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The effect of a summer school literacy program on the reading attitudes of elementary school struggling readers

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The Effect of a Summer School Literacy Program on the Reading Attitudes of
Elementary School Struggling Readers

by

Katie Fradley

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Department of Childhood Education
College of Education
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DEDICATION

To my Dad who taught me the importance of persistence.

I love you.

Katie

“Nothing in the world can take the place of persistence.

Talent will not. Nothing is more common than unsuccessful men with talent...

Genius will not; unrewarded genius is almost a proverb;

Education will not. The world is full of educated derelicts.

Persistence and determination alone are omnipotent.

The slogan “press on” has solved and always will solve the problems of the human race.”

- *Calvin Coolidge*

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THE EFFECT OF A SUMMER SCHOOL LITERACY PROGRAM ON THE READING ATTITUDES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STRUGGLING READERS

Katie Fradley

ABSTRACT

This mixed-method study explored and examined the reading attitudes of third-grade struggling readers (n=91) following six weeks of summer school using a scripted literacy program (*Voyager Passport*). During the quantitative portion of the study students (n=91) from five different summer school sites were given the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (McKenna & Kear, 1990). The survey, which was administered by the classroom teacher the first day of summer school and the last week of summer school, provided scores for academic, recreational and total reading attitude. Following data collection the results of the ERAS surveys were analyzed using a dependent measures t-test as well as descriptive statistics.

Results revealed no significant differences in recreational or total reading attitude following summer school using a scripted literacy program. Gender and school site were both examined using a multivariate analysis. Results indicated no statistically significant differences based on gender. However, when academic attitude was examined the results for school site were found to be significant $F(4, 90) = 2.87, p = .03$. A follow-up Tukey test revealed that although there was a difference in academic attitudes between the school sites, the variation could not be pinpointed to particular sites.

The qualitative portion of the study relied on both field notes gathered through classroom observations (n=113) and focus groups. One focus group was held at each of the five summer school sites. During focus groups a group moderator asked the students a series of six questions. Results were analyzed using semantic content analysis (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990) to identify themes related to students' attitudes about reading. After a cross case analysis of the targeted classrooms was conducted, triangulation was used to compare the findings from the ERAS survey, classroom observations, and focus groups. The qualitative findings revealed that following summer school students liked to read, felt they were better readers, and felt prepared to take the standardized test. However, only 29% of the students passed the alternative assessment. The results also revealed questions regarding the fidelity of the implementation and concerns with the lack of norming data on the fidelity measure.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Each year approximately 2.4 million children in the United States are retained, ultimately costing taxpayers 14 billion dollars a year (Jimerson & Kaufman, 2003). Though three meta-analyses, containing 700 analyses of achievement from more than 80 studies published between 1925 and 1999, fail to support the use of grade retention as an early intervention to enhance academic achievement, retention is currently being used with struggling readers (Holmes, 1989; Jimerson, 2001; Jimerson & Kaufman, 2003). In the state of Florida, where 14 percent of the third graders in 2006 failed to meet promotion criteria, promotion to fourth grade is directly tied to performance in reading on the Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test (FCAT) (Institute for School Innovation, 2006).

Retained third-grade students in the state of Florida are frequently encouraged to attend a district summer “reading camp” where they receive intensive reading instruction. Counties are responsible for writing their own summer reading camp schedules, which incorporate state guidelines. The first guideline concerns the time requirements for summer school. According to state guidelines, students are to attend summer school for six hours per day, four days per week. The duration of summer school is from six to eight weeks. The next guideline concerns instructional requirements. Intensive reading

instruction must last a minimum of two hours per day (i.e., one-third of the total instructional day). The remainder of the student day is allocated for reading enrichment in the form of read alouds, independent reading, mentoring and technology. Additionally, the state stipulates that formal assessment last no more than 30 minutes per day.

In this study in a school district on the west coast of Florida during the summer of 2007, students attended summer school five days per week for five hours each day for a total of 150 total hours. The research-based intervention program used was *Voyager Passport*. According to *Passport (Voyager Expanded Learning, 2004)*, the program is designed for use with struggling readers in kindergarten through third grade, who are performing below grade level, and for whom the “core-reading” program is not working. The Florida Center for Reading Research (FCRR) defines core-reading programs as, “comprehensive reading programs that are intended for use as the initial instruction in kindergarten through third grade classrooms” (Florida Center for Reading Research, www.fccr.org). In this study, during the 4.5 hours of actual daily instructional time, students received two 45 minute *Voyager Passport* lessons. *Voyager* states that the goal of instruction is “to accelerate struggling readers to grade-level proficiency through 26 weeks of targeted, explicit, systematic instruction” (*Voyager Principal’s Handbook, 2006*). Third-grade lessons consisted of instruction from two modules. The first module focused on comprehension and vocabulary, while the second module focused on fluency. An additional optional component focused on word study and was designed for use with students who were reading less than 44 words per minute on a grade level passage.

An additional component of *Voyager Passport* is ongoing progress monitoring. Progress monitoring is defined as, “a process of evaluating individual student reading

progress between benchmark periods in order to make instructional decisions” (*Voyager Expanded Learning*, 2004). Progress monitoring occurs every fifth lesson and utilizes VIP (Vital Indicators of Progress), a progress monitoring system made up of brief, one-minute measures for evaluating students’ development of grade-level reading skills such as initial sound fluency. When *Voyager Passport* is used during the traditional school year, these results are logged into an online system called V-Port which tracks the students’ growth. V-Port was not utilized during summer school. Further information on V-Port can be found in Chapter Two.

