do not anticipate or desire intense training and may be suffering from "burn out" from all the professional learning that took place prior in the school year.

Closer monitoring of fidelity of implementation, however, would likely not have been negatively impacted by the same sort of challenges as additional training, and would still have increased the quality of instruction by providing more opportunities for feedback between the participating teachers and the investigator. Such feedback, especially that provided after participating teachers practiced a lesson, may have led to revision of the curricula so that the lessons could more easily be provided within the 80 minutes allotted each day. Less ambitious lesson plans that were easier to teach within a single class period may also have increased fidelity of instruction and minimized the impact of improper instructional practices. Ongoing "just in time" reminders of each lesson's goals and the key elements of each reading strategy, as done in De La Paz et al. (2014), could also have led to the correction of faulty instructional practices and increased fidelity of implementation.

It is also possible that some non-significant differences between treatment conditions may have reached significance had there been larger sample sizes. The voluntary nature of the summer school program, in contrast to a regular school hours program that requires attendance, led to a significant degree of absenteeism, especially at the beginning and end of the program when the assessments were administered. This resulted in a relatively low number of participating students for whom all measures were

obtained than might otherwise have been expected from an initial pool of 250 students. This was particularly a problem where one teacher's post-assessments were lost, negatively impacting the number of students in Interventions 1 and 2.

The disciplinary reading measure also had two forms that differed in terms of level of difficulty. It would have been ideal to test the assessments prior to the intervention to discover these differences and improve upon the assessment in order to ensure the two forms of the test were truly equivalent. However, this limitation was mitigated by the counterbalancing of the two forms, although, by chance, more students in Intervention 1 received the more difficult version at posttest. Additionally, improvement on the MRQ was limited due to the inability to incorporate intended elements within the interventions.

Implications for Research

The results from the present study extended the research on the benefits of disciplinary literacy instruction in several ways. This study demonstrated students as young as those entering sixth grade could be effectively taught with a disciplinary literacy strategy as shown by the growth in content knowledge and generic and discipline-specific reading comprehension of students in Intervention 1. As past research had taken place with high school students (De La Paz & Felton, 2010; Reisman, 2012) or older middle school students (De La Paz, 2005; De La Paz et al., 2014), this study suggests that early middle school students can also be included in future studies examining the effectiveness of disciplinary literacy instruction.

The present study also demonstrated that poor readers and students receiving special education services could learn a disciplinary reading comprehension strategy with no significant differences in growth between those receiving or not receiving special

education services on the Gates-MacGinitie test of general reading comprehension and the disciplinary reading posttest. It was also demonstrated that a disciplinary literacy instructional strategy could be effectively taught beyond school hours, through the 13, 80-minute sessions of a summer school program. Again, these findings suggest that future research on disciplinary literacy instruction can successfully take place with students of all reading levels and during beyond school hours programs, suggesting new avenues for research, particularly for those who want to determine if disciplinary literacy strategy instruction might be an effective means of improving reading comprehension performance in struggling adolescent readers.

More positive results may not have been established due to a host of factors such as student age and reading ability levels and the short duration of this intervention compared to those in the past. It is also the case that the intervention studied here did not incorporate all of the RLH elements that had been utilized with older school students. Future research with younger students should attempt to include the elements of the RLH framework that were not specifically addressed in this intervention. These include corroboration and more in depth instruction in contextualization.

Perhaps of greatest interest for future research is that finding in the current study that students taught through reciprocal teaching instruction did not differ significantly from those in Intervention 1 in growth from pretest to posttest on the assessment of history-specific disciplinary reading comprehension. These results were likely due to the unintentional overlap between Intervention 1 and 2, with the reciprocal teaching strategy taking on elements of the discipline-specific reading with CARE approach due to the context of using the strategy to comprehend two opposing narratives of the same

historical event. But given that such a generic reading strategy may take on attributes of discipline-specific approaches when applied to that discipline's context, an interesting research question for young middle school-aged students may be to what degree is using multiple primary source texts sufficient paired with a generic reading strategy sufficient to achieve gains similar to using a true discipline-specific reading strategy?

Implications for Practice

Appropriate text selection appears to boost learning, so selecting meaningful texts and having them be grade-level appropriate is important to historical instruction. Given the emphasis on disciplinary literacy in the CCSS, it is crucial that practitioners understand how to best instruct students in discipline-specific communication and comprehension. The following Common Core Reading Standards apply to these lessons and serve as reminders for the need for interventions such as the one studied here for students in grades six and above:

- Standard RI.6.1 - Cite textual evidence to support analysis of what the text says explicitly as well as inferences drawn from the text.
- Standard RI.6.2 - Determine a central idea of a text and how it is conveyed through particular details; provide a summary of the text distinct from personal opinions or judgments.
- Standard RI.6.4 - Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including figurative, connotative, and technical meanings.
- Standard RI.6.6-Determine an author's point of view or purpose in a text and explain how it is conveyed in the text.

- Standard RI.6.8 - Trace and evaluate the argument and specific claims in a text, distinguishing claims that are supported by reasons and evidence from claims that are not.
- Standard RI.6.9 - Compare and contrast one author's presentation of events with that of another (e.g., a memoir written by and a biography on the same person).
- Standard RH.6-8.1- Cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources.
- Standard RH.6-8.2 - Determine the central ideas or information of a primary or secondary source; provide an accurate summary of the source distinct from prior knowledge or opinions.
- Standard RH.6-8.4 - Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including vocabulary specific to domains related to history/social studies.
- Standard RH.6-8.6- Identify aspects of a text that reveal an author's point of view or purpose (e.g., loaded language, inclusion or avoidance of particular facts)
- Standard RH.6-8.8 - Distinguish among fact, opinion, and reasoned judgment in a text.
- Standard RH.6-8.9 - Analyze the relationship between a primary and secondary source on the same topic

The applicable standards were included in each lesson plan and teachers were trained to keep these standards in mind during instruction.

The similar performance of students in Intervention 1 and 2 may suggest that any research-validated reading comprehension strategy will allow students to succeed on

content-specific reading comprehension tasks, at least history-specific tasks, and that curriculum writers and teachers do not need to radically alter how they work together to instruct students. Students at the late elementary/early middle school age would benefit from instruction in general comprehension strategies and appropriate text.

However, as the measure of student reading comprehension, both on the new PARCC high stakes tests and in college and careers, is the ability for student to communicate comprehension through writing, it will be important to include writing outcomes in all future research. As the reciprocal teaching strategy was not designed to be a writing framework, it may not be enough to instruct students how to write about historical information. CARE, and other forms of disciplinary literacy interventions (De La Paz, 2005; Reisman, 2012) are likely to be better than reciprocal teaching for this purpose.

Moreover, the current study demonstrated that a discipline-specific reading strategy such as reading with CARE is likely to find acceptance among both teachers and middle school students. Both participating students and their teachers reported that such a strategy would be appropriate for teaching history to middle school students, especially with further emphasis on hands-on activities and other slight modifications. Such a strategy could even be taught to younger students, as the participants in this study had just completed fifth grade and were all identified as struggling readers. It is likely, then, that these types of materials would be appropriate to use with fifth graders of mixed reading ability levels, as well as students with disabilities with reading goals. This is important, as it would allow for the successful teaching of early disciplinary literacy

concepts before students are asked to show proficiency on disciplinary literacy tasks in middle and high school.

When changing teacher practice, it is crucial that training be robust, ongoing, and provided in a manner, time, and place that are attractive to teachers. Comparing the limited training and fidelity of instruction measures of this study to those in a study such as conducted by De La Paz and her colleagues (2014), the current results are less surprising. That De La Paz et al. (2014) demonstrated that four full-day training sessions resulted in higher average fidelity and that fidelity of instruction was a key component in determining the quality of student arguments only underscores the importance of high quality training before the start of an intervention and ongoing monitoring during instruction.

Finally, this study demonstrated that effective instruction or intervention can occur during the summer. Summer can be a valuable time for instruction, even with a program such as the one in the present study which only include 13, 80-minute periods of true instructional time. Given the paucity of studies in the beyond school hours area, results such as those in this investigation are crucial for school administrators, such as those described in Prewett et al. (2012), who are seeking to close achievement gaps and assist struggling readers by providing research-based Tier II RTI interventions, while not taking away from the instruction that they receive during the school day.

Appendix A

Reciprocal Teaching Strategy

Element and Theoretical Frame	**Application in the Study**	**Examples/Prompts**
Prediction and Activation of prior knowledge	Students make predictions about the rest of the text or historical events beyond but related to the text (can articulate the basis of their predictions in the text's structure or content or other historical knowledge)	*What do you think the text will be about? How do you think the author will feel about the subject of the text? (based on information in the headnote) What do you think the text will tell us?*
Question and Self-questioning strategies	Students generate questions based on what they have read of the text (who, what, when, where, how, why, what if?)	*Who? What? Where? When? How? Why? What if? questions.*
Clarify and Self-monitoring strategies	Students identify confusing elements of the text (content, vocabulary, language usage) and attempt to clarify them (re-reading, context, breaking words into parts, peer discussion)	*What in the text was unclear or confusing? What words were difficult to understand? What kind of text is this? What is the purpose of the text?*
Summarize and Summarization strategies	Students summarize the text (identify actors, main idea, events, causation)	*Summarize the text in your own words.*

Appendix B

CARE Strategy

Element	**Theoretical Frame**	**Application in the Study**	**Examples/Prompts**
Context of the text	Reading Like A Historian (Wineburg): close reading, contextualization	Students will use the text's headnote and prior historical knowledge (from other texts in unit and/or history classes) to answer questions about where, when, and why the text was written	*How do we know who wrote this? Where/when/why was this written?*
Author's point of view	Reading Like A Historian (Wineburg): close reading, sourcing	Students will use the form (genre) of the text, the author's choice of words, and the structure of the text to identify the author's point of view	*What is the author's point of view about slavery and how slaves were treated?*
Reaction to the text	Reading Like A Historian (Wineburg): close reading; intrinsic motivation (Guthrie, Greenleaf)	Students articulate their own reaction to the text and whether that is the reaction the author was trying to provoke	*What is your reaction to the text? How did it make you feel? What did the author do/say to make you feel this way?*
Evidence, used and left out	Reading Like A Historian (Wineburg): close reading, corroboration	Students identify the evidence which the author uses to support his/her argument and the evidence which is left out. Students compare and contrast the evidence and point of view of the text with other things they have heard/read/seen on the topic.	*How can you tell what the author thinks? What evidence did s/he provide? What evidence did s/he leave out? How is this different than other texts you've seen on the topic?*

Appendix C

Unit Overviews – Intervention 1 and 2

Week	Unit Topic	Historical Content	Cognitive Strategy Instruction Focus
Pre-Instruction	Geography, Introduction to Reading Strategies	Basics of the geography of the region, including location on the globe, features of the continent, location of key sites; Introduction to the CARE or Reciprocal Teaching strategy, including components, modeling of strategies, and instruction in how to use strategy-specific organizers	1. Develop it 2. Discuss it 3. Model it 4. Memorize it
2	Colonialism	(mid 19th century): trade between England and China, Chinese restrictions on trade, British response and the First Opium War, the Treaty of Nanking	3. Model it 4. Memorize it 5. Support it
3	The Cultural Revolution	(mid 20th century): rise of Mao, reasons behind the Cultural Revolution, impact of the Cultural Revolution on children/teens, appeal of the Cultural Revolution to children/teens	3. Model it 4. Memorize it 5. Support it
4	The Tiananmen Square Protests	(late 20th century): economic changes after the death of Mao, student protests for democracy, state reaction, differing depictions of Tiananmen Square	4. Memorize it 5. Support it 6. Independent performance

Appendix D

Overview of Intervention 1 and 2 Weekly Plan of Instruction

Day 1	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**
Introduction to unit topic with secondary source documents, ***including video clips;*** students will ***choose two video clips, the one they wish to watch***; students will report back what they have learned which the instructor will clarify, correct, and expand upon	Students will read, compare and contrast two primary source documents reflecting different first-hand points of view; students will work in pairs/small groups with teacher monitoring using the ***CARE strategy***; students will discuss what they have read and answer open-ended questions	Students will read, compare and contrast two primary source documents reflecting different first-hand points of view; students will work in pairs/small groups with teacher monitoring using the ***CARE strategy***; students will discuss what they have read and answer open-ended questions	Students will review the material by ***engaging in an active exercise related to the unit content (e.g., role-playing as different historical actors)***; students will then create an argumentative essay address the unit's big question; this exercise utilized scaffolding and followed a gradual release model; ***the teacher will set specific goals for improvement of the essays through the units and share these with the students, providing feedback each week***	***Students will read each other's essays and provide constructive feedback; the teacher will track student progress towards goals and highlight each student's growth to the group; students will discuss outstanding questions/concerns from the unit in an open-ended fashion***

Introduction to unit topic with secondary source documents; students will all ***independently read*** the same secondary source documents and ***view the same video clip***; students will report back what they have learned which the instructor will clarify, correct, and expand upon clarify, correct, and expand upon	Students will read, compare and contrast two primary source documents reflecting different first-hand points of view; students ***work individually*** with teacher monitoring using the ***Reciprocal Teaching strategy***; students will discuss what they have read and answer open-ended questions	Students will read, compare and contrast two primary source documents reflecting different first-hand points of view; students ***work individually*** with teacher monitoring using the ***Reciprocal Teaching strategy***; students will discuss what they have read and answer open-ended questions	Students will review the material by ***responding to questions the teacher will address to the whole group***; students will create an argumentative essay addressing the unit's big questions, using the primary and secondary sources as evidence; this exercise utilized scaffolding and followed a gradual release model	***The teacher will provide whole-group feedback on the essays and will discuss growth in terms of the group, not individual students***; ***the teacher will remind students of the salient points of the unit***

Appendix E

Sample Lessons from Intervention 1

ACADEMIC INTERVENTION SUMMER SCHOOOL 2013
6TH GRADE READING

Unit 4: Lesson 1 – Condition 1
Tiananmen Square

Social Studies Grade 6 Essential Curriculum:
UNIT IV: Asia

Goal 5. Students will demonstrate the ability to understand the cultural heritage of East and Southeast Asia. 661.00

MATERIALS/MANIPULATIVES

- Motivations for Reading Questionnaire Post-Tests, pencils/pens
- 4X6 cards with historical question
- Nerf ball for review
- Modified excerpt for the book: Green, J. (2006). *China: Countries of the World*. Washington, DC: National Geographic.
  Secondary Source/Informational Text Document 1(Tiananmen Square): Lexile Measure: 560L; Mean Sentence Length: 7.96; Mean Log Word Frequency: 3.39; Word Count: 207
- Document Camera and two computers
- Video clips on Tiananmen Square: Tiananmen 20 years later by NBC (2:00): http://www.nbcnews.com/video/nightly-news/26060432#31083121 NBC Nightly News Coverage in 1989 – Cue up at 1:58 mark (2:50): http://www.nbcnews.com/video/nightly-news/26060432#31068677
  NOTE: Be sure to cue up videos past the commercials so students don't watch them. Also start the 1989 coverage first as it runs longer.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGY: Cognitive Strategy Instruction

4. Memorize it, in which **students memorize the steps** of the strategy and the meaning of any associated mnemonics (Have students try to remember the Reciprocal Teaching steps from memory)

HISTORICAL QUESTION: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

ANTICIPATORY SET/CONTEXT SETTING (25 min.)