Voyager Passport defines the program as explicit and systematic instruction. Specifically, *Voyager* defines explicit instruction as, “A direct instructional approach in which the teacher states the reason for learning the skill, models it, gives the students guided practice, and provides independent practice with feedback”. Additionally, *Voyager* (*Voyager Expanded Learning Systems*, 2004) defines systematic instruction as, “An arrangement of skills in a logical order from the easiest to the most difficult. Combined explicit and systematic instruction provides repeated practice of clearly stated skills delivered in a way that ensures understanding and minimizes confusion” (p.33).

Although *Voyager Passport* does not refer to the program as scripted, it does demonstrate many characteristics matching the definition of a scripted program. “Scripted reading” is a reading program characterized by an explicit teacher’s manual with instructions for teachers to follow verbatim when using the program with their students (Moustafa & Land, 2005). In a “scripted” classroom, all activities are to be followed in the order presented, and the teacher’s instructions are to be read word-for-word from the manual (Meyer, 2002). This approach can be contrasted with a non-

scripted program, which describes activities, provides examples, and expects teachers to choose activities they deem to be the most appropriate to use with their students (Moustafa & Land, 2005).

Specifically, *Voyager Passport* “requires minimal preparation; encourages the teacher to closely reference the curriculum guide; uses explicit language; has carefully sequenced and paced skills; uses a pace that is brisk and business-like; includes teacher modeling and monitoring of student’s understanding; engages students through eye contact, hand signals, brief verbal reminders; and uses corrective procedures” (*Voyager Expanded Learning*, 2004). However, although the manual provides specific teacher dialogue, *Voyager* encourages teachers implementing the program to, “Become familiar with both the directions and implementation and to refrain from reading the script verbatim” (p. 30).

Reading attitude can influence factors such as engagement and practice (Mathewson, 1994; McKenna, Kear, & Ellsworth, 1995). Because summer school is currently being used as an intervention to assist the struggling reader, it is important to examine any relationship that may occur between summer school using a scripted reading program and struggling readers’ attitudes.

Theoretical Framework

This study, which focused on the reading attitudes of third-grade struggling readers, was grounded in theory on attitude. An examination of the literature revealed varying definitions of attitude depending on the investigator. Table 1 offers a summary of the various definitions of reading attitude. Theoretical underpinnings primarily stem from two reading attitude models: the Mathewson (1985) model and the McKenna (1994)

model. Mathewson's (1985) model focuses on attitude and the role it plays during both the act of reading and during the period of time when one learns to read. Additionally, this model predicts attitude development over time (McKenna et al., 1995). When applying Mathewson's (1985) model, attitude is just one of a set of factors that influence an individual's intention to read (McKenna et al., 1995).

McKenna's (1994) model strives to examine the long-term development of reading attitudes. This model examines three principle factors influencing attitudinal change: (a) beliefs about the outcomes of reading in light of the judged desirability of those outcomes, (b) beliefs about the expectations of others in light of one's motivation to conform to those expectations, and (c) the outcomes of specific incidents of reading (McKenna et al., 1995). Additionally, McKenna (1994) sees reading attitude as being broken down into two different dimensions: attitude toward recreational reading and attitude toward school related academic reading.

Table 1

Definitions of Reading Attitude

Investigator	Year	Definition of Attitude
Ajzen	1989	An individual's disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, institution, event, or any discriminable aspect of their world (p. 241).
Alexander and Filler	1976	A system of feelings related to reading which causes the learner to approach or avoid a reading situation (p.1).
Beck	1976	A positive or negative evaluation of some person, object, or thing (p. 302).
Fishbein and Ajzen	1983	A learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object (p.6).
Petty and Cacioppo	1981	Positive or negative feeling about some person, object or thing (p. 302).

Conceptual Framework

For the qualitative component of this mixed method study, the conceptual framework was driven by the effects that the *No Child Left Behind Legislation* has on third-grade students, and the role that retention, summer school, and a scripted reading program have on struggling third-grade readers' attitudes toward reading. McGuire (1989) speculated that the tri-component view of attitude could be measured more effectively through the use of open-ended responses. This view supports the use of qualitative research as a way to gather open-ended data when investigating the reading attitudes of students using a tri-component view of attitude, such as that adopted by McKenna (1994). In formulating his model, McKenna synthesized the work of Mathewson (1985) and others and in doing so McKenna's model (1994) identifies three principal factors that contribute to attitudinal change. These factors are: beliefs about the desired outcomes of reading, beliefs about the expectations of others, and the outcomes of specific incidents of reading.

Even though statistics on retention reveal the negative impact retention has on children (Jimerson & Kaufman, 2003; Jimerson, 2001; Parker, 2001), it is currently being used as a strategy that is intended to assist the struggling reader. Third-grade students who do not pass the reading portion of the FCAT examination are retained unless they qualify for a "good cause" exemption. One of these "good cause" exemptions involves the strategic use of summer school. During summer school the students receive instruction using a reading program that has state approval based on the state's definition of scientifically -based reading research (SBRR), or research which uses "rigorous, systematic, and objective procedures" to obtain knowledge about reading development,

reading instruction, and reading difficulties. Following the intervention, the students are given an alternative reading assessment, the Stanford 10 Test. If they score in the 45th percentile or higher on the alternative assessment they are eligible for promotion to the fourth grade.

Voyager Passport was used as an intervention tool in the district where the study took place during summer in 2005, 2006, and 2007. The scores have varied each year (see Figure 1). In 2005, when *Voyager Passport* was used as an intensive summer school reading program with 263 third-graders, 72 percent of students who otherwise would have been retained achieved proficiency on the SAT-9 (alternative reading assessment) and thus were promoted to fourth-grade. According to the Florida Department of Education, the targeted district achieved the highest summer gains of any county in the state of Florida.