Motivations for Reading Questionnaire (15 min.): *Today we're going to read about the Tiananmen Square Protests. But first we're retaking a questionnaire that we took the first week of class. This asks questions about how you feel about reading. Please be honest and answers all questions.* Give students 15 min. to take the questionnaire. Then pick up their materials.

Feedback on Test (5 min.): *What did you think about the test?* Have students share

what they thought was easy/difficult, interesting/boring about the test, etc. Take brief notes to share at debriefing.

Remember to use the nerf ball when reviewing to make it more fun for the students.

Review Strategy (5 min.): Ask students to name and explain the all four steps in Reading with CARE and give examples. Ask follow-up questions and clarify as necessary. Try to get all students to give examples. Record clarified answers on white board or blank overhead.

DEVELOPMENT/PROCEDURES (42-58 min.)

Hand out the adapted text.

Historical Question (2-3 min.): Hand out 4X6 cards with the historical question. *We're also going to use a historical question to help us remember and understand what we are reading. The question for this unit is:* "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?" *The card will help you keep this question in mind while you read the secondary and primary sources in this unit.*

Read Aloud (5 min.): Read the whole text aloud once through. Let students ask questions about vocabulary (what does that word mean?) but have them hold other questions until you model.

Partner Reading (15 min.): Remind students to use the Fix-Up Strategies from memory. Quickly review how to read independently (read, use fix-up strategies, summarize). Have students pair up and begin Partner Reading. Let the students know you're there if they get stuck on a word (decoding problem) or have a question about what they read (comprehension problem). Tell them to raise their hand and you will come to them and help. Circulate and make sure students stay on task.

Check Comprehension (5-10 min.): Ask students questions to ensure comprehension. You may use the questions below or other questions specific to the text:

When did Mao Zedong die? 1976. *Who took over leadership?* Deng Xiaoping.

How did Deng Xiaoping rule? He was an economic reformer. He told the Chinese that "to get rich is glorious." Deng loosened control over the farms. He sold state-run factories and other businesses. Many became private companies.

How did Deng Xiaoping feel about the West? Deng was eager to deal with and learn from the West. He relaxed trade rules. He made it easier for foreign companies to operate in China.

Who was Hu Yaobang? He was a former high-ranking member of the Communist Party who died in the Spring of 1989. He had also been a liberal political reformer.

Why did students gather in Tiananmen Square in Beijing? They came to mourn Hu Yaobang's death. Then they started to protest government corruption and call for

democracy.

How did the government break up the protests? After six weeks, the government sent in the army to break up the protests.

About how many protestors were killed or arrested? The troops likely killed more than 1,000 unarmed protesters. Approximately 4,600 were arrested. However, exact numbers may never be known.

What was the response from outside China? Many world governments criticized China's response to the protests.

VISUALS (5-10 min.):
Pass out the photos of Deng Xiaoping and the Tiananmen Square protests. Point out the sea of protestors in the first Tiananmen Square photo. Point out the bodies in the second.

Based on the secondary source and photos (and anything else you might know), what happened in Tiananmen Square in the spring of 1989?

Students share their answers. Instructor poses follow-up questions based on student responses.

VIDEOS (10-15 min.):
To learn more about Tiananmen Square, I'm going to give you a choice of two short videos to watch. If you want to learn more about how the protestors are doing today, please go the computer on my left. If you'd rather see news coverage from 1989, please go to the computer on my right. Play each video after students have made their choices. After the videos are over, have the students pair up and discuss what they learned in the videos. Then bring the students back together as a group and ask them to share what they discussed.

SUMMARY/CLOSE (6-7 min.)

Exit Ticket (5 min.): Give students blank paper and have them write down their name and write down and explain all four steps of Reading with CARE. (5 min.)

Collect these at the end, review them to check student understanding, and save them for the study.

Preview (1-2 min.): *Tomorrow, we will read the first of two primary source documents. We'll be using Reading with CARE to help us understand those documents.*

Have students put their names on their 4 X 6 index cards. Collect them at the end of the class and then hand them back out at the beginning of the following class.

Secondary Source/Informational Text Document 1:

Tiananmen Square

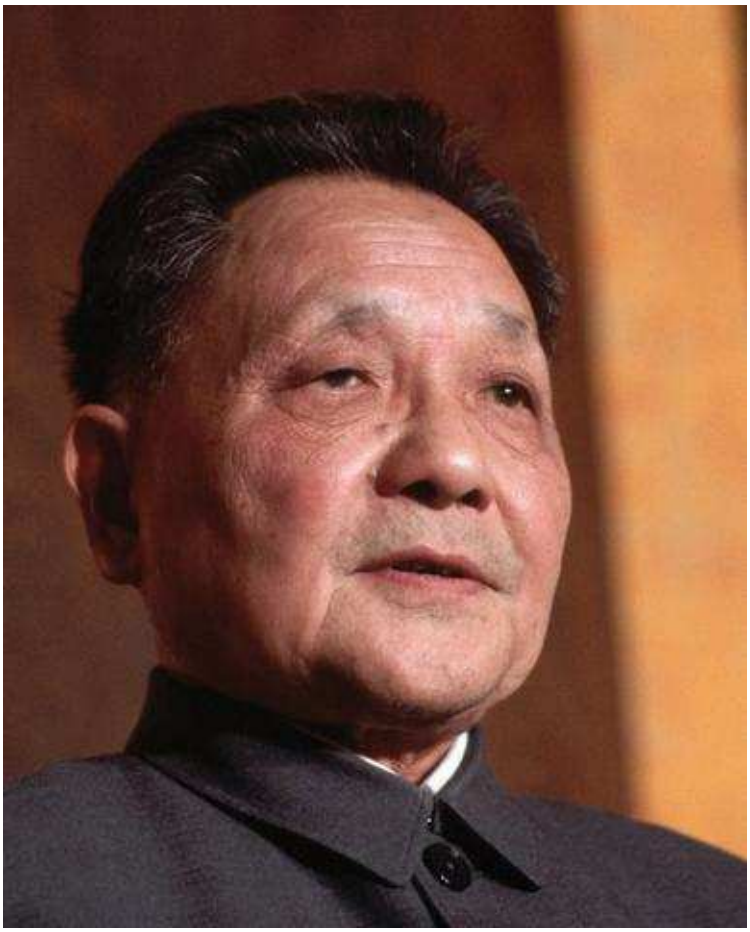
Mao Zedong died in 1976. A time of sudden and dramatic change began in China. The new leader was Deng Xiaoping. He was an economic reformer. He told the Chinese that "to get rich is glorious." This is a statement Mao would never have made. In just a few years, China modernized. Deng was eager to deal with and learn from the West. He created a so-called Open Door Policy.

Deng loosened control over the farms. He sold state-run factories and other businesses. Many became private companies. He relaxed trade rules. He made it easier for foreign companies to operate in China.

Many hoped these economic reforms would lead to political change as well. In April 1989, Hu Yaobang died. He was a former high-ranking member of the Communist Party. He had also been a liberal political reformer. University students gathered to mourn his death. Soon thousands of students and others gathered in Tiananmen in Beijing. They protested government corruption and called for democracy. After six weeks, the government sent in the army to break up the protests. The troops likely killed more than 1,000 unarmed protesters. Approximately 4,600 were arrested. However, exact numbers may never be known. Many world governments criticized China's response to the protests.

Source: Adapted from Green, J. (2006). *China: Countries of the World*. Washington, DC: National Geographic.

Deng Xiaoping



Available at: http://msmonterossosfacebookpage.wikispaces.com/Deng+Xiaoping

Tiananmen Square (May 4, 1989)

Thousands of students from local colleges and universities march to Tiananmen Square, Beijing, on May 4, 1989, to demonstrate for government reform.

AP Photo/Mikami. Available at: http://www.theatlantic.com/infocus/2012/06/tiananmen-square-then-and-now/100311/

Tiananmen Square (June 4, 1989)

Bodies of dead civilians lie among crushed bicycles near Beijing's Tiananmen Square, on June 4, 1989.

AP Photo. Available at: http://www.theatlantic.com/infocus/2012/06/tiananmen-square-then-and-now/100311/

Unit 4: Lesson 2 – Condition 1 - Tiananmen Square

Social Studies Grade 6 Essential Curriculum:
UNIT IV: Asia

Goal 5. Students will demonstrate the ability to understand the cultural heritage of East and Southeast Asia. 661.00

Social Studies Essential Question(s)
What did the students hope to accomplish in Tiananmen Square?

MATERIALS/MANIPULATIVES

- Gates-MacGinitie Reading Comprehension Test (Post-Test), #2 pencils
- 4X6 cards with historical question
- Document Camera
- Primary Source Document 1: *Entire Body of the Beijing University Hunger Strikers Group*, May 13, 1989. Lexile Measure: 560L; Mean Sentence Length: 8.23; Mean Log Word Frequency: 3.46; Word Count: 288

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGY: Cognitive Strategy Instruction

5. Support it, in which the instructor and peers help students by **scaffolding** the strategy and accompanying self-instructions

HISTORICAL QUESTION: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

ANTICIPATORY SET/CONTEXT SETTING (40 min.)
Gates-MacGinitie (35 min.): *Today we're going to read the first primary source document about Tiananmen Square. But first, I need you to take another short reading test. This is a reading comprehension test where you pick the best answer to each question.* (Read/follow the standardized instructions for administering the Gates-MacGinitie). Pick up the booklets when the students are finished and set aside for the study.

Feedback on Test (5 min.): *What did you think about the test? Was it too hard? Too easy?* Have students share what they thought was easy or difficult about the test. Take brief notes to share at debriefing.

DEVELOPMENT/PROCEDURES (32-38 min.) Hand out the adapted text.
Historical Question (2-3 min.): Hand out 4X6 cards with the historical question. *We're also going to use a historical question to help us remember and understand what we are reading. The question for this unit is:* "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?" *The card will help you keep this question in mind while you read the secondary and primary sources in this unit.*

Read Aloud (5 min.): Read the whole text aloud once through. Let students ask questions about vocabulary (what does that word mean?) but have them hold other questions until you model.

Partner Reading (15 min.): Remind students to use the Fix-Up Strategies from memory. Quickly review how to read independently (read, use fix-up strategies,

summarize). Have students pair up and begin Partner Reading. Let the students know you're there if they get stuck on a word (decoding problem) or have a question about what they read (comprehension problem). Tell them to raise their hand and you will come to them and help. Circulate and make sure students stay on task.

The Strategy (10-15 min.): Have students work in small groups (2-4 students) Reading with CARE. Have students write down each step and take notes on what they did as they read. Then call on volunteers to answer the questions from what they wrote. Clarify with follow-up questions as needed.

How do we know when/why this was written (**C**ontext)? *The headnote and the secondary source we read yesterday tell us it was written in the Spring of 1989. Both also tell us that China's economy is in a down turn and ordinary people are not happy with the government. Many expected democratic reforms to go along with economic reforms but they haven't happened.* Ask the students how this context could have affected what the students wrote.

What do the protestors think is wrong with China (**A**uthor's Point of View)? *They think the leaders are corrupt and out to make money for themselves at the people's expense. China needs democratic reforms to fix these problems.* Ask students what the purpose of the text is (e.g., to rally people to support their cause, to explain what they are doing to those who might be skeptical, to refute the government's reports, etc.). Ask the students if this purpose affects the students' credibility.

Do you think you would have supported the students in Tiananmen Square (**R**eaction)? *Author stresses that they aren't happy protesting and being on a hunger strike but that they need to to get the government's attention. They are facing danger but are doing so because they are patriotic and want democracy. The document makes them seem sincere and innocent. They refute the claims that they are causing turmoil or being controlled by others. A peaceful hunger strike doesn't seem too disruptive.*

What **e**vidence do the authors provide to support their views (**E**vidence)? *Prices are soaring. Average people can't buy scarce goods. Officials are making money at the expense of the people. The bureaucracy is corrupt. Good people who could help China have been exiled. The government refuses to meet with them. Directly refutes accusations that they are being disruptive (causing turmoil) or being controlled by others. Appeal to sense of family ("Papa" "Mama"). State that they are willing to die for democracy and give up their youth, trying to shame others to join or support them ("How can the Chinese people be proud of this?").*

SUMMARY/CLOSE (6-7 min.)

Exit Ticket (5 min.): Give students blank paper and have them write down their name and a brief response to today's historical question. Collect these at the end, review them to check student understanding, and save them for the study.

Preview (1-2 min.): Explain to the students that next time they will read an excerpt that will help them understand the same event from a different point of view.

Primary Source Document 1: Entire Body of the Beijing University Hunger Strikers Group

Head Note: The public mourning for Hu Yaobang quickly turned into an occasion for students and citizens of Beijing to protest against corruption and in favor of democracy. As China's leaders failed to respond to student demands, some of the more radical students organized a hunger strike. The following is their declaration of purpose.

In these beautiful days of May, we are beginning a hunger strike. In this moment of most happy youth, we must leave happiness behind us. We do unwillingly, unhappily!

Yet we must do so, for our country is in a most critical state. Prices are soaring. Officials are raising prices on hard to find goods. They make more money for themselves but hurt the people. The bureaucracy is corrupt. Large numbers of patriotic Chinese would devote themselves to make China better. But instead they are forced to live overseas. Social order and public security get worse every day.

Our feelings are of pure patriotism and simple and complete innocence. But they have been called "turmoil." They say we have "other motives." They have we have been "exploited by a small handful of people".

Ask your conscience: What crimes have we committed? Are we creating turmoil? Why are we demonstrating, are we fasting, are we hiding? Student representatives have fallen on their knees to ask for democracy. The government ignores them. They repeatedly refuse our demands for dialogue. Student leaders face danger.

What are we to do?

Democracy is the highest aspiration of human existence. Freedom is the birthright of all human beings. But they require that we exchange our young lives for them. How can Chinese people be proud of this?

We have gone on a hunger strike because there's no other way. As we suffer from hunger, Papa and Mama, do not grieve. When we leave this life, Aunts and Uncles, do not be sad. We have only one hope, that we may all live better lives. Do not forget: our pursuit is life, not death. Democracy is not a task for a few, it takes generations.

Source: Adapted from: Entire Body of the Beijing University Hunger Strikers Group, May 13, 1989. Available at: http://www.alliance.org.hk/english/Tiananmen_files/declar_hunger.html

Unit 4: Lesson 3 – Condition 1
Tiananmen Square

Social Studies Grade 6 Essential Curriculum:
UNIT IV: Asia

Goal 5. Students will demonstrate the ability to understand the cultural heritage of East and Southeast Asia. 661.00

Social Studies Essential Question(s)
What does the Chinese government say happened at Tiananmen Square?

MATERIALS/MANIPULATIVES

- Reading Comprehension Post-tests and pens/pencils
- Chinese History Post-tests and pens/pencils
- 4X6 cards with historical question
- Document Camera
- Primary Source Document 2: *The Truth about the Beijing Turmoil*. Beijing Publishing House, 1990. Lexile Measure: 580L; Mean Sentence Length: 8.50; Mean Log Word Frequency: 3.47; Word Count: 289

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGY: Cognitive Strategy Instruction

5. Support it, in which the instructor and peers help students by **scaffolding** the strategy and accompanying self-instructions
6. Independent performance, in which students transition to internalizing the strategy and self-instructions and perform them independently

HISTORICAL QUESTION: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

ANTICIPATORY SET/CONTEXT SETTING (35 min.)

Reading Comprehension and China Tests (20 min./10 min.): *We're going to begin by taking a quick reading test that uses primary sources. The test has 10 questions and should take about 20 minutes. Please try your best to answer all the questions.*

Hand out test booklets face down and pens/pencils. Give students 20 minutes to complete the test. Circulate and make sure that everyone is working on the test, no one is looking at someone else's paper, etc. When they are done, collect the booklets.

Then hand out the China Test. Give students 10 min. to complete the test.

Circulate throughout the tests to make sure students are completing the tasks, keeping their eyes on their own work, etc.

Feedback on Tests (5 min.): *What did you think about the tests? Were they too hard? Too easy? Do you think you did better than four weeks ago?* Have students share what they thought was easy or difficult about the test. Take brief notes to share at debriefing.

DEVELOPMENT/PROCEDURES (37-48 min.)

Hand out the adapted text.

Historical Question (2-3 min.): Hand out 4X6 cards with the historical question. *We're also going to use a historical question to help us remember and understand what we are reading. The question for this unit is:* "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?" *The card will help you keep this question in mind while you read the secondary and primary sources in this unit.*

Read Aloud (5 min.): Read the whole text aloud once through. Let students ask questions about vocabulary (what does that word mean?) but have them hold other questions until you model.

Partner Reading (15 min.): Remind students to use the Fix-Up Strategies from memory. Quickly review how to read independently (read, use fix-up strategies, summarize). Have students pair up and begin Partner Reading. Let the students know you're there if they get stuck on a word (decoding problem) or have a question about what they read (comprehension problem). Tell them to raise their hand and you will come to them and help. Circulate and make sure students stay on task.

The Strategy (10-15 min.): Have students work independently Reading with CARE. Have students write down each step and take notes on what they did as they read. Then call on volunteers to answer the questions from what they wrote. Clarify with follow-up questions as needed.

How do we know when/why this was written (**C**ontext)? *The headnote and the secondary source we read Monday tell us the protests occurred in the Spring of 1989. The secondary source and the headnote from yesterday also told us that China's economy was in a down turn and ordinary people were not happy with the government. Many expected democratic reforms to go along with economic reforms but they haven't happened. We also learned from the secondary source that many in the world did not approve of how the Chinese government reacted.* Ask them how the context might affect what is in the text (e.g., *This "official version" will therefore probably try to downplay any violence and portray the government in a good light).*

Who do the author(s) blame for what happened in Tiananmen Square (**A**uthor's Point of View)? *They think that a small group of radicals took over the protests and made the students rebel violently against the government.* Ask students to identify the purpose of the text (e.g., to refute what the students wrote, to justify the actions of the government, to combat foreign news versions of events). Ask students how they think the purpose affects the credibility of the author(s).

Do you believe this version of events (**R**eaction)? *The author repeatedly stresses that a handful of people from illegal groups took over the protests. They claim that not a single person was killed, but the photos we looked at on the first day seemed to show dead protestors. If the government was willing to meet with the protestors like they*

claim, then why would they go on a hunger strike? It seems hard to believe that 6,000 martial law officers and soldiers could have been killed by people with basic weapons. Ask the students to identify the details/left out evidence that formed their view.

What **e**vidence do the authors provide to support their views (**E**vidence)? *They stress the compassion of the government and party leaders towards the protestors and hunger strikers. They also stress how non-violent the soldiers and martial law officers were, even if it meant their own deaths. They don't blame the students but claim that they were manipulated by illegal groups who wanted to overthrow the government. They say some protestors were forced to leave but claim not a single person was killed. They claim that "thousands were killed" is just a rumor, but the fact that they mention it suggests it may have some truth to it.*

SUMMARY/CLOSE (6-7 min.)

Exit Ticket (5 min.): Give students blank paper and have them write down their name and a brief response to today's historical question.

Collect these at the end, review them to check student understanding, and save them for the study.

Preview (1-2 min.): Explain to the students that next time they will look at both primary source documents together and respond to some questions about the passages with short essays.

Have students put their names on their 4 X 6 index cards. Collect them at the end of the class and then hand them back out at the beginning of the following class.

Primary Source Document 2: The Truth about the Beijing Turmoil

Head Note: Below, is the official Chinese version of what occurred in Tiananmen Square in the Spring of 1989.

In 1989, a shocking turmoil happened in Beijing. People are confused. They don't know what happened. This will help our readers understand the truth.

Hu Yaobang died on April 15th. A handful of people stirred up student unrest. They claimed to be "mourning." But organizers of the turmoil took advantage of the students. They called for the overthrow of the Communist Party and the legal government.

The Party and government exercised great patience. They recognized the students' patriotic enthusiasm and reasonable demands. However, on May 13th, an illegal student organization started a hunger strike. Over 3,000 people fasted for seven days. Party and government leaders went to see the students at Tiananmen Square. They met with students' representatives many times. They asked them to value their lives and stop the hunger strike. They tried to ease the suffering of the students. Because of government efforts, not a single student died in the hunger strike.

On June 2nd, a handful of people used a traffic accident to spread rumors. Illegal organizations gave weapons to the crowd on Tiananmen Square. They told them to "overthrow the government." Troops were ordered to stop the rebellion. The rioters took advantage of the soldiers. More than 6,000 martial law officers and soldiers were injured. Many were killed. Such heavy losses show the tolerance of the troops.

On June 4th, the Beijing government issued an emergency notice. They asked everyone to leave Tiananmen Square. The students agreed to leave. Several thousand students left in an orderly manner. Those who refused were forced to leave by the soldiers. Not a single person was killed. That "thousands of people were killed in the square" is just a rumor. The truth will eventually be clear to the public.

Source: Adapted from: Edited by the Editorial Board of The Truth about the Beijing Turmoil . Beijing Publishing House, 1990. Available at http://www.tsquare.tv/themes/truthturm.html

Unit 4: Lesson 4 – Condition 1
Tiananmen Square

Social Studies Grade 6 Essential Curriculum:
UNIT IV: Asia
Goal 5. Students will demonstrate the ability to understand the cultural heritage of East and Southeast Asia. 661.00

Social Studies Essential Question(s)
Do you think the Tiananmen Square protestors were successful? Do you think most people believed the official Chinese Government version of what took place?

MATERIALS/MANIPULATIVES

- 4X6 cards with historical question
- Document Camera
- Primary Source Document 1: *Entire Body of the Beijing University Hunger Strikers Group*, May 13, 1989. Lexile Measure: 560L; Mean Sentence Length: 8.23; Mean Log Word Frequency: 3.46; Word Count: 288
- Primary Source Document 2: *The Truth about the Beijing Turmoil*. Beijing Publishing House, 1990. Lexile Measure: 580L; Mean Sentence Length: 8.50; Mean Log Word Frequency: 3.47; Word Count: 289

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGY: Cognitive Strategy Instruction

5. Support it, in which the instructor and peers help students by **scaffolding** the strategy and accompanying self-instructions
6. Independent performance, in which students transition to internalizing the strategy and self-instructions and perform them independently

HISTORICAL QUESTION: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

ANTICIPATORY SET/CONTEXT SETTING (5 min.)
Remember to use the nerf ball when reviewing to make it more fun for the students.

Review Strategy (5 min.): Ask students to name and explain the all four steps in Reading with CARE and give examples. Ask follow-up questions and clarify as necessary. Try to get all students to give examples. Record clarified answers on white board or blank overhead.

DEVELOPMENT/PROCEDURES (44-53 min.)

Historical Question (2-3 min.): Hand out 4X6 cards with the historical question. *We're also going to use a historical question to help us remember and understand what we are reading. The question for this unit is:* "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?" *The card will help you keep this question in mind while you read the secondary and primary sources in this unit.*

Explain Activity (2-5 min.): Explain to students that you are going to review the documents that you've read the previous three days, but you're going to do the review in a fun way. Explain to students that they are going to pretend that they were a foreign reporter in Beijing and they have to write a short story on what happened.

Review of Content and Reading with CARE (30 min.) Have them use the primary documents and photos to construct their own version of what happened. You will write down their version of events (on the whiteboard, blackboard, or through the document camera). Try to make sure all students participate by calling on students as necessary.

Prompt the students to remember what they learned from the photos and primary documents that would help them create the news story. You can use the following or other questions: *What set off the protests? What were the students protesting against? What did the students want to happen? Why did some students go on a hunger strike? What did they think the hunger strike might accomplish? How did the Communist Party and government respond to the initial protests? How did they respond to the hunger strike? What did the government say happened after the hunger strike was over? What do you think happened when the hunger strike was over? How does the government say the protests ended? How do you think the protests came to an end?*

Short Answers – Independent Effort (10-15 min.):
Once the students' version of events has been written down, have them get ready to write their short answers.

Communicate to students that they should use the following items from the days of instruction to construct their essays:

- Student packets – Background Information, and Documents 1 and 2
- CARE forms

Students should also be reminded that good writers use the information they learned in CARE to shape their opinions.

Tell the students that they will work alone to outline their responses to the questions and will then write their own short answers (independent practice for this cycle):

Using what we know from what we read we are going to create brief written responses to the following historical questions:

1) *Do you think most people believed the official Chinese Government version of what took place?*
2) *Which of the two documents did you find more trustworthy and why?*

You will look for the following information in your student's responses:

1) *Do you think most people believed the official Chinese Government version of what took place?*
    - *Yes*
        - *Their version was persuasive in blaming a small illegal group*
        - *They did a good job not blaming the students whom the Chinese people found sympathetic*
        - *They used a lot of numbers to make their statements about how many soldiers were hurt or killed seem like facts*

- *Their version might be the only version many Chinese have been exposed to*
- *No*
  - *It seems unlikely that that many people could be manipulated by a small group*
  - *It seems unlikely that soldiers would have let themselves be injured and killed by rioters without fighting back*
  - *The student's hunger strike message is more persuasive and directly contradicts many of the government claims about meeting with the students, etc.*

2) *Which of the two documents did you find more trustworthy and why?*
   - *The students:*
     - *They seemed to have less of a reason to bend the truth*
     - *Seems more likely that students wanted democracy than they were manipulated by a small group of anti-government forces*
     - *Seems very unlikely that the soldiers would not have fought back*
     - *The student version seemed more passionate and sincere (talk of death, pointing out it would be wrong for them to die for democracy but they would do it)*
   - *The official government version:*
     - *Provides are larger perspective for the events (the anti-government frame)*
     - *Provides more details and a chronology of events*
     - *However, the government clearly had more to lose and more of an incentive to bias its reporting of the event*

Circulate and provide minimal help as needed.

SUMMARY/CLOSURE (21-32 min.)

Exit Ticket (20-30 min.): Now ask students to compose their own short answers. Help students pace themselves to complete the assigned paragraphs.

Preview (1-2 min.): Tell students that you will look over their essays and discuss them the next time you meet.

Unit 4: Lesson 5 – Condition 1
Tiananmen Square

Social Studies Grade 6 Essential Curriculum:
UNIT IV: Asia
Goal 5. Students will demonstrate the ability to understand the cultural heritage of East and Southeast Asia. 661.00

Social Studies Essential Question(s)
Do you think the Tiananmen Square protestors were successful? Do you think most people believed the official Chinese Government version of what took place?

MATERIALS/MANIPULATIVES

- 4X6 cards with historical question
- Document Camera
- Primary Source Document 1: *Entire Body of the Beijing University Hunger Strikers Group*, May 13, 1989. Lexile Measure: 560L; Mean Sentence Length: 8.23; Mean Log Word Frequency: 3.46; Word Count: 288
- Primary Source Document 2: *The Truth about the Beijing Turmoil*. Beijing Publishing House, 1990. Lexile Measure: 580L; Mean Sentence Length: 8.50; Mean Log Word Frequency: 3.47; Word Count: 289

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGY: Cognitive Strategy Instruction NONE

HISTORICAL QUESTION: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

DEVELOPMENT/PROCEDURES (35-52 min.)
Historical Question (2-3 min.): Hand out 4X6 cards with the historical question. *We're also going to use a historical question to help us remember and understand what we are reading. The question for this unit is:* "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

Hand Back (1-2 min.): Hand back unmarked copies of the students' short answers.

Peer Feedback Reminder (2 min): Remind students that they should focus on how their partner used the Reading with CARE strategy in their short answers. Point out how the student used Context, the Author's Point of View, the reader's Reaction, and the Evidence the author shared and left out in their answers. If you don't see evidence of strategy use, ask the student why the step wasn't used in the short answers and suggest how it could have been.

Peer Feedback (15-20 min.): Have students choose a partner to provide feedback to. While students are talking to their partners, pull each student aside, hand back their short answers and give them personalized constructive feedback. Be sure to emphasize growth from last week's writing assignment and lay out concrete ways that they can continue to improve their writing by using the read with CARE strategy. When you have talked to all the students and the partner conversations are ending, call the students back together as a whole group.