In 2006, 547 third-grade students in the same district scored at Level 1 on FCAT, thus qualifying them to attend a summer reading camp. Third-grade students who scored at Level 1 were encouraged, but not required, to attend summer school. Once again *Voyager Passport* was used as an intensive summer school reading program. Of the 241 third-grade students who completed summer school and participated in SAT 10 testing, 43 students (17.8 percent) were promoted based on this score. In order to be placed in fourth-grade, Florida statute requires a third-grade student to place in the 45th percentile or higher on the Stanford 10 assessment. In 2007, a total of 285 students completed summer school and took the Stanford 10. Of those students, 83 students (29 percent) scored in the 45th percentile or higher and were placed in fourth grade as a good cause exemption.

The promotion findings from 2005 to 2006 differed greatly. However, it is difficult to compare the results from 2005 to 2006 because in 2006 the district changed the assessment tool and began using the Stanford 10 as the alternative assessment. The decision to change the assessment was made at the state level because the norms from the Stanford 9 were out of date. The Stanford 10 was normed in the fall of 2002 with a large sample of the nation's K-12 student population. After the update, all of the test questions on the Stanford 10 were new and the creators claimed that the Stanford 10 reading test had more items that addressed skills in critical analysis and strategies (Harcourt, 2003). Additionally, selections of poetry were added at all levels of the test. An additional change from the Stanford 9 to the Stanford 10 was that the Stanford 10 was not timed.

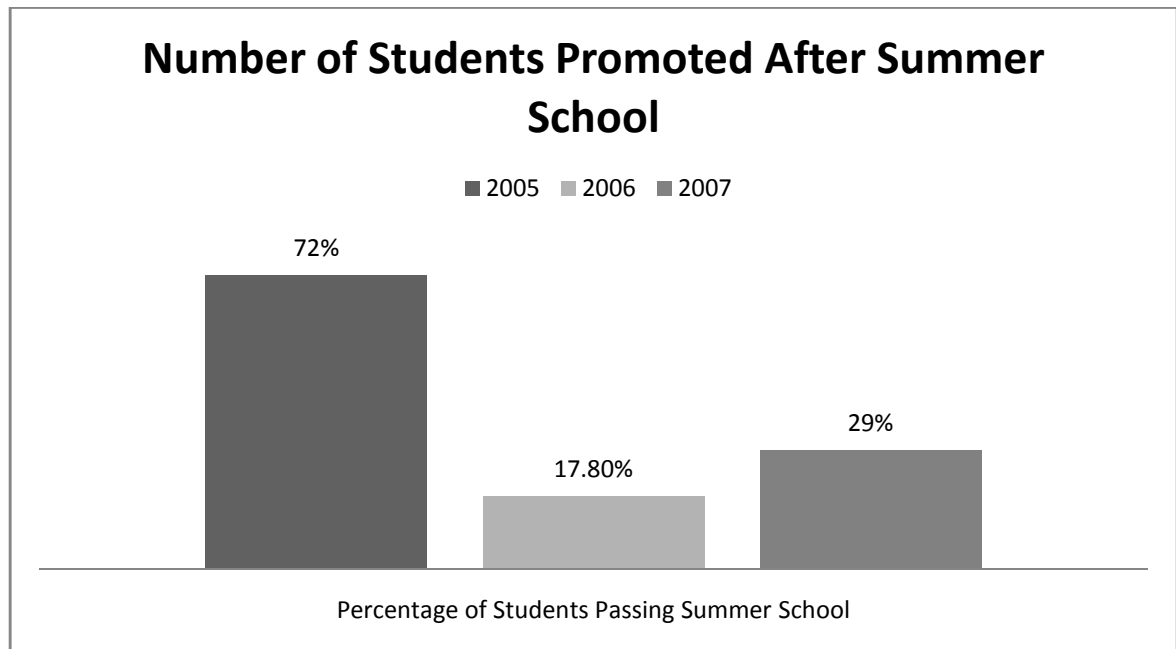


Figure 1. Number of Students Promoted After Summer School 2005-2007

Purpose of Study

The goal of *No Child Left Behind* (No Child Left Behind Act, 2002) is for every third-grade student to receive effective reading instruction so that they are able to read on grade level. This legislation promotes the use of grade retention, summer school, and reading programs based on scientifically based reading research (SBRR) as interventions to assist the struggling reader. Although researchers have previously examined the effects of summer school as an intervention strategy (Borman & Dowling, 2006; Cooper, Charlton, Valentine & Muhlenbruck, 2000 and Duffy, 2001), and the use of summer school has been promoted as a way to accelerate the reading development of struggling readers (Allington, 1998; Duffy, 2001), there remains only limited research that focuses on summer school that uses scripted reading programs and the progress that struggling readers can be expected to make.

Voyager Universal Literacy System is marketed as a comprehensive reading system. As the program has experienced success, the company has added additional components. One of these components is *Voyager Passport*. Although there is research available to support *Voyager Universal Literacy System* as a core reading program, because *Voyager Passport* is a new program completed early in 2003, there is only scant research that is specific to the intervention (www.readingfirstsupport.com).

Additionally, although numerous researchers have examined factors that influence children's attitudes toward reading (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; McKenna & Kear, 1990; McKenna, et al., 1995), little research has focused specifically on struggling third-grade students' attitudes toward reading. Presently there is only minimal research that is

specific to the intervention, *Voyager Passport*. Therefore, the purpose of this research study was to determine the effect a summer school literacy program using a scripted reading program, *Voyager Passport*, had on the reading attitudes of struggling third-grade readers.

Research Questions

The following research question was addressed in the quantitative portion of this study: What is the effect of a scripted summer school reading program on the reading attitudes of third-grade struggling readers? The following research question was addressed in the qualitative portion of this study: What do third-grade struggling readers perceive to be the effect of a scripted summer school reading program on their attitudes toward reading?