Feedback Share (10-15 min.): Ask the students if they have any questions that arose from their discussions. Ask them share the feedback they received and share what their

partner did well in his/her short answers. **General Feedback (5-10 min.):** Ask them if they have any other questions about the material or how to read with CARE. Emphasize how they have grown as a group in their ability to read with CARE and how this is reflected in their short answers. Give them brief general feedback on the short answers. If you have time, model a sample short answer on the board or overhead. Think aloud while answering the questions using the Reading with CARE strategies.
SUMMARY/CLOSURE (10-15 min.) Ask students if they liked Reading with CARE. Did they find it helpful? Did it make it easier to read about history?

Appendix F
Sample Lessons from Intervention 2

ACADEMIC INTERVENTION SUMMER SCHOOOL 2013
6TH GRADE READING

Unit 4: Lesson 1 – Condition 2
Tiananmen Square

Social Studies Grade 6 Essential Curriculum:
UNIT IV: Asia
Goal 5. Students will demonstrate the ability to understand the cultural heritage of East and Southeast Asia. 661.00

MATERIALS/MANIPULATIVES

- Motivations for Reading Questionnaire Post-Tests, pencils/pens
- Modified excerpt for the book: Green, J. (2006). *China: Countries of the World*. Washington, DC: National Geographic.
  Secondary Source/Informational Text Document 1(Tiananmen Square): Lexile Measure: 560L; Mean Sentence Length: 7.96; Mean Log Word Frequency: 3.39; Word Count: 207
- Document Camera and two computers
- Nerf ball for review
- 4 X 6 cards with Historical Question
- Video clip on Tiananmen Square: NBC Nightly News Coverage in 1989 (2:50) – start at 1:58: http://www.nbcnews.com/video/nightly-news/26060432#31068677
  NOTE: Be sure to cue up video past the commercial so students don't watch it.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGY: Cognitive Strategy Instruction

5. Memorize it, in which **students memorize the steps** of the strategy and the meaning of any associated mnemonics (Have students try to remember the Reciprocal Teaching steps from memory)

HISTORICAL QUESTION: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

ANTICIPATORY SET/CONTEXT SETTING (25 min.)
Motivations for Reading Questionnaire (15 min.): *Today we're going to read about the Tiananmen Square Protests. But first we're retaking a questionnaire that we took the first week of class. This asks questions about how you feel about reading. Please be honest and answers all questions.* Give students 15 min. to take the questionnaire. Then pick up their materials.

Feedback on Test (5 min.): *What did you think about the test?* Have students share what they thought was easy/difficult, interesting/boring about the test, etc. Take brief notes to share at debriefing.

Remember to use the nerf ball when reviewing to make it more fun for the students.

Review Strategy (5 min.): Ask students to name and explain the all four steps in Reciprocal Teaching and give examples. Ask follow-up questions and clarify as necessary. Try to get all students to give examples. Record clarified answers on white board or blank overhead.

DEVELOPMENT/PROCEDURES (42-58 min.) Hand out the adapted text.

Historical Question/Main Idea (2-3 min.): Hand out 4 X 6 cards with the historical question for today: *We're going to use a historical question to help us put what we learn in context. The question for this unit is* "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

Also remember that whenever we read something together, try to find the main idea and 2-3 supporting ideas.

Read Aloud (5 min.): Read the whole text aloud once through. Let students ask questions about vocabulary (what does that word mean?) but have them hold other questions until you model.

Independent Reading (15 min.): Remind students to remember the Fix-Up Strategies. Quickly review how to read independently (read, use fix-up strategies, summarize). Have the students read the passage silently to themselves for 12 minutes. Let the students know you're there if they get stuck on a word (decoding problem) or have a question about what they read (comprehension problem). Tell them to raise their hand and you will come to them and help. Circulate and make sure students stay on task.

Check Comprehension (5-10 min.): Ask students questions to ensure comprehension. You may use the questions below or other questions specific to the text:

When did Mao Zedong die? 1976. *Who took over leadership?* Deng Xiaoping.

How did Deng Xiaoping rule? He was an economic reformer. He told the Chinese that "to get rich is glorious." Deng loosened control over the farms. He sold state-run factories and other businesses. Many became private companies.

How did Deng Xiaoping feel about the West? Deng was eager to deal with and learn from the West. He relaxed trade rules. He made it easier for foreign companies to operate in China.

Who was Hu Yaobang? He was a former high-ranking member of the Communist Party who died in the Spring of 1989. He had also been a liberal political reformer.

Why did students gather in Tiananmen Square in Beijing? They came to mourn Hu Yaobang's death. Then they started to protest government corruption and call for democracy.

How did the government break up the protests? After six weeks, the government sent in the army to break up the protests.

About how many protestors were killed or arrested? The troops likely killed more than 1,000 unarmed protesters. Approximately 4,600 were arrested. However, exact

numbers may never be known.

What was the response from outside China? Many world governments criticized China's response to the protests.

VISUALS (5-10 min.): Pass out the photos of Deng Xiaoping and the Tiananmen Square protests. Point out the sea of protestors in the first Tiananmen Square photo. Point out the bodies in the second.

Based on the secondary source and photos (and anything else you might know), what happened in Tiananmen Square in the spring of 1989?

Students share their answers. Instructor poses follow-up questions based on student responses.

VIDEO (10-15 min.):

To learn more about Tiananmen Square, I'm going to show you a short video. Show the video. After the video is over, ask students to share what they learned from the video.

SUMMARY/CLOSURE (6-7 min.)

Exit Ticket (5 min.): Give students blank paper and have them write down their name and then have them write down and explain all four steps of Reciprocal Teaching.

Collect these at the end, review them to check student understanding, and save them for the study.

Preview (1-2 min.): *Tomorrow, we will read the first of two primary source documents.*

Secondary Source/Informational Text Document 1:

Tiananmen Square

Mao Zedong died in 1976. A time of sudden and dramatic change began in China. The new leader was Deng Xiaoping. He was an economic reformer. He told the Chinese that "to get rich is glorious." This is a statement Mao would never have made. In just a few years, China modernized. Deng was eager to deal with and learn from the West. He created a so-called Open Door Policy.

Deng loosened control over the farms. He sold state-run factories and other businesses. Many became private companies. He relaxed trade rules. He made it easier for foreign companies to operate in China.

Many hoped these economic reforms would lead to political change as well. In April 1989, Hu Yaobang died. He was a former high-ranking member of the Communist Party. He had also been a liberal political reformer. University students gathered to mourn his death. Soon thousands of students and others gathered in Tiananmen in Beijing. They protested government corruption and called for democracy. After six weeks, the government sent in the army to break up the protests. The troops likely killed more than 1,000 unarmed protesters. Approximately 4,600 were arrested. However, exact numbers may never be known. Many world governments criticized China's response to the protests.

Source: Adapted from Green, J. (2006). *China: Countries of the World*. Washington, DC: National Geographic.

Deng Xiaoping

Available at: http://msmonterossosfacebookpage.wikispaces.com/Deng+Xiaoping

Tiananmen Square (May 4, 1989)

Thousands of students from local colleges and universities march to Tiananmen Square, Beijing, on May 4, 1989, to demonstrate for government reform.

AP Photo/Mikami. Available at: http://www.theatlantic.com/infocus/2012/06/tiananmen-square-then-and-now/100311/

Tiananmen Square (June 4, 1989)

Bodies of dead civilians lie among crushed bicycles near Beijing's Tiananmen Square, on June 4, 1989.

AP Photo. Available at: http://www.theatlantic.com/infocus/2012/06/tiananmen-square-then-and-now/100311/

Unit 4: Lesson 2 – Condition 2
Tiananmen Square

Social Studies Grade 6 Essential Curriculum:
UNIT IV: Asia
Goal 5. Students will demonstrate the ability to understand the cultural heritage of East and Southeast Asia. 661.00

Social Studies Essential Question(s)
Why did young Chinese take part in Tiananmen Square?

MATERIALS/MANIPULATIVES

- Gates-MacGinitie Reading Comprehension Test (Post-Test), #2 pencils
- Document Camera
- 4 X 6 cards with Historical Question
- Primary Source Document 1: *Entire Body of the Beijing University Hunger Strikers Group*, May 13, 1989. Lexile Measure: 560L; Mean Sentence Length: 8.23; Mean Log Word Frequency: 3.46; Word Count: 288

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGY: Cognitive Strategy Instruction

6. Support it, in which the instructor and peers help students by **scaffolding** the strategy and accompanying self-instructions

HISTORICAL QUESTION: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

ANTICIPATORY SET/CONTEXT SETTING (40 min.)
Gates-MacGinitie (35 min.): *Today we're going to read the first primary source document about Tiananmen Square. But first, I need you to take another short reading test. This is a reading comprehension test where you pick the best answer to each question.* (Read/follow the standardized instructions for administering the Gates-MacGinitie). Pick up the booklets when the students are finished and set aside for the study.

Feedback on Test (5 min.): *What did you think about the test? Was it too hard? Too easy?* Have students share what they thought was easy or difficult about the test. Take brief notes to share at debriefing.

DEVELOPMENT/PROCEDURES (32-38 min.)

Historical Question/Main Idea (2-3 min.): Hand out 4 X 6 cards with the historical question for today: *We're going to use a historical question to help us put what we learn in context. The question for this unit is* "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

Also remember that whenever we read something together, try to find the main idea and 2-3 supporting ideas.

Read Aloud (5 min.): Read the whole text aloud once through. Let students ask questions about vocabulary (what does that word mean?) but have them hold other questions until you model.

Independent Reading (15 min.): Cue the students to remember the Fix-Up Strategies

from memory. Quickly review how to read independently (read, use fix-up strategies, summarize). Have the students read the passage silently to themselves for 12 minutes. Let the students know you're there if they get stuck on a word (decoding problem) or have a question about what they read (comprehension problem). Tell them to raise their hand and you will come to them and help. Circulate and make sure students stay on task.

The Strategy (10-15 min.): Have students work independently by predicting, generating questions, clarifying, and summarizing the text. Have students write down each step and take notes on what they did as they read. Then call on volunteers to answer the questions from what they wrote. Clarify with follow-up questions as needed.

- Predicting (from the activation of relevant prior knowledge): *The headnote and the secondary source we read yesterday tell us that protests happened in the Spring of 1989. This document will likely tell us why the students were protesting and why they went on a hunger strike.*
- Question generation (self-questioning): *Do the students want to go on a hunger strike? What do the students think is wrong with China? What motivates the protestors? What are they willing to exchange their lives for? Why are they going on the hunger strike? What do they not want others to forget?*
- Clarifying (a self-monitoring strategy): *They don't want to go on a hunger strike but they feel they have to. Prices are soaring, its hard to get goods, the Chinese leaders are corrupt and making money at the people's expense. Good people who could help China are sent into exile. They say they are motivated by patriotism. They would die for democracy and freedom. They feel the hunger strike is the only way to get attention for their call for democratic reform. They don't want others to forget that they want to live and it takes many over a long period of time to bring about democracy.*
- Summarizing: *The students in Tiananmen Square decided to go on a hunger strike to get support from other ordinary Chinese and to get the government to pay attention to their demands.*

SUMMARY/CLOSURE (6-7 min.)

Exit Ticket (5 min.): Give students blank paper and have them write down their name, the main idea of what they read today, and 2-3 supporting details for that main idea.

Collect these at the end, review them to check student understanding, and save them for the study.

Preview (1-2 min.): Explain to the students that next time they will read an excerpt which will help them understand the same event from a different point of view.

Primary Source Document 1: Entire Body of the Beijing University Hunger Strikers Group

Head Note: The public mourning for Hu Yaobang quickly turned into an occasion for students and citizens of Beijing to protest against corruption and in favor of democracy. As China's leaders failed to respond to student demands, some of the more radical students organized a hunger strike. The following is their declaration of purpose.

In these beautiful days of May, we are beginning a hunger strike. In this moment of most happy youth, we must leave happiness behind us. We do unwillingly, unhappily!

Yet we must do so, for our country is in a most critical state. Prices are soaring. Officials are raising prices on hard to find goods. They make more money for themselves but hurt the people. The bureaucracy is corrupt. Large numbers of patriotic Chinese would devote themselves to make China better. But instead they are forced to live overseas. Social order and public security get worse every day.

Our feelings are of pure patriotism and simple and complete innocence. But they have been called "turmoil." They say we have "other motives." They have we have been "exploited by a small handful of people".

Ask your conscience: What crimes have we committed? Are we creating turmoil? Why are we demonstrating, are we fasting, are we hiding? Student representatives have fallen on their knees to ask for democracy. The government ignores them. They repeatedly refuse our demands for dialogue. Student leaders face danger.

What are we to do?

Democracy is the highest aspiration of human existence. Freedom is the birthright of all human beings. But they require that we exchange our young lives for them. How can Chinese people be proud of this?

We have gone on a hunger strike because there's no other way. As we suffer from hunger, Papa and Mama, do not grieve. When we leave this life, Aunts and Uncles, do not be sad. We have only one hope, that we may all live better lives. Do not forget: our pursuit is life, not death. Democracy is not a task for a few, it takes generations.

Source: Adapted from: Entire Body of the Beijing University Hunger Strikers Group, May 13, 1989. Available at: http://www.alliance.org.hk/english/Tiananmen_files/declar_hunger.html

Unit 4: Lesson 3 – Condition 2
Tiananmen Square

Social Studies Grade 6 Essential Curriculum:
UNIT IV: Asia
Goal 5. Students will demonstrate the ability to understand the cultural heritage of East and Southeast Asia. 661.00

Social Studies Essential Question(s)
What does the Chinese government say happened at Tiananmen Square?

MATERIALS/MANIPULATIVES

- Reading Comprehension Post-tests and pens/pencils
- Chinese History Post-tests and pens/pencils
- Document Camera
- 4 X 6 cards with Historical Question
- Primary Source Document 2: *The Truth about the Beijing Turmoil*. Beijing Publishing House, 1990. Lexile Measure: 580L; Mean Sentence Length: 8.50; Mean Log Word Frequency: 3.47; Word Count: 289

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGY: Cognitive Strategy Instruction

5. Support it, in which the instructor and peers help students by **scaffolding** the strategy and accompanying self-instructions
6. Independent performance, in which students transition to internalizing the strategy and self-instructions and perform them independently

HISTORICAL QUESTION: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

ANTICIPATORY SET/CONTEXT SETTING (35 min.)
Reading Comprehension and China Tests (20 min./10 min.): *We're going to begin by taking a quick reading test that uses primary sources. The test has 10 questions and should take about 20 minutes. Please try your best to answer all the questions.*

Hand out test booklets face down and pens/pencils. Give students 20 minutes to complete the test. Circulate and make sure that everyone is working on the test, no one is looking at someone else's paper, etc. When they are done, collect the booklets.

Then hand out the China Test. Give students 10 min. to complete the test.

Circulate throughout the tests to make sure students are completing the tasks, keeping their eyes on their own work, etc.

Feedback on Tests (5 min.): *What did you think about the tests? Were they too hard? Too easy? Do you think you did better than four weeks ago?* Have students share what they thought was easy or difficult about the test. Take brief notes to share at debriefing.

DEVELOPMENT/PROCEDURES (37-48 min.)

Historical Question/Main Idea (2-3 min.): Hand out 4 X 6 cards with the historical question for today: *We're going to use a historical question to help us put what we*

learn in context. The question for this unit is "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

Also remember that whenever we read something together, try to find the main idea and 2-3 supporting ideas.

Read Aloud (5 min.): Read the whole text aloud once through. Let students ask questions about vocabulary (what does that word mean?) but have them hold other questions until you model.

Independent Reading (15 min.): Cue the students to remember the Fix-Up Strategies from memory. Quickly review how to read independently (read, use fix-up strategies, summarize). Have the students read the passage silently to themselves for 12 minutes. Let the students know you're there if they get stuck on a word (decoding problem) or have a question about what they read (comprehension problem). Tell them to raise their hand and you will come to them and help. Circulate and make sure students stay on task.

The Strategy (10-15 min.): Have students work independently by predicting, generating questions, clarifying, and summarizing the text. Have students write down each step and take notes on what they did as they read. Then call on volunteers to answer the questions from what they wrote. Clarify with follow-up questions as needed.

- Predicting (from the activation of relevant prior knowledge): *Headnote says it is the official Chinese version of what happened in Tiananmen Square. Will probably be more pro-government than the students' version.*
- Question generation (self-questioning): *Why did a handful of people stir up unrest? How did they do so? What was the government's initial response to the protestors? How did party and government leaders react to the hunger strike? What happened on June 2nd? What happened to the troops who responded? What was the result of the emergency notice of June 4th? Were any protestors killed?*
- Clarifying (a self-monitoring strategy): *They wanted to overthrow the Communist Party and the legal government. They took advantage of the students and manipulated them. The government respected the students' enthusiasm and demands. They met with the hunger strikers several times, tried to persuade them to not harm themselves, and eased their suffering so no one died. On June 2nd, a handful of people used rumors and gave weapons to a crowd in order to overthrow the government. Many troops were injured or killed because they didn't want to hurt the rioters. On June 4th, several thousand students responded to the emergency notice and left the square, but others had to be removed by force. However, none were killed. It is just a rumor that thousands were killed.*
- Summarizing: *The student protestors were manipulated by illegal groups into trying to overthrow the government but the army and martial law police were able to peacefully disperse the students with no loss of protestors' lives.*

Reciprocal Teaching Debrief (5-10 min.): Ask students how using Reciprocal Teaching helped them better understand the text. Try to get each student to give at least one example.

SUMMARY/CLOSURE (6-7 min.)

Exit Ticket (5 min.): Give students blank paper and have them write down their name, the main idea of what they read today, and 2-3 supporting details for that main idea.

Collect these at the end, review them to check student understanding, and save them for the study.

Preview (1-2 min.): Explain to the students that next time they will look at both primary source documents together and respond to some questions about the passages with short answers.

Primary Source Document 2: The Truth about the Beijing Turmoil

Head Note: Below, is the official Chinese version of what occurred in Tiananmen Square in the Spring of 1989.

In 1989, a shocking turmoil happened in Beijing. People are confused. They don't know what happened. This will help our readers understand the truth.

Hu Yaobang died on April 15th. A handful of people stirred up student unrest. They claimed to be "mourning." But organizers of the turmoil took advantage of the students. They called for the overthrow of the Communist Party and the legal government.

The Party and government exercised great patience. They recognized the students' patriotic enthusiasm and reasonable demands. However, on May 13th, an illegal student organization started a hunger strike. Over 3,000 people fasted for seven days. Party and government leaders went to see the students at Tiananmen Square. They met with students' representatives many times. They asked them to value their lives and stop the hunger strike. They tried to ease the suffering of the students. Because of government efforts, not a single student died in the hunger strike.

On June 2nd, a handful of people used a traffic accident to spread rumors. Illegal organizations gave weapons to the crowd on Tiananmen Square. They told them to "overthrow the government." Troops were ordered to stop the rebellion. The rioters took advantage of the soldiers. More than 6,000 martial law officers and soldiers were injured. Many were killed. Such heavy losses show the tolerance of the troops.

On June 4th, the Beijing government issued an emergency notice. They asked everyone to leave Tiananmen Square. The students agreed to leave. Several thousand students left in an orderly manner. Those who refused were forced to leave by the soldiers. Not a single person was killed. That "thousands of people were killed in the square" is just a rumor. The truth will eventually be clear to the public.

Source: Adapted from: Edited by the Editorial Board of The Truth about the Beijing Turmoil . Beijing Publishing House, 1990. Available at http://www.tsquare.tv/themes/truthturm.html

Unit 4: Lesson 4 – Condition 2
Tiananmen Square

Social Studies Grade 6 Essential Curriculum:
UNIT IV: Asia
Goal 5. Students will demonstrate the ability to understand the cultural heritage of East and Southeast Asia. 661.00

Social Studies Essential Question(s)
Do you think the Tiananmen Square protestors were successful? Do you think most people believed the official Chinese Government version of what took place?

MATERIALS/MANIPULATIVES

- Document Camera
- 4 X 6 cards with Historical Question
- Primary Source Document 1: *Entire Body of the Beijing University Hunger Strikers Group*, May 13, 1989. Lexile Measure: 560L; Mean Sentence Length: 8.23; Mean Log Word Frequency: 3.46; Word Count: 288
- Primary Source Document 2: *The Truth about the Beijing Turmoil*. Beijing Publishing House, 1990. Lexile Measure: 580L; Mean Sentence Length: 8.50; Mean Log Word Frequency: 3.47; Word Count: 289

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGY: Cognitive Strategy Instruction

5. Support it, in which the instructor and peers help students by **scaffolding** the strategy and accompanying self-instructions
6. Independent performance, in which students transition to internalizing the strategy and self-instructions and perform them independently

HISTORICAL QUESTION: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

ANTICIPATORY SET/CONTEXT SETTING (5 min.)
Remember to use the nerf ball when reviewing to make it more fun for the students.

Review Strategy (5 min.): Ask students to name and explain the all four steps in Reciprocal Teaching and give examples. Ask follow-up questions and clarify as necessary. Try to get all students to give examples. Record clarified answers on white board or blank overhead.

DEVELOPMENT/PROCEDURES (44-53 min.)

Historical Question/Main Idea (2-3 min.): Hand out 4 X 6 cards with the historical question for today: *We're going to use a historical question to help us put what we learn in context. The question for this unit is* "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

Review of Content and Reciprocal Teaching (32 min.)

Explain to students that you are going to review the documents that you've read the previous three days. Ask the students questions to review the material. You can use the questions below or similar questions :

What set off the protests?

What were the students protesting against?
What did the students want to happen?
Why did some students go on a hunger strike?
What did they think the hunger strike might accomplish?
How did the Communist Party and government respond to the initial protests?
How did they respond to the hunger strike?
What did the government say happened after the hunger strike was over?
What do you think happened when the hunger strike was over?
How does the government say the protests ended?
How do you think the protests came to an end?

Short Answers – Independent Effort (10-15 min.):

Once the documents have been reviewed, have the students get ready to write their short answers.

Communicate to students that they should use the following items from the days of instruction to construct their short answers:

- Student packets – Background Information, and Documents 1 and 2
- Reciprocal Teaching forms

Review the types of things good readers do:

- summarizing
- question generation (self-questioning)
- clarifying (a self-monitoring strategy)
- predicting (from the activation of relevant prior knowledge).

Tell the students that they will work alone to outline their responses to the questions and will then write their own short answers (independent practice for this cycle):

Using what we know from what we read we are going to create brief written responses to the following historical questions:

1) *Do you think the Tiananmen Square protestors were successful?*
2) *Do you think most people believed the official Chinese Government version of what took place?*

You will look for the following information in your student's responses:

1) *Do you think the Tiananmen Square protestors were successful?*
    - *Yes*
        - *The students were able to share their messages against government corruption and for democracy and freedom with their fellow Chinese and the world*
        - *Thousands of people joined in the protests*
        - *The protests lasted several months*
        - *We're still studying what they did today – almost 25 years later*
        - *The Chinese wouldn't have had to put out an official version if*

people didn't side with the protestors

- *No*
  - *The Chinese government ended the protests*
  - *China still isn't democratic*
  - *There hasn't been a similar protest since Tiananmen Square*

2) *Do you think most people believed the official Chinese Government version of what took place?*
   - *Yes*
     - *Their version was persuasive in blaming a small illegal group*
     - *They did a good job not blaming the students whom the Chinese people found sympathetic*
     - *They used a lot of numbers to make their statements about how many soldiers were hurt or killed seem like facts*
     - *Their version might be the only version many Chinese have been exposed to*
   - *No*
     - *It seems unlikely that that many people could be manipulated by a small group*
     - *It seems unlikely that soldiers would have let themselves be injured and killed by rioters without fighting back*
     - *The student's hunger strike message is more persuasive and directly contradicts many of the government claims about meeting with the students, etc.*

Circulate and provide minimal help as needed.

SUMMARY/CLOSURE (21-32 min.)

Exit Ticket (20-30 min.): Now ask students to compose their own short answers. Help students pace themselves to complete the assigned paragraphs.

Preview (1-2 min.): Tell students that you will look over their essays and discuss them the next time you meet.

Unit 4: Lesson 5 – Condition 2
Tiananmen Square

Social Studies Grade 6 Essential Curriculum:
UNIT IV: Asia
Goal 5. Students will demonstrate the ability to understand the cultural heritage of East and Southeast Asia. 661.00

Social Studies Essential Question(s)
Do you think the Tiananmen Square protestors were successful? Do you think most people believed the official Chinese Government version of what took place?

MATERIALS/MANIPULATIVES
- Document Camera
- 4 X 6 cards with Historical Question
- Primary Source Document 1: *Entire Body of the Beijing University Hunger Strikers Group*, May 13, 1989. Lexile Measure: 560L; Mean Sentence Length: 8.23; Mean Log Word Frequency: 3.46; Word Count: 288
- Primary Source Document 2: *The Truth about the Beijing Turmoil*. Beijing Publishing House, 1990. Lexile Measure: 580L; Mean Sentence Length: 8.50; Mean Log Word Frequency: 3.47; Word Count: 289

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGY: Cognitive Strategy Instruction
5. Support it, in which the instructor and peers help students by **scaffolding** the strategy and accompanying self-instructions
6. Independent performance, in which students transition to internalizing the strategy and self-instructions and perform them independently

HISTORICAL QUESTION: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

DEVELOPMENT/PROCEDURES (35-52 min.)

Historical Question/Main Idea (2-3 min.): Hand out 4 X 6 cards with the historical question for today: *We're going to use a historical question to help us put what we learn in context. The question for this unit is* "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

Hand Back (1-2 min.): Hand back the students' short answers.

Feedback (32-47 min.): Give them 5-10 minutes to read your comments. After they finish reading the comments on their short answers, review the strengths and areas that need improvement in the class's answers as a whole. Review how students should use the Reciprocal Teaching strategies to answer the questions. Discuss the role of predicting, question generation, clarifying, and summarizing in helping students to understand the texts and then address the answers.

Model a sample short answer on the board or overhead. Think aloud while answering the questions using the Reciprocal Teaching strategies.

Ask the students if they have any other questions about the material or how to use the

Reciprocal Teaching strategies.
SUMMARY/CLOSURE (10-15 min.) Ask students if they liked Reciprocal Teaching. Did they find it helpful? Did it make it easier to read about history?

Appendix G

Sample Lessons from Intervention 3

ACADEMIC INTERVENTION SUMMER SCHOOOL 2013
6TH GRADE READING

Summer School Reading Intervention 2013 **Rising Sixth Graders** Lesson 15
Common Core Standard RI 5: Analyze the structure of texts, including how specific sentences, paragraphs, and larger portions of the text (e.g., a section, chapter, scene, or stanza) relate to each other and the whole.
Skill Focus: Text Structure and Summarizing
Materials: • "Brief History of Television" (Teacher Resource 15.1) • Blank Table for "Brief History of Television (Teacher Resource 15.2) • *Masks*, "The Lost Mask," pages 7-9 • Text Structure (Student Resource 15.1) • Sample Timeline (Teacher Resource 15.3) • STRUCTURE Your Reading poster • Notebook paper
Anticipatory Set/Context Setting (5-10 minutes): 1. Distribute the separated paragraphs from "Brief History of Television" (Teacher Resource 15.1) and ask students read their paragraph to themselves. 2. Place blank table (Teacher Resource 15.2) on the ELMO for class to see. 3. Ask for volunteer to come up and place their paragraph where the think it belongs in the article. 4. Have each student place his or her paragraph. If they need to, they can move another paragraph to make space for theirs. 5. Discuss how students determined the order of the paragraphs. *(Dates and key words)*
Development/Procedures 1. Distribute "Text Structure Sheet" (Student Resource 15.1). 2. Ask class to review sheet and then identify the structure that applies to "Brief History of Television." (*Sequence)* Ask if class can think of other types of text that would fit the Sequence definition. (*Instructions, Recipes, History books, Crime articles, etc)* 3. Distribute *Masks*, "The Lost Mask," pages 7-9 4. Instruct students to preview the text. Ask if they can predict what type of structure this article will follow.
Transition: Say, "We will work to identify the text structure the author used in "The Lost Mask." We will also use a graphic organizer to take notes on the text.
Development/Procedures: 1. Read the first section of the text, "Stolen Treasures" aloud and model locating the clue words (*begins, over time*).