Hypothesis

The Quantitative Hypothesis was: There is a positive relation between struggling third-grade readers' attitudes toward reading success and the completion of a scripted summer school reading program for third-grade struggling readers.

Significance of the Study

Given the present political climate supporting the use of grade retention, and considering the amount of research that has shown the negative effects grade retention can have on a child, it is important to find interventions such as summer school to assist the struggling reader. However, it is of equal importance to consider struggling readers' attitudes toward reading and how the use of a scripted reading program affects struggling readers' attitudes toward reading. This study has the potential to contribute to the field of literacy education. It is hoped that findings from this study will help county

administrators with decision making in regards to summer school and what instructional materials to use with struggling readers.

Definition of Terms

Core-Reading Programs. The Florida Center for Reading Research (FCRR) defines core-reading programs as comprehensive reading programs that are intended to be used as the initial instruction in K-3 classrooms (Retrieved 12/2/2006 from Florida Center for Reading Research, www.fccr.org).

DIBELS. The Dynamic Indicators of Basic Literacy Skills (DIBELS) are a set of standardized individually administered measures of early literacy development. DIBELS is widely used to monitor early reading progress within classroom settings and measures initial sound fluency, letter naming fluency, phoneme segmentation fluency, nonsense word fluency, and oral reading fluency. DIBELS was largely unknown before Reading First, yet DIBELS is now the primary assessment tool promoted by the Department of Education under Reading First. DIBELS measures initial sounds fluency, phoneme segmentation fluency, nonsense words fluency, and oral reading fluency. Initial Sounds Fluency assesses a child's skill to identify and produce the initial sound of a given word. Phonemic Segmentation Fluency assesses a child's skill to produce the individual sounds within a given word. Nonsense Word Fluency assesses a child's knowledge of letter-sound correspondences as well as their ability to blend letters together to form unfamiliar "nonsense" (e.g., fik, lig, etc.) words. Finally, Oral Reading Fluency assesses a child's skill of reading connected text in grade-level material.

(http://dibels.uoregon.edu/dibels_what.php).

Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (ERAS). The Elementary Reading Attitude Survey is designed to provide quantitative estimates of children's attitude toward both recreational and academic reading and can be administered to an entire class in a manner of minutes. (McKenna & Kear, 1990).

ESEA. Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) reauthorized and amended federal education programs established under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965.

Explicit Instruction. A direct instructional approach in which the teacher states the reason for learning the skill, models it, gives the students guided practice, and provides independent practice with feedback (*Voyager*, 2006, p. 33).

FCAT. The Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test, or the FCAT, is the standardized test used in the primary and secondary public schools of Florida.

FCRR. The Florida Center for Reading Research's mission is to conduct basic research on reading, reading growth, reading assessment, and reading instruction that will contribute to the scientific knowledge of reading and benefit students in Florida and throughout the nation; to disseminate information about research-based practices related to literacy instruction and assessment for children in pre-school through 12th grade; to conduct applied research that will have an immediate impact on policy and

practices related to literacy instruction in Florida; and to provide technical assistance to Florida's schools and to the State Department of Education.

No Child Left Behind Legislation (NCLB). The *No Child Left Behind Act* of 2001 (Public Law 107-110), commonly known as NCLB, is a United States federal law that reauthorizes a number of federal programs that aim to improve the performance of U.S. schools (ed.gov, 2006).

NRP. The National Reading Panel Group commissioned by Congress to review the growing body of reading research K-3. It was composed of some of the nation's leading experts in reading research.

Report of the National Reading Panel. Report that reflects the findings of the National Reading Panel, a congressionally funded study in 2000. An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction.

Reading First. A grant program for schools that fail to meet standards set forth by the national government under No Child Left Behind (NCLB). Under Reading First, qualifying schools receive federal money over a three-year period to provide teacher education, programs, materials, remedial programs, and ongoing monitoring of student progress.

Scientifically Based Reading Research (SBRR). A term defined by Reading First as a scientifically based reading research that uses rigorous, systematic, and objective procedures to obtain knowledge about reading development, reading

instruction, and reading difficulties. This type of research is defined by Reading First as employing systematic and objective procedures to obtain valid knowledge relevant to reading development, reading instruction, and reading difficulties; and includes research that employs systematic, empirical methods that draw on observation or experiment. It also involves rigorous data analyses that are adequate to test the stated hypotheses and justify the general conclusions drawn; relies on measurements or observational methods that provide valid data across evaluators and observers and across multiple measurement and observations; and has been accepted by a peer-reviewed journal or approved by a panel of independent experts through a comparably rigorous, objective, and scientific review (Title 1, Part B, Section 1208(6) of the ESEA).

Scripted Reading Program. Scripted reading programs are characterized by very explicit teacher's manuals with instructions for teachers to follow verbatim when using the program with their students (Moustafa & Land, 2005). In a "scripted" classroom, all activities are to be followed in the order presented, and the teacher's instructions are to be read word-for-word from the manual (Meyer, 2002).

Systematic Instruction. An arrangement of skills in a logical order from the easiest to the most difficult.

Vital Indicators of Progress (VIP). VIP was developed by Dr. Roland Good and Dr. Ruth Kaminski and is an alternative form of DIBELS, which is widely used to monitor early reading progress within classroom settings. VIP measures initial sound

fluency, letter naming fluency, phoneme segmentation fluency, nonsense word fluency, and oral reading fluency.