2. Identify and define the structure for the students, talking through your own reasoning as you read.
3. Review the definition and example signal words for Sequence/Chronological Order using the "Text Structure Sheet."
4. Read another portion of the text aloud, instructing students to raise their hands to identify signal words for the sequence pattern.
5. Have students work in pairs to practice this same procedure with the final portion of the text.
6. Share orally what they found in the final portion of the text.
7. Have the class determine what type of organizer should be used to analyze the article we just read (*A timeline because the article is mainly written in Sequence/Chronological Order*).
8. Explain that this organizer will help the students better understand the article as well as serve as a prewriting tool for the summary they will be writing later in the lesson.
9. Explain that the class as a whole will create a timeline on notebook paper for the events described in the article.
10. Instruct students to return to the article.
11. Read the first section and identify the first two key events in the article, talking through your reasoning for choosing those specific events. (*See Teacher Resource 15.3 for possible answers.)*
12. Instruct students to continue reading silently to identify the next key event in the article.
13. Record responses on the board while students record on their notebook paper.
14. Have students continue with this process until the timeline is complete.

Transition: Creating a timeline or listing key events in chronological order allows students to have a prewriting activity completed so that they can write a summary.

Development/Procedure:

1. Model how to start the summary by connecting the first two events on the timeline using the signal words (transitions) on the board.
2. Have students copy your model sentence on their paper.
3. Instruct the students to finish writing the summary using the same process you modeled (taking the events from the timeline and connecting them using an appropriate transition).
4. Remind students to avoid repeating the same signal word or transition in their summary.
5. Instruct students to switch summaries with their partner to share their work.

Read Aloud (20 minutes): Read "Come Together," page 44 from *Real Kids, Real Stories, Real Change.* Mark signal words.

Summary/Closure (5 minutes): Using key words for sequencing, have a student give directions for a simple task, like making a sandwich.

Teacher Resource 15.1

Instruction for teacher: Cut out each paragraph and shuffle before distributing to students.

An 1881 article in *Nature* speculated that transmitting images over distance was possible — but questioned whether the idea warranted "further expense and trouble."
That skepticism seemed fair based on early attempts. In 1884, a German inventor created crude moving images by filtering light through a spinning disk punched with holes.
In the early 1920s, engineers in the U.S. and U.K. sent still pictures and moving silhouettes using radio waves.
In 1928, General Electric broadcast the first TV drama: a modified small spinning disk and bright lamp produced off-center, blurry pictures of smoke rising from a chimney.
Steadily, however, the picture quality improved — and the audience grew. Regular nationwide television broadcasts began in 1939.
From 1945 to '48, sales of television sets increased 500%
The first widespread broadcast in color went out in 1954, and today there are televisions in some 110 million U.S. households. By 1960, 87% of U.S. households had a TV.
Revenues from TV broadcasting, cable, advertising and TV-set sales totaled nearly $182 billion in 2006. Talk about worth the trouble.

Adapted from **A Brief History Of: Television** By Laura Fitzpatrick

http://www.time.com/time/magazine/article/0,9171,1904156,00.html

Summer School Reading Intervention 2013
Rising Sixth Graders
Lesson 16

Common Core Standard RI 1: Cite textual evidence to support analysis of what the text says explicitly as well as inferences drawn from the text.

Skill Focus: Summarizing

Materials:
- *Sports*, "Going the Distance," pages 10-11
- STRUCTURE Your Reading poster
- Summarizing Rubric (Student Resource 14.1)

Anticipatory Set/Context Setting (5-10 minutes):
1. Record the following list of actions on the board:
   - Drive a car
   - Wear pants
   - Vote
   - Join the military
   - Attend college
2. Ask students, "Which group of people in the past was not allowed to do ANY of these actions?" (*Women. Other groups may fit some of these, but only women were not allowed to wear pants.)*

Transition: Explain that the two texts the class will read today are about a girl and a woman accomplishing something they were told they could not because of their gender.

Read Aloud (20 minutes):
Read "*Top of the World*," page 34 from *Real Kids, Real Stories, Real Change.* Ask students to explain how Santosh's story would have been different if her father had not broken his ankle. Ask students if they have ever been told they could not accomplish something, but they proved that person wrong. Discuss.

Development/Procedures (30 minutes):
1. Distribute *Sports*, "Going the Distance," pages 10-11 and Post-it notes.
2. Instruct students to preview the text using the STRUCTURE pre-reading strategy. Ask students to share background knowledge about marathons. Allow students to share their predictions about the text.
3. Instruct students to read the text independently and to "talk to the text." Remind students that tomorrow they will be taking the post-assessment and to use this as practice.
4. Solicit students' questions about the text and their connections to the topic. Discuss.
5. Compare Katherine Switzer's actions to Santosh Yadav's actions.

Transition: Remind students that they will also have to summarize a text.

Development/Procedures (30 minutes):
1. Instruct students to summarize the text by following this procedure:
   - Remove any notes from the previous activity.

- Re-read the text and stop after every paragraph to summarize. Write this summary on a Post-it note. Continue with the remainder of the text.
- Compare your paragraph summarizes with a partner. Make adjustments as necessary to include all the important information.
- Use the notes to develop a well-written and effective summary. (Optional: Students work as a team to write the summary.)

2. Distribute Summarizing Rubric (Student Resource 14.1) and instruct students to assess their summaries.
3. Solicit students to share their summaries and allow others to comment. Provide positive feedback on their writing and suggestions for improvement.

Summary/Closure (5 minutes): Survey the students' preparedness for the assessment tomorrow.

Summer School Reading Intervention 2013
Rising Sixth Graders
Lesson 17

Common Core Standard RI 1: Cite several pieces of textual evidence to support analysis of what the text says explicitly as well as inferences drawn from the text.

Skill Focus: Summarizing

Materials:

- Post Assessment

Anticipatory Set/Context Setting (10 min.):

1. Divide class into 2 or 3 groups and give each group a section on the chalkboard.
2. Challenge each group to make a list of key words or phrases that could summarize the skills they have learned during the course.
3. Assess each group's list and award a point for each key word or phrase.
4. Challenge each group to write a one-sentence summary of what they have learned.
5. Share each summary and award a point for each accurate summary.
6. Challenge each group to explain in their own words the following skills:
    a. "talking to the text"
    b. inference
    c. text structure
    d. paraphrase
    e. summary

    Award a point for each correct response.
7. Calculate score and the winner.

Transition: Explain that the class will read the remaining chapters of *Real Kids, Real Stories, Real Change* during the next two days.

Development/Procedures (30 minutes):

1. Instruct class to review the titles of the chapters not read so far. Ask class to make predictions about how the topics of those chapters.
2. Determine which chapters interest the class and read those chapters. Compare students' predictions to the actual content.
3. Discuss which stories from the book were the most inspiring, surprising, or interesting.

Ask, "Would you recommend this book to a friend? Why or why not?" Discuss students' responses.

Summary/Closure: Ask students to select the one chapter from the book that they found the most interesting. Have students explain their choices.

Summer School Reading Intervention 2013
Rising Sixth Graders
Lesson 18

Common Core Standard RI 1: Cite several pieces of textual evidence to support analysis of what the text says explicitly as well as inferences drawn from the text.

Skill Focus: Reflection on Learning

Materials:

- Lesson 18 PowerPoint
- "Reflection Sheet" (Student Resource 18.1)
- Students' paragraphs from lesson 8
- Possible Culminating Activity List (Teacher Resource 18.1)
- *Materials for summative activity will vary.* (See Teacher Resource 18.1 for possible activities and materials.)

Anticipatory Set/Context Setting (30 min.):

1. Display slide #2 of Lesson 18 PowerPoint and review the TURE section of STRUCTURE. Remind students that reflecting on what they have read is an important step in understanding what they have read.
2. Explain that these four steps (TURE) are also important when reflecting on learning. Explain that the learning process requires a reflection period. Display Slide #3. Have students respond.
3. Proceed through slides #4 and #5. Ask students if they have had experience with this process, whether in school or out of school. (Sports might be a fertile topic for discussion.)
4. Explain that each student will reflect today on what they have learned during the last four weeks. This reflection will be used to assess their progress when you conference with each student today and tomorrow.
5. Distribute "Reflection Sheet" and give time to complete. Encourage students to be thoughtful and remind them that they will be discussing their responses with you later.
6. Collect completed sheets to be used during conferences.

Transition: Explain that the class will read the foreword of *Real Kids, Real Stories, Real Change* and then complete a culminating activity on the book.

Development/Procedures (30 minutes):

1. Solicit definitions for "hero" and for examples of heroes. Ask, "Are the kids described in this book heroes?"
2. Instruct students to open to the forward on page IX. Explain the function of a foreword in a book. (*A **foreword** is usually a short piece of writing placed at the beginning of a book. Typically written by someone other than the author, and it often tells of some interaction between the writer of the foreword and the book's author or the story the book tells.)*
3. Explain that Bethany Hamilton, the surfer who lost her arm in a shark attack, wrote this foreword. (From "Back on the Board," page 94) Ask students to recall her story.
4. Read the foreword. Discuss the questions posed in the foreword.

Transition: Explain that students will now work on a culminating activity in small groups.

Development/Procedures (45 minutes, will continue tomorrow):

Note to teacher: *For the remainder of today and for part of tomorrow's lesson, you will be conferencing with students about their assessment and their progress with the focused skills taught. Plan on the conferences taking approximately 5-8 minutes per student. Choose the culminating activities that will engage your particular class and that will keep the class occupied long enough to give you time to conference with each student.*

1. Instruct students to complete one of the activities from the Culminating Activities (Teacher Resource 18.1). You may choose to have all students complete the same activity or give students a choice.
2. Student groups should choose one chapter from the book on which to focus. They will have to reread the chapter before beginning the activity. Remind students that their projects need to include the main idea and supporting details from the chapters. In other words, their tasks are similar to writing a summary, just in a different medium.

Instructions for conferences:

1. While students work on their activities, conference with each student in private.
2. Review their progress by comparing the student's pre- and post-assessment. Review the student's reflection sheet.
3. Provide feedback on the student's strengths and areas that could still use improvement.
4. If possible, provide suggestions for books or activities that may interest the student and that he/she could work on in the remainder of the summer.

Summary/Closure: Have students share their work on their projects so far.

Student Resource 18.1

"Look Back" at your experience during Summer School.

T – Tell your personal reaction	What do **I** think and feel about the last four weeks?
U – Uncover critical content	What are the key ideas from the last four weeks?
R – Review the reactions of others	What does **my partner** think and feel?
E – Explain your success!	Which strategies will help me be successful in 6th grade?

Suggested Culminating Activities for the Read Aloud

1. Create a comic strip for the most important events in the story. You must have at least 10 squares in your comic strip. In each comic strip square, you must have a colorful picture along with a sentence or two explaining what is going on in the picture. You may also include dialogue bubbles. Write a paragraph to attach to your comic strip that explains which event you felt was most important to the story and why. Use specific details from the chapter.

2. Create a collage that illustrates the characters, major events, and setting of your chapter. Make it colorful and creative. You may draw pictures, cut pictures from magazines, use clip-art, etc. Remember, there is no white space on a collage. Write at least one paragraph to summarize your chapter. Use specific details from the book. Attach your paragraph to the back of the collage.

3. Create a picture book version of the chapter's story. Summarize the chapter to be appropriate for young children, but keep the main idea, the important details and the message of the chapter. Tell the story over several pages with writing and illustrations on each page. Make sure the language and illustrations are appropriate for young children. Design a cover to be attention grabbing. Write a paragraph to attach to your picture book that explains which event you felt was most important to the story and why.

Summer School Reading Intervention 2013
Rising Sixth Graders
Lesson 19

Common Core Standard RI 1: Cite several pieces of textual evidence to support analysis of what the text says explicitly as well as inferences drawn from the text.

Skill Focus: Reflection on Learning

Materials:
- Culminating Activity List (Teacher Resource 18.1)
- *Materials for culminating activity will vary.* (See Teacher Resource 18.2 for possible activities and materials.)
- Summer Planning Top Fives (Student Resource 19.1)

Anticipatory Set/Context Setting (5–10 min.):
1. As students enter the room, instruct them to make a list of topics or genres of stories they would be interested in learning more about. Let students mark other student's answers if they are also interested in that topic.
2. Explain that this list will be used later in the day.

Development/Procedures (30-45 minutes):
1. Continue work on culminating activities and conferences.

Development/Procedures (30 minutes):
1. Have groups share their work on the culminating activity. Allow other groups to respond and make connections between their projects.

Transition: Return to the list of topics the class created. Ask, "What are you going to do the rest of the summer to learn about these topics?" Solicit responses.

Development/Procedures (30 minutes):
1. Explain that school starts again in about 5 weeks and that students should think about how they will use their time and set goals, both school and non-school related.
2. Distribute "Summer Planning Top Fives" (Student Resource 19.1). Encourage class to complete as many of the lists as they can. (Perhaps have them complete the school-related side first.) Remind students of the list they made at the beginning of class and encourage students to think about how they can work on those interested during the summer.
3. Help students think of how to use the public library to achieve their goals.
   - Discuss the Summer Reading Program.
   - Demonstrate how to use the library's website to find books and other materials. From the home page, click on "New and Hot Items" tab and then use left-margin menu to refine browsing for student interest.
   - Show students how to reserve materials and have them shipped to their local library.

Appendix H

Fidelity Checklist – Self-Rating for Intervention 1

Condition #1, Day 15:
Tiananmen Square, Lesson 1

Teacher: _____ Site: _____ Section (1st or 2nd): _____ Date: _____

Historical Question: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Y/N	Time (min.)	Comments
1	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Motivations for Reading Questionnaire (15 min.):** Students take the questionnaire as a group; accommodations are given as needed			
2	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Feedback on Test (5 min.):** Students provide feedback on test and feedback is recorded			

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Y/N	Time (min.)	Comments
3	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Review of Reading with CARE Strategy (5 min):** • Teacher asks students to name and explain all steps of Reading with CARE (Context, Author's Point of View, Reaction, and Evidence) and give example; teacher asks students to explain the difference between primary and secondary sources and give examples • Students participate by answering questions– uses nerf ball for review			
4	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Historical Question (2-3 min.):** Teacher hands out historical question card, reads question, and reminds students historical questions will be used to provide context for the lessons.			
5	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Read Aloud (5 min.):** Text is read aloud and students ask vocab questions as needed			

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Y/N	Time (min.)	Comments
6	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Partner Reading (15 min.):** • Teacher reminds students to use Fix-Up Strategies from memory • Students read Tiananmen Square Protests passage with partners; teacher circulates and helps as needed			
7	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Comprehension Check (5-10 min.):** Teachers asks questions on secondary source to check for student understanding			
8	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Visuals (5-10 min.):** Teacher hands photos. Teacher points out key features and asks students what the visuals tell them about the Tiananmen Square Protests.			
9	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Video Watching (10-15 min.):** Students choose a video to watch; students pair up to discuss each other's video; students discuss videos as a class			
10	SUMMARY/ CLOSURE	**Exit Ticket (5 min.):** Students identify and explain all four steps of Reading with CARE.			
11	SUMMARY/ CLOSURE	**Preview (1-2 min):** Teacher previews the next day's lesson			

Condition #1, Day 16:
Tiananmen Square, Lesson 2

Teacher: _____ Site: _____ Section (1st or 2nd): _____ Date: _____

Historical Question: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Y/N	Time (min.)	Comments
1	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Gates-MacGinitie Test (35 min.):** Students take the test; accommodations are given as needed			
2	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Feedback on Test (5 min.):** Students provide feedback on test and feedback is recorded			
3	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Review of Reading with CARE Strategy (5 min):** • Teacher asks students to name and explain all steps of Reading with CARE (Context, Author's Point of View, Reaction, and Evidence) and give example; teacher asks students to explain the difference between primary and secondary sources and give examples • Students participate by answering questions– uses nerf ball for review			

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Y/N	Time (min.)	Comments
4	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Historical Question/Main Idea (2-3 min.):** Teacher hands out historical question card, reads question, and reminds students historical questions will be used to provide context for the lessons. Teacher reminds students to look for the main idea and supporting details in all texts they read			
5	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Read Aloud (5 min.):** Text is read aloud and students ask vocab questions as needed			
6	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Partner Reading (15 min.):** • Teacher reminds students to use the Fix-Up Strategies from memory • Students read Hunger Strike passage with partners; teacher circulates and helps as needed			
7	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Comprehension Check (5-10 min.):** Teachers asks questions on secondary source to check for student understanding			
8	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Visuals (5-10 min.):** Teacher hands photos. Teacher points out key features and asks students what the visuals tell them about the Tiananmen Square Protests.			
9	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Video Watching (10-15 min.):** Students choose a video to watch; students pair up to discuss each other's video; students discuss videos as a class			
10	SUMMARY/ CLOSURE	**Exit Ticket (5 min.):** Students identify and explain all four steps of Reading with CARE.			

Condition #1, Day 17:

Tiananmen Square, Lesson 3

Teacher: _____ Site: _____ Section (1st or 2nd): _____ Date: _____

Historical Question: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Y/N	Time (min.)	Comments
1	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Reading Comprehension Test (20 min.):** Students take the test; accommodations are given as needed			
2	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**China Test (10 min.):** Students take the China test independently; accommodations are given as needed			
3	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Feedback on Tests (5 min.):** Students provide feedback on tests and feedback is recorded			
4	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Historical Question/Main Idea (2-3 min.):** Teacher hands out historical question card, reads question, and reminds students historical questions will be used to provide context for the lessons. Teacher reminds students to look for the main idea and supporting details in all texts they read			
5	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Read Aloud (5 min.):** Text is read aloud and students ask vocab questions as needed			

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Y/N	Time (min.)	Comments
6	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Partner Reading (15 min.):** • Teacher reminds students to use Fix-Up Strategies from memory • Students read Official Version passage with partners; teacher circulates and helps as needed			
7	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**The Strategy (10-15 min.):** • Students work individually to read the Official Version using the Reading with CARE strategy • Students take notes on how they use each step of the strategy with the primary source • Teacher calls upon students to share what they did for each step and writes it on the board, clarifying as necessary			
8	SUMMARY/ CLOSURE	**Exit Ticket (5 min.):** Students write down a brief response to the day's historical question, using what they read today.			
9	SUMMARY/ CLOSURE	**Preview (1-2 min.):** Teacher previews next day's lesson			

Condition #1, Day 18:
Tiananmen Square, Lesson 4

Teacher: _____ Site: _____ Section (1st or 2nd): _____ Date: _____

Historical Question: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Y/N	Time (min.)	Comments
1	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Review of Reading with CARE Strategy (5 min):** • Teacher asks students to name and explain all steps of Reading with CARE (Context, Author's Point of View, Reaction, and Evidence) and give example; teacher asks students to explain the difference between primary and secondary sources and give examples • Students participate by answering questions– uses nerf ball for review			
2	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Historical Question/Main Idea (2-3 min.):** Teacher hands out historical question card, reads question, and reminds students historical questions will be used to provide context for the lessons. Teacher reminds students to look for the main idea and supporting details in all texts they read			

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Y/N	Time (min.)	Comments
3	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Explain Activity (5 min.):** • Teacher explains to students that that they are going to review the documents they've read the previous three days, but you're going to do the review in a fun way. • Teacher explains that they are going to pretend that they were a foreign reporter in Beijing and they have to write a short story on what happened.			
4	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Review of Content (30 min.):** • Teacher prompts the students to remember what they learned from the secondary and primary documents that would help them create the poster. • Teacher prompts using questions such as: *What set off the protests? What were the students protesting against? What did the students want to happen? How did the Communist Party and government respond to the initial protests? How did they respond to the hunger strike? What did the government say happened after the hunger strike was over? What do you think happened when the hunger strike was over? How does the government say the protests ended? How do you think the protests came to an end?* • Teacher writes report on the board and tries to make sure all students participate			

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Y/N	Time (min.)	Comments
5	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Short Answers Individual Effort (10-15 min.):** • Teacher explains that students should use the texts to answer the questions • Teacher reviews Reading with CARE strategy • Teacher has students work individually to outline answers to the questions using the Reading with CARE Strategy to generate content for answers • Teacher circulates and helps as needed			
6	SUMMARY /CLOSURE	**Exit Ticket (20-30 min.):** • Students use their outlines to compose their own short answers. • Teacher circulates to help students pace themselves to complete answers			
7	SUMMARY/ CLOSURE	**Preview (1-2 min.):** Teacher lets students know they will be reviewing the short answer responses and will discuss them in the next class.			

Condition #1, Day 19:
Tiananmen Square, Lesson 5

Teacher: _____ Site: _____ Section (1st or 2nd): _____
Date: _____

Historical Question: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Y/N	Time (min.)	Comments
1	DEVELOPMENT / PROCEDURES	**Historical Question/Main Idea (2-3 min.):** Teacher hands out historical question card, reads question, and reminds students historical questions will be used to provide context for the lessons. Teacher reminds students to look for the main idea and supporting details in all texts they read			
2	DEVELOPMENT / PROCEDURES	**Hand Back (1-2 min.):** Teacher hands back the students' short answer responses without the teacher's comments.			
3	DEVELOPMENT / PROCEDURES	**Peer Feedback Reminder (2 min.):** • Teacher reminds students to focus on how their partner used the Reading with CARE strategy in their short answers • Teacher reminds students to point out how their partner used Context, the Author's Point of View, the reader's Reaction, and the Evidence the author shared and left out in their answers • If there isn't evidence of strategy use, student asks their partner why the step wasn't used in the short answers and suggests how it could have been			

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Y/N	Time (min.)	Comments
4	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Peer Feedback (15-20 min.):** • Students choose a partner to provide feedback to • While students are talking to their partners, teacher pulls each student aside, hands back their short answers and gives them personalized constructive feedback. • Growth from prior writing assignments is stressed • Teacher lays out concrete ways that students can continue to improve their writing by using the read with CARE strategy			
5	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Feedback Share (10 min.):** • Teacher asks the students if they have any questions that arose from their discussions. • Teacher asks them share the feedback they received and share what their partner did well in his/her short answers • Each group shares feedback			

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Y/N	Time (min.)	Comments
6	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**General Feedback (5-10 min.):** • Teacher asks students' if they have questions about the material or Reading with CARE • Teacher reviews the areas of strength in the class' short answer responses • Teacher reviews the areas that need improvement in the class' short answer responses • Teacher stresses the growth the class has made in using the Reading with CARE strategy • Teacher reviews how students should use the Reading with CARE strategy to help answer the questions • If time allows, teacher models a sample good answer on the board or overhead, thinking aloud while composing the answer			
7	SUMMARY/ CLOSURE	**Exit Ticket (10-15 min.):** • Teacher asks students if they liked Reading with CARE. Did they find it helpful? Did it make it easier to read about history? • Teacher records feedback			

Appendix I

Fidelity Checklist – Observation for Intervention 2

0 = Did not do this activity
1 = Many of the activity elements were missing or confusing, but students could reach one/some of the intended outcomes
2 = Some of the activity elements were missing or confusing, but students could reach most of the intended outcomes
3 = Some minor element of the activity was missing or mildly confusing, but students could reach nearly all of the intended outcomes.
4 = No elements of the activity were missing or confusing, students reached all of the intended outcomes

Condition #2, Day 15:
Tiananmen Square, Lesson 1

Teacher: _____ Site: _____ Section (1st or 2nd): _____
Date: _____

Historical Question: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Score (0-4)	Time (min.)	Comments
1	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Motivations for Reading Questionnaire (15 min.):** Students take the questionnaire as a group; accommodations are given as needed			
2	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Feedback on Test (5 min.):** Students provide feedback on test and feedback is recorded			

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Score (0-4)	Time (min.)	Comments
3	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Review of Reciprocal Reading Strategy (5 min):** • Teacher asks students to name and explain all steps of Reciprocal Reading (Predicting, Questioning, Clarifying, Summarizing) and give example; teacher asks students to explain the difference between primary and secondary sources and give examples • Students participate by answering questions– uses nerf ball for review			
4	DEVELOPMENT / PROCEDURES	**Historical Question (2-3 min.):** Teacher hands out historical question card, reads question, and reminds students historical questions will be used to provide context for the lessons.			
5	DEVELOPMENT / PROCEDURES	**Read Aloud (5 min.):** Text is read aloud and students ask vocab questions as needed			

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Score (0-4)	Time (min.)	Comments
6	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Independent Reading (15 min.):** • Teacher reminds students to use Fix-Up Strategies from memory • Students read Tiananmen Square passage independently; teacher circulates and helps			
7	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Comprehension Check (5-10 min.):** Teachers asks questions on secondary source to check for student understanding			
8	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Visuals (5-10 min.):** Teacher hands photos. Teacher points out key features and asks students what the visuals tell them about the Tiananmen Square Protests.			
9	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Video Watching (10-15 min.):** Students choose a video to watch; students pair up to discuss each other's video; students discuss videos as a class			
10	SUMMARY/ CLOSURE	**Exit Ticket (5 min.):** Students identify and explain all four steps of Reciprocal Reading.			
11	SUMMARY/ CLOSURE	**Preview (1-2 min):** Teacher previews the next day's lesson			

0 = Did not do this activity
1 = Many of the activity elements were missing or confusing, but students could reach one/some of the intended outcomes
2 = Some of the activity elements were missing or confusing, but students could reach most of the intended outcomes
3 = Some minor element of the activity was missing or mildly confusing, but students could reach nearly all of the intended outcomes.
4 = No elements of the activity were missing or confusing, students reached all of the intended outcomes

Condition #2, Day 16:
Tiananmen Square, Lesson 2

Teacher: _____ Site: _____ Section (1st or 2nd): _____
Date: _____

Historical Question: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Score (0-4)	Time (min.)	Comments
1	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Gates-MacGinitie Test (35 min.):** Students take the test; accommodations are given as needed			
2	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Feedback on Test (5 min.):** Students provide feedback on test and feedback is recorded			
3	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Historical Question/Main Idea (2-3 min.):** Teacher hands out historical question card, reads question, and reminds students historical questions will be used to provide context for the lessons. Teacher reminds students to look for the main idea and supporting details in all texts they read			
4	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Read Aloud (5 min.):** Text is read aloud and students ask vocab questions as needed			

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Score (0-4)	Time (min.)	Comments
5	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Independent Reading (15 min.):** • Teacher reminds students to use Fix-Up Strategies from memory • Students read Hunger Strike passage independently; teacher circulates and helps as needed			
6	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**The Strategy (10-15 min.):** • Students work in small groups (2-4 students) to use Reciprocal Reading on the primary document • Students write down each step in Reciprocal Reading and take notes on how they applied the steps to the document • Teacher then calls upon groups to share what they did for each step • Teacher writes responses on the board and clarifies as necessary			
7	SUMMARY/ CLOSURE	**Exit Ticket (5 min.):** Students write down the main idea and 2-3 supporting details of what they read today.			
8	SUMMARY/ CLOSURE	**Preview (1-2 min.):** Teacher previews next day's lesson			

0 = Did not do this activity
1 = Many of the activity elements were missing or confusing, but students could reach one/some of the intended outcomes
2 = Some of the activity elements were missing or confusing, but students could reach most of the intended outcomes
3 = Some minor element of the activity was missing or mildly confusing, but students could reach nearly all of the intended outcomes.
4 = No elements of the activity were missing or confusing, students reached all of the intended outcomes

Condition #2, Day 17:
Tiananmen Square, Lesson 3

Teacher: _____ Site: _____ Section (1st or 2nd): _____ Date: _____

Historical Question: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Score (0-4)	Time (min.)	Comments
1	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Reading Comprehension Test (20 min.):** Students take the test; accommodations are given as needed			
2	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**China Test (10 min.):** Students take the China test independently; accommodations are given as needed			
3	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Feedback on Tests (5 min.):** Students provide feedback on tests and feedback is recorded			

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Score (0-4)	Time (min.)	Comments
4	DEVELOPMENT / PROCEDURES	**Historical Question/Main Idea (2-3 min.):** Teacher hands out historical question card, reads question, and reminds students historical questions will be used to provide context for the lessons. Teacher reminds students to look for the main idea and supporting details in all texts they read			
5	DEVELOPMENT / PROCEDURES	**Read Aloud (5 min.):** Text is read aloud and students ask vocab questions as needed			
6	DEVELOPMENT / PROCEDURES	**Independent Reading (15 min.):** • Teacher reminds students to use Fix-Up Strategies from memory • Students read Official Version passage independently; teacher circulates and helps as needed			
7	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**The Strategy (10-15 min.):** • Students work individually to read the Official Version using the Reciprocal Reading strategy • Students take notes on how they use each step of the strategy with the primary source • Teacher calls upon students to share what they did for each step and writes it on the board, clarifying as necessary			
8	SUMMARY/ CLOSURE	**Exit Ticket (5 min.):** Students write down the main idea and 2-3 supporting details of what they read today.			