Voyager Passport Program. *Voyager Passport* is a reading intervention program for struggling readers in kindergarten through third-grade who are performing below grade level. The program provides intensive, explicit instruction in phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension that can be delivered by a teacher, reading specialist, trained paraprofessional or student teacher. Lessons are highly structured, using clear, succinct language and leaving little flexibility for teacher decision making.

VPORT. A tool that allows district administrators, principals, literacy coaches, and teachers to monitor student progress, compare student data against a trajectory of desired learning, and make instructional decisions to match student needs. Access to VPORT is set up through the district or school.

Delimitations and Limitations of the Study

There were delimitations to the study. The study only focused on third-grade struggling readers whose reading performance was measured by FCAT. Therefore, the researcher limited the participants of the study to struggling readers who scored at Level 1 on FCAT reading. Furthermore, because the sample was a convenience sample, the researcher also limited the study to struggling third-grade readers who were attending summer school in the targeted district. In 2006, 547 third grade students scored at Level 1 on the reading portion of FCAT and qualified for summer school. Of those students, 241

completed summer school and took the alternative assessment, Stanford 10. Although the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (Mckenna & Kear, 1990) (see Appendix A) was administered to all of the students, data were only collected from those students who returned a yes informed consent.

There were several potential threats to both internal and external validity for both the qualitative and quantitative portions of this study. According to Johnson and Christensen, (2004), internal validity refers to, “the ability to infer that a causal relationship exists between two variables” (p.230). One possible threat to the internal validity of this mixed study concerned researcher bias. Onwuegbuzie (2003) contends that researcher bias can occur when the researcher also is the person collecting the data. The researcher attempted to prevent researcher bias by making her intentions clear with the participating students and summer school teachers. Johnson and Christensen define reflexivity as, “Self-reflection by the researcher on his or her biases and predispositions” (p.249). The researcher actively engaged in reflexivity, by engaging in critical self-reflection about potential biases and predispositions (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). Through reflexivity the researcher became more self-aware which helped to monitor and control for biases concerning the use of scripted literacy programs.

An additional limitation evolved during the study and involved politics and the conflict of interest that arose because the researcher was also a third-grade teacher in the district where the study took place. This meant that the researcher had to modify certain aspects of the study to comply with district requests. For instance, the district would not allow the researcher to conduct the fidelity checks. This was because the district felt that

it was a conflict of interest for the researcher to be in a position where she was evaluating fellow teachers.

Another threat to internal validity involved instrumentation. Instrumentation can cause a threat to internal validity if the instrument used during pre-testing is different than the instrument used in post testing. This threat was controlled for by using the same instrument for the pre-test and post-test. Additionally, another potential threat to internal validity concerns mortality. Mortality is often a threat to validity when studying at-risk students who often are more likely to drop out of a study (Onwuegbuzie, 2003). This was controlled for by attempting to obtain as large a sample as possible. Because attendance at summer school was optional, and participation in the study was optional, some of the students elected not to participate, and others dropped out of summer school before the researcher had given the post-assessment. (Specific information on participants can be found on p. 82). An additional mortality issue that occurred was that some of the students were not present on the first day of summer school and were never given the initial ERAS (McKenna & Kear, 1990) survey.

Additionally, there were several threats to external validity. According to Johnson & Christensen, (2004), external validity is referred to as “The extent to which the results of a study can be generalized to and across populations, settings and times” (p. 242). Ecological validity refers to the extent to which findings can be generalized across settings, conditions, variables, and contexts (Onwuegbuzie 2003). Because the findings from the study reflected the views of struggling third-grade readers, it might not be productive to generalize the results across different populations. Because the participants were aware that they were participants in a research study, the researcher needed to

consider reactivity, which is defined by Johnson and Christensen (2004) as, “an alteration in performance that occurs as a result of being aware of participating in a study” (p. 245). To control for this possible threat, the researcher collected both quantitative and qualitative data. The qualitative data, gathered through participation in focus groups and field notes gathered during classroom observations, were then compared with the findings of the quantitative data gathered through the ERAS (McKenna & Kear, 1990).

An additional threat to external validity arose when the district became involved in student selection for the focus groups. Because the district wanted to impact as few classrooms as possible, the researcher was asked to select students from just one classroom at each site. This meant that the researcher was limited in participant selection. There were very few children per site with permission to participate in the study who had a low reading attitude initially. In fact, only 10 of the 91 students had an initial low attitude score. The majority of the students who participated in focus groups had an average or high attitude.

Population validity refers to the ability to generalize results of the study to individuals not included in the study (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). In this study, the targeted population consisted of struggling readers. However, the accessible population consisted of third-graders who were enrolled in summer school. To help control for population validity, the researcher invited all of the retained third-graders attending summer school in the spotlighted district to participate in the study. However, in order to meet IRB requirements, participation hinged on whether or not the students returned a yes informed consent (see Appendix B). Johnson and Christensen (2004) define temporal validity as, “the extent to which the study results can be generalized across

time” (p. 245). This was an issue because the data for this study was collected during the period of one summer. Therefore, although the data were valid for this time period, there was no assurance that the same results would hold valid across time (Johnson & Christensen, 2004).

Maturation refers to physical or mental changes that may occur within individuals over time (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). Because these changes over time may affect an individual’s performance over time, another possible threat to internal validity involved maturation. The researcher attempted to control for this possible threat to validity by limiting data collection to the 30 days the students were enrolled in summer school. Additionally, the researcher conducted a Pilot Study to determine if the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (see Appendix A) measured change with a homogeneous population of struggling readers following a major event. These results showed that the ERAS measured differences during a short timeframe, since the Pilot Study was an examination of students’ attitudes about reading both before and after the FCAT.

When examining the assumptions for possible violations, because the criterion variable, attitude, was assessed using a continuous variable there was no reason to believe that the assumption level of measurement had been violated. Additionally, because the same measure of attitude is used both as a pretest and as a posttest, there was no reason to believe that the assumption of paired observations had been violated. All of the students’ scores were independent, so the assumption independent observations had not been violated. An examination of the normal probability plot reveals that the scores appeared to be normally distributed, thus the normal distribution for different scores assumption

had not been violated. Because the sample selected for this pilot study was a convenience sample, the researcher knowingly violated the assumption of random sampling.

Organization of Remaining Chapters

The remaining chapters present information which is pertinent to this study. Chapter 2 begins with an examination of literature on struggling readers focusing on federal and state initiatives, grade retention, and summer school, scripted literacy programs, and students' attitudes toward reading. The topic of Chapter 3 is methodology. This chapter begins with information on the *Voyager Passport* training and the instructional fidelity measure. Next, descriptions of the design of the study, the population and sample selection, instrumentation, data collection, and the manner in which the data were analyzed and interpreted are presented. Chapter 4 summarizes the findings of the study. Both quantitative and qualitative findings are reported. Chapter 5 presents a summary of the study, conclusions and implications derived from the research findings, recommendations for practice based on the study conclusions and implications, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Methods of Selection

This chapter begins with an overview and a statement of the problem. Following the problem, this chapter is organized into five research strands presented in five sections. The first section will examine the research on the federal initiative, *Reading First*. The second section will examine research on the detrimental effects of grade retention. The third section will look at summer school as an intervention with struggling readers. The fourth section will examine scripted literacy reading programs, specifically *Voyager Passport* and the role it presently has under NCLB. The fifth section will consist of an examination of factors contributing to the reading attitude of struggling readers. Finally, the researcher provides an overview of how the literature informed the study.

Overview and Statement of the Problem

During the 1998 State of the Union Address, President Clinton brought retention into the national spotlight when he called for an end to social promotion. Three years later, and just three days after President Bush took office in January 2001, the *No Child Left Behind* act began with the intent to improve student achievement and change the culture of U.S. schools (www.ed.gov). Six years later, as states work to implement *No Child Left Behind*, reading has become a top political issue and a major focus of the Bush presidency. President Bush describes this law as the, “cornerstone of my administration” (Retrieved 12-06-2006 from www.ed.gov).

The ultimate goal of *No Child Left Behind* is for every child in the United States to read on grade level by the end of third grade. In Florida, an additional component of this legislation involves assessment using The Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test (FCAT). Reading FCAT scores group students into five levels, with one being the lowest level and five being the highest. Florida's current law requires that students must earn above a level 1 on the reading portion of the third grade FCAT to be promoted to fourth grade unless they qualify for one of the following six "good cause" exemptions. These exemptions include: (a) Students with limited English proficiency (LEP) who have less than two years of instruction in an English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) program; (b) Students with disabilities for whom participation in the statewide assessment program is not appropriate; (c) Students who demonstrate through a student portfolio, that they are reading on grade level based on the Sunshine State Standards; (d) Students with disabilities who were previously retained in grades K-3; (e) Students who were previously retained in grades K-3 for a total of two or more years; and (f) Students who demonstrate an acceptable level of performance on an alternative standardized reading assessment. (Office of Program Policy Analysis and Government Accountability, 2006).

The last "good cause" exemption involves sending retained third-graders to summer school, also called "summer reading camps". Under Florida state law, retained students must be given the opportunity to participate in the district's summer reading camp (Office of Program Policy Analysis and Government Accountability, 2006). Instruction in these "summer reading camps" requires the use of a reading program based on scientifically based reading research (SBRR). In the district used in this study students

attending summer school received remediation using *Voyager Passport*. Upon completion of summer school, the students were given an alternative reading assessment, Stanford 10. If the student scored at or above the 45th percentile, he or she was then placed in fourth grade as a good cause exemption.

Little research has been undertaken on the impact summer school has on struggling readers' attitudes. Additionally, although there has been research on *Voyager Universal Literacy Systems*, much of that research has been conducted by the company. Because *Voyager Passport* is a relatively new intervention program, there is limited research on it. This research will be presented in the section on *Voyager*. Furthermore, because retained students are at greater risk for long-term negative outcomes such as dropping out of school, increased substance abuse, fewer employment opportunities, and more behavioral problems (Holmes, 1989; Jimerson 2001; Jimerson & Kaufman, 2003; Parker 2001) and because certain instructional approaches may produce positive experiences, which may in turn contribute to attitude influences; it is important to consider not only alternatives to retention, but how they impact the struggling reader's attitude towards reading.

Theoretical Perspectives

The theoretical underpinnings of this study stem from research on reading attitudes. Much of the research on attitude began in the 1930's and increased during the 1960's and 1970's as researchers began to examine other variables that influenced the attitude-behavior relationship (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Liska, 1984). During the mid 1970's Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) developed a causal relationship model, the Fishbein/Ajzen model. Under the model, Fishbein and Ajzen provided a general

definition of attitude as, “a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object” (p.6). Specifically, when viewing attitude using this recursive model, attitude was broken into three concepts: affect, cognition, and conation (behavioral intentions). The model assumed that behavior was directly caused by conation (behavioral intentions), which was caused by attitudes, which in turn reflected the beliefs about the consequences of behavior. Also during the 1970’s Alexander and Filler (1976) offered a definition for attitude that was specific to reading, but different from that offered by Fishbein and Ajzen. Alexander and Filler defined reading attitude as, “a system of feelings related to reading which causes the learner to approach or avoid a reading situation (p.1)”. This definition suggested that attitude could be thought of as existing on a continuum, with both positive and negative extremes.

During the 1990’s, and building on the work of the earlier attitude theorists, two new models of reading attitude emerged, The Mathewson model (1985) and The McKenna model (1994). An examination of both models revealed attitude as one of a set of factors influencing an individual’s intention to read (Mathewson, 1994; McKenna et al., 1995). Unlike the Fishbein/Ajzen model (1975), Mathewson (1985) did not adopt a causal relationship and instead adopted a tripartite approach to attitude towards reading. Under this approach, Mathewson (1985) views attitude towards reading as being made up of three components: prevailing feelings about reading (personal values), action readiness for reading (goals), and evaluative beliefs about reading (self-concepts). The two other factors that contributed to the decision to read, or not to read, were external motivators (cognitive) and the individual’s emotional (affective) state.

McKenna (1994) synthesized the work of other theorists in an effort to, “construct a model more conducive to considering the long-term development of reading attitudes” (p. 938). McKenna’s model (1994) adopted three principal factors which influence attitudinal change:

(a) beliefs about the outcomes of reading in light of the judged desirability of those outcomes; (b) beliefs about the expectations of others in light of one’s motivation to conform to those expectations; and (c) the outcomes of specific incidents of reading (p. 938).

McKenna’s model (1994) predicted that as children got older and had more options available to them during their leisure time, their attitude towards reading would worsen (Anderson, Tollefson & Gilbert, 1985; Martin, 1984). Further research also supported that struggling readers attitudes about reading declined as they got older (Ishikawa, 1985; Ross & Fletcher, 1989). McKenna’s model (1994) also predicted that reading attitude was linked to reading ability (Walberg & Tsai, 1985; Wallbrown, Brown, & Engin, 1978).

Although there are varying opinions on what impact instructional methods have on childrens’ attitudes about reading, there is little evidence to support the effects of methods and materials on reading attitudes. McKenna, Stratton, Grindler and Jenkins (1995) reported no difference in the attitudes of 1-5 students taught using a whole language approach as compared with their peers who received reading instruction from a basal reader.

In a nationwide survey McKenna et al., (1995) tested McKenna’s model (1994) as they investigated the reading attitudes of 18,185 students in grades 1 through 6. Attitude

was measured using the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey , or ERAS (McKenna & Kear, 1990). The survey was made up of 20 questions and used a 4 node, pictorial rating scale using Garfield. The survey results were broken down into two subscales: academic reading attitude and recreational reading attitude. Results of the national survey showed that childrens' attitudes decreased with age, beginning positive in first grade but ending in indifference in sixth grade. Additionally the researchers found a relationship between students reading ability and their attitude towards reading. The researchers also examined gender and ethnicity and found that girls as a group possessed more positive attitudes about reading and that gender differences did not play a role in ability. Regarding ethnicity, it appeared to play little role in students negative trend toward reading attitude. Finally, the researchers examined teacher's reliance on the basal reader to see if it impacted children's attitudes about reading. The results showed that there was not a relationship between time spent in basal readers and children's attitudes about reading. These findings offer support for McKenna's model (1994) and argued for more studies in this area.

These results offered further support for the McKenna model (1994) which postulated the attitudinal impact of a child's reading experiences. It is important for educators to use early intervention with struggling readers in an effort to curb the attitudinal decline (McKenna et al., 1995). Little research has been conducted which specifically examines different reading methods and materials to determine their impact on the attitudes of struggling readers. This investigation applied the theoretical underpinnings of McKenna's model (1994) and sought to determine if a scripted summer

school reading program had an effect on the reading attitudes of third grade struggling readers. Table 2 offers a summary of these key attitude models.

Table 2

Reading Attitude Models

Name of Model	Year	Purpose of Model
Mathewson	1976	Clarify relationships between attitude and reading using a small set of variables: attitude, motivation, attention and comprehension.
Fishbein and Ajzen	1980	Attitudes do not affect behavior directly but are mediated by intention. Attitudes toward reading gives rise to intention to read, which then leads to reading itself.
Mathewson	1985	To increase the scope of the 1976 model.
McKenna	1994	Postulates that an individual's attitude toward reading will develop over time principally as the result of three factors: normative beliefs, beliefs about the outcomes of reading and specific reading experiences (p. 939).

Reading First

The purpose of this section of the literature review is threefold. First, the researcher will examine the goals of *Reading First* and how they specifically relate to the struggling

reader. Next, the researcher will examine the role that *Reading First* plays in the support and interventions struggling readers receive. Finally, this section will examine the controversy that presently plagues *Reading First*.

Goals and Purposes of Reading First

The *No Child Left Behind Act* (NCLB) focused reading instruction on findings compiled by the National Reading Panel. In 1997 the National Reading Panel was charged by Congress to, “Convene a national panel to assess the status of research-based knowledge, including the effectiveness of various approaches to teaching children to read” (National Reading Panel, 2000). Under the umbrella of *NCLB*, there are many state and federal initiatives that focus on improving reading for young students. According to the OPPAGA Report (Office of Program Policy Analysis and Government Accountability, 2006), these programs, “stress the importance of identifying struggling learners, providing intensive remediation, and ensuring that low performing students do not fall further behind” (p. 3).

In 2002 the U.S. Department of Education implemented the largest and most focused early reading initiative ever undertaken in the United States, *Reading First*. The purpose of *Reading First* was, “to ensure that all children in America learn to read well by the end of third grade (Guidance for the Reading First Program, 2002). In 2002 Florida began receiving *Reading First* grant funds. That year the state received approximately 43 million dollars. During 2003 and 2004 the state received an additional 100 million. *Reading First* has five purposes, which are described in Title 1, Part B, section 1201 of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA).

These include:

1. To provide assistance to State educational agencies (SEAs) and Local educational agencies (LEAs) in establishing reading programs for students in kindergarten through grade 3 that are based on scientifically based reading research (SBRR), to ensure that every student can read at grade level or above not later than the end of grade 3.
2. To provide assistance to SEAs and LEAs in preparing teachers, including special education teachers, through professional development and other support, so that teachers can identify specific reading barriers facing their students and so the teachers have the tools to effectively help their students to learn to read.
3. To provide assistance to SEAs and LEAs in selecting or administering screening, diagnostic, and classroom based instructional reading assessments.
4. To provide assistance to SEAs and LEAs in selecting or developing effective instructional materials (including classroom based materials to assist teachers in implementing the essential components of reading instruction), programs, learning systems, and strategies to implement methods that have been proven to prevent or remediate reading failure within a state.
5. To strengthen coordination among schools, early literacy programs, and family literacy programs to improve reading achievement for all children. (p. 4 The Reading First Program's Grant Application Process, Final Inspection Report, 2006).

The Role of Reading First in the Teaching of Reading

The *Reading First* initiative provides states, districts, and schools with funding to implement scientifically based reading instruction (SBRR) in grades K-3. States must apply to the Department of Education for funding, which comes in the form of large formula grants to State Education Agencies (SEAs) that submit approved applications. Although the funds are only used with K-3 students, they are distributed based on a formula that calculates the number of children age 5 to 17 living below the poverty line in that state. From the SEA, the funding is distributed to the Local Education Agencies (LEAs) who can apply for competitive sub-grants. All 50 states, the District of Columbia, and several U.S. territories participate in *Reading First* grants.

The key to this funding is that it must be used to purchase programs that are based on scientifically based reading research (SBRR). Scientifically based reading research (SBRR) is defined by *Reading First* as research that, “uses rigorous, systematic, and objective procedures to obtain knowledge about reading development, reading instruction, and reading difficulties”. This type of reading research involves controlled experiments with data analysis and a thorough peer-review process (www.Readingfirstsupport.us.org). The National Reading Panel (2000) used the following guidelines to determine what research was considered scientifically based reading research (SBRR). First, the research had to address achievement in one or more skills in reading. Next, the findings had to be able to be generalized to the larger population of students. Third, the research had to examine the effectiveness of an approach by comparing it to other types of instruction. Finally, the research had to be published or scheduled for publication in a

refereed (peer reviewed) journal (Report of the National Reading Panel, 2000; www. Readingfirstsupport.us.org). The phrase, “scientifically based reading research” is an important part of *Reading First*. In fact, the phrase appears more than 100 times in the NCLB 2001 law (Grunwald, 2006).

Under *Reading First*, in order for early literacy instruction to be effective, reading programs must provide explicit and systematic instruction in the following five key areas of reading: phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. According to *Reading First*, states and districts are allowed to select their own textbooks and programs as long as they are backed by sound science.

Controversy Surrounding Reading First

Presently a great deal of controversy surrounds *Reading First*. Immediately following the release of The Report of the National Reading Panel Teaching Children to Read (2000), questions about the research surrounding the report began to surface primarily amongst educators (Allington, 2002; Cunningham, 2001; Krashen, 2001; Krashen, 2005). During the past several years, questions and concerns with *Reading First* have escalated, and a myriad of critics of *Reading First* have emerged. Since 2002, *Education Week* has reported concerns amongst researchers and educators. Numerous articles and editorials have been published that are centered around *Reading First*.

In recent years these articles and editorials have multiplied and are no longer restricted to educational journals and books. The controversy surrounding *Reading First* can now be found in a variety of journals, newspapers, books, and on the Internet. An example of this is a recent report in *The Washington Post*, “Billions for an Inside Game on Reading” (Grunwald, 2006), which attacks scientifically based reading research.

Grunwald purports, “*Reading First* had little to do with science or rigor. Instead, the billions have gone to what is effectively a pilot project for untested programs with friends in high places (p.1)”. Grunwald is referring to the allegations that there were ulterior motives behind the reading programs that were approved under *Reading First*.

Allegations such as those by Grunwald correspond with the inspector general’s findings. In 2006 a long awaited Final Inspection Report on the *Reading First* grant application process was published by The U.S. Department of Education. The executive summary of the report (The Reading First Program’s Grant Application Process Final Inspection Report, 2006), concludes that the Panel’s method of screening panel members for possible conflict of interest issues was not effective. In fact, the report uncovered six panelists (serving on the National Reading Panel) whose resumes revealed, “Significant professional connections to a teaching methodology that requires the use of a specific reading program” (p.1). Additionally, the findings state that the department did not follow its own guidance for the peer review process, with some states applications funded without documentation that they met all of the criteria for approval. Further, the findings state because, “Criteria developed by the department included language that was not based on the statutory language, state applications were forced to meet standards that were not required by the statute” (p.1). Ultimately the findings reveal that federal officials may have overstepped provisions of the NCLB act thus “the program officials failed to maintain a control environment that exemplifies management integrity and accountability” (p.2).

Under *Reading First* a majority of funds have gone to support traditional textbook publishers such as Scott Foresman, Macmillan, McGraw-Hill, Harcourt, Houghton

Mifflin, and Open Court. To meet the needs of struggling readers under *Reading First*, many schools have adopted supplemental materials, including *Voyager Passport*. *Voyager Passport* is one of the companies that experienced tremendous success under *Reading First*. The company that produces *Voyager* was estimated to be worth \$5 million before *Reading First*. Recently the company sold for \$380 million dollars (Grunwald, 2006). In June 2005 Reid Lyon, who was chief of the child development and behavior branch of the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development began working for Randy Best, the entrepreneur who founded *Voyager* (Manzo, 2006).

Grade Retention

Ironically, although the goal of *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB) is for every child to read on grade level by the end of third grade