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Score (0-4)	Time (min.)	Comments
9	SUMMARY/ CLOSURE	**Preview (1-2 min.):** Teacher previews next day's lesson			

0 = Did not do this activity
1 = Many of the activity elements were missing or confusing, but students could reach one/some of the intended outcomes
2 = Some of the activity elements were missing or confusing, but students could reach most of the intended outcomes
3 = Some minor element of the activity was missing or mildly confusing, but students could reach nearly all of the intended outcomes.
4 = No elements of the activity were missing or confusing, students reached all of the intended outcomes

Condition #2, Day 18:
Tiananmen Square, Lesson 4

Teacher: _____ Site: _____ Section (1st or 2nd): _____
Date: _____

Historical Question: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Score (0-4)	Time (min.)	Comments
1	ANTICIPATORY SET/ CONTEXT SETTING	**Review of Reciprocal Reading Strategy (5 min):** • Teacher asks students to name and explain all steps of Reciprocal Reading (Context, Author's Point of View, Reaction, and Evidence) and give example; teacher asks students to explain the difference between primary and secondary sources and give examples • Students participate by answering questions– uses nerf ball for review			

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Score (0-4)	Time (min.)	Comments
2	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Historical Question/Main Idea (2-3 min.):** Teacher hands out historical question card, reads question, and reminds students historical questions will be used to provide context for the lessons. Teacher reminds students to look for the main idea and supporting details in all texts they read			
3	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Review of Content (32 min.):** • Teacher prompts the students to remember what they learned from the secondary and primary documents • Teacher prompts using questions such as: *What set off the protests? What were the students protesting against? What did the students want to happen? How did the Communist Party and government respond to the initial protests? How did they respond to the hunger strike? What did the government say happened after the hunger strike was over? What do you think happened when the hunger strike was over? How does the government say the protests ended? How do you think the protests came to an end?* • Teacher writes report on the board and tries to make sure all students participate			

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Score (0-4)	Time (min.)	Comments
4	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Short Answers Individual Effort (10-15 min.):** • Teacher explains that students should use the texts to answer the questions • Teacher reviews Reciprocal Reading strategy • Teacher has students work individually to outline answers to the questions using the Reciprocal Reading Strategy to generate content for answers • Teacher circulates and helps as needed			
5	SUMMARY/ CLOSURE	**Exit Ticket (20-30 min.):** • Students use their outlines to compose their own short answers. • Teacher circulates to help students pace themselves to complete answers			
6	SUMMARY/ CLOSURE	**Preview (1-2 min.):** Teacher lets students know they will be reviewing the short answer responses and will discuss them in the next class.			

0 = Did not do this activity
1 = Many of the activity elements were missing or confusing, but students could reach one/some of the intended outcomes
2 = Some of the activity elements were missing or confusing, but students could reach most of the intended outcomes
3 = Some minor element of the activity was missing or mildly confusing, but students could reach nearly all of the intended outcomes.
4 = No elements of the activity were missing or confusing, students reached all of the intended outcomes

Condition #2, Day 19:
Tiananmen Square, Lesson 5

Teacher: _____ Site: _____ Section (1st or 2nd): _____
Date: _____

Historical Question: "Did the Chinese government react appropriately or inappropriately to the Tiananmen Square Protests?"

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Score (0-4)	Time (min.)	Comments
1	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Historical Question/Main Idea (2-3 min.):** Teacher hands out historical question card, reads question, and reminds students historical questions will be used to provide context for the lessons. Teacher reminds students to look for the main idea and supporting details in all texts they read			
2	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**Hand Back (1-2 min.):** Teacher hands back the students' short answer responses with the teacher's comments.			

Item #	Activity Type	Activity	Score (0-4)	Time (min.)	Comments
3	DEVELOPMENT/ PROCEDURES	**General Feedback (32-47 min.):** • Teacher gives students 5-10 minutes to read comments • Teacher asks students' if they have questions about the material or Reciprocal Reading • Teacher reviews the areas of strength in the class' short answer responses • Teacher reviews the areas that need improvement in the class' short answer responses • Teacher stresses the growth the class has made in using the Reciprocal Reading strategy • Teacher reviews how students should use the Reciprocal Reading strategy to help answer the questions • If time allows, teacher models a sample good answer on the board or overhead, thinking aloud while composing the answer			
4	SUMMARY/ CLOSURE	**Exit Ticket (10-15 min.):** • Teacher asks students if they liked Reciprocal Reading. Did they find it helpful? Did it make it easier to read about history? • Teacher records feedback			

Appendix J

Researcher-created China Content Test

Pretest/Posttest China – Assessment A

Name: _____ Date: _____

Teacher: _____ School: _____

1. Which of the following countries shares a border with China?
    a) India
    b) Japan
    c) South Korea

2. The First Opium War was ended with which treaty?
    a) The Treaty of Versailles
    b) The Treaty of Nanking
    c) The Treaty of Beijing

3. The Treaty of Nanking benefited:
    a) China and Great Britain equally
    b) China much more than Great Britain
    c) Great Britain much more than China

4. Which of the following was **not** part of the Treaty of Nanking?
    a) China owed a large sum of money to Great Britain
    b) The Opium trade was ended in China
    c) The British could trade with all Chinese merchants

5. The Cultural Revolution began in China during which decade?
    a) The 1840s
    b) The 1910s
    c) The 1960s

6. During the Cultural Revolution, teenagers were used to attack:
    a) Chinese intellectuals
    b) Mao Zedong
    c) Japanese and Korean immigrants

7. A result of the Cultural Revolution was it:
    a) Led to economic cooperation with Japan
    b) Disrupted China's economic and educational systems
    c) Strengthened ties with the United States

8. During the 1980s and 1990s, the Chinese government:
    a) Increased economic productivity
    b) Reestablished Confucian traditions and values
    c) Gained colonies throughout East Asia

9. In 1989 students demonstrated in Beijing's Tiananmen Square for
    a) Democratic reforms
    b) Independence for Taiwan
    c) War with Japan

10. In response to the Tiananmen Square protests, the Chinese Government
    a) Allowed democratic elections
    b) Did away with state censorship
    c) Imposed martial law

Appendix K

Researcher-created Disciplinary Reading Test

Pretest/Posttest Reading Comprehension – Assessment A

Name: _____ Date: _____

Teacher:_____ School: _____

Directions: Read the historical question, background and primary source documents and answer the questions. You won't be able to answer all questions until you finish reading everything.

HISTORICAL QUESTION: The Boston Massacre: *Who Started It?*

BACKGROUND: On March 5, 1770, British Army officers killed five men and wounded six others during a confrontation on King Street in Boston. The officers were stationed in Boston to protect and support colonial officials. These officials were appointed by the British government to govern the colony. However, the officials were unpopular with many colonists because they enforced laws and policies that were made by the British government, not the colonists themselves. On March 5, 1770, a group of colonists confronted British soldiers, verbally threatening them and throwing objects. Soldiers fired on the colonists, killing three at the scene. Two others would die later of their wounds.

1) What was happening in Boston at the time of this event?
   a) Officers were stationed there to directly rule the colonists
   b) Officers were stationed there to protect colonial officials
   c) Officers were stationed there to protect the colonists from colonial officials
   d) I don't know

2) Why is the Boston Massacre controversial?
   a) There were differing views of who started the massacre
   b) There were differing views of who was in command of the soldiers
   c) There were differing views of who was killed in the massacre
   d) I don't know

Document A: Captain Thomas Preston's Account of the Boston Massacre, 1770

Head Note: Captain Thomas Preston, who commanded the soldiers in King Street, went on trial for murder for ordering that the soldiers shoot the colonists seven months after the event. Observers noted that he said this to his lawyer, John Adams, at his deposition (sworn interview before going on trial).

I saw people all excited and heard them threatening the troops. A few minutes after I arrived, about 100 people passed by. They went towards the custom house where the king's money is kept. They immediately surrounded the guard posted there and threatened him with clubs and sticks. Someone told me they were planning to kidnap and murder him. I immediately sent an officer and 12 men to protect the guard and the king's money. I also rushed over in case in all the excitement the soldiers did something they would later regret.

The soldiers soon kept the people back using bayonets. But more and more people came. They slammed their clubs and sticks together and insulted the troops. They dared them to fire. They used foul language and swearing. I tried my best to talk everyone down peacefully. It didn't work.

A bystander who was not so badly behaved asked if the guns were loaded. I said yes. He asked me if I planned to order the men to fire. I said absolutely not! Just as I said this, a soldier got hit with a club. As he stumbled back, he fired without orders. I got hit with a club on the arm so hard – if it were my head, I would have been killed!

Our lives were now in danger as the crazy mob advanced on us. They kept daring us to fire. Suddenly, three or four soldiers fired. The mob ran away scared, except for the three who were killed. When I asked them if they fired without orders, they said they heard the order to fire and thought it came from me.

Source: Deposition given to John Adams, March 12, 1770. Found among Adams' papers. It was re-printed in a book on the Boston Massacre that was written by Frederic Kidder and published in 1870.

3. In the third sentence of Captain Preston's account, who are the "they"? [Find this sentence: *"They immediately surrounded the guard posted there and threatened him with clubs and sticks."*]

    a. The soldiers
    b. The Custom House guards
    c. The mob
    d. I don't know

    Why did you choose your answer? Circle or mark up words that helped you figure this out to show how you understood who the "they" is in this sentence.

4. In the same account, which of the following details suggests that the mob was not peaceful?

    a. "I saw people all excited and heard them threatening the troops."
    b. "The mob ran away scared, except for the three who were killed."
    c. "A bystander who was not so badly behaved asked if the guns were loaded."
    d. I don't know

5. If the mob was really not peaceful, what does that tell you about Captain Preston's story? Explain how this idea helps you decide if he is being truthful or not.

_____

_____

_____

6. Why did Captain Preston write his account? He might have wanted to:

    a. Make the reader feel sorry for the mob
    b. Make the reader feel sorry for the king
    c. Make the reader feel sorry for the British soldiers
    d. I don't know

7. If the Captain was able to make his readers feel this way, what does that tell you about the accuracy of his account? Explain how this idea helps you decide if he is being truthful or not.

_____

_____

_____

Document B: Deposition of Samuel Drowne, 1770

Head Note: This is from the deposition (sworn interview before going on trial) of Samuel Drowne, a colonist who lived in Boston and witnessed the events of March 5, 1770.

Around 9 pm on March 5th, I was standing in his doorway. I saw 14 or 15 soldiers coming from Murray's Barracks. Some were armed with daggers and swords. Others were armed with clubs and fire shovels. They came upon citizens who were standing or walking. They beat up a few as they met them – all unarmed citizens. I was beaten up as well!

This violent gang of soldiers walked up King Street. I followed them. The soldiers fought with people they saw there. There were not more than a dozen people. Most of them were gentlemen. When they saw the armed soldiers, most of the people fled. The gang of soldiers went towards the main barracks. Five soldiers and a corporal came from the barracks. They were armed and told the violent gang of soldiers to "Go away." The gang of soldiers left.

About 200 people had come onto King Street. Soon I saw Captain Preston appear near the Custom House. He was with many armed soldiers. Many of the crowd of 200 people left. About 20 to 30 men remained. They were mostly sailors or other men who looked poor. They dared the soldiers to fire. I heard Captain Preston say to the soldiers, "Why don't you fire?" The soldiers did not respond. Captain Preston immediately said, "Fire." The soldiers fired. I helped carry off the dead and wounded. But at first the soldiers were cruel and would not let anyone carry them off.

Source: Deposition given to John Adams, March 12, 1770. Found among Adams' papers. It was re-printed in a book on the Boston Massacre that was written by Frederic Kidder and published in 1870.

8. In the account by Samuel Drowne, how large was the crowd of Boston residents who confronted Captain Preston and his soldiers?

    a. 14 or 15
    b. About 200
    c. 20 to 30
    d. I don't know

9. Why do you think Samuel Drowne included the detail of how many Boston residents confronted Preston and his soldiers? Explain how including this detail helps you decide if he is being truthful or not.

_____

_____

_____

10. What does Samuel Drowne say he does after being beaten up by the gang of soldiers?

    a. Go back to his home
    b. Report the incident
    c. Follow the gang of soldiers
    d. I don't know

11. Drowne says what he does after getting beaten up. What does this tell you about the accuracy of his account? Explain how this detail helps you decide if he is being truthful or not.

_____

_____

_____

12. Review the background and both versions of the Boston Massacre. Whose account of "*Who started the Boston Massacre?*" do you believe? Why? Mark up words in the text that helped you and explain your answer with evidence!

Appendix L

Rubric for Scoring Researcher-created Disciplinary Reading Assessment

Rubric for Scoring Short Answers

2	Response accurately records the author's perspective. OR Contains facts with context or explanation/interpretation. Facts do not need to be 100% correct but cannot be 100% incorrect. Evidence: EVIDENCE FROM TEXT IN CONTEXT Perspective: STUDENT PROVIDES EXPLANATION/INTERPRETATION
1	Response is reiteration or directly quote from text with no context or explanation/interpretation. OR Statement of incorrect facts with no context or explanation. Evidence: VERBATIM FROM TEXT (MAY BE INCORRECT); NO CONTEXT Perspective: NONE
0	Completely ignores the question. OR Includes so many indecipherable words than no sense can be made or the response. OR States "I don't know" or equivalent. Evidence: NONE Perspective: NONE

Holistic Rubric for Scoring Short Essay

5	Response draws an interpretation and uses evidence that cites both authors' perspectives. Evidence: FACTS IN CONTEXT Perspective: BOTH AUTHORS' PERSPECTIVES; STUDENT SHARES AN OPINION OF EVIDENCE
4	Response uses evidence to support his/her opinion and authors' perspectives. Relies entirely or mainly on one document. Evidence: FACTS IN CONTEXT Perspective: AT LEAST ONE AUTHOR'S PERSPECTIVE; STUDENT SHARES AN OPINION BASED ON EVIDENCE
3	Response states his/her opinion and authors' perspectives. Relies entirely or mainly on one document. Evidence: FACTS IN CONTEXT Perspective: AT LEAST ONE AUTHOR'S PERSPECTIVE; STUDENT SHARES AN OPINION
2	Response accurately records the author's perspective. OR Contains facts with context or explanation/interpretation. Facts do not need to be 100% correct but cannot be 100% incorrect. OR Student shares an opinion but does not support with appropriate evidence or facts. Evidence: FACTS IN CONTEXT Perspective: AT LEAST ONE AUTHOR'S PERSPECTIVE, OR STUDENT SHARES AN OPINION
1	Response is reiteration or directly quote from text with no context or explanation/interpretation. OR Statement of incorrect facts with no context or explanation. Evidence: VERBATIM FROM TEXT; NO CONTEXT Perspective: NONE
0	Completely ignores the question. OR Includes so many indecipherable words than no sense can be made or the response. OR States "I don't know" or equivalent. Evidence: NONE Perspective: NONE

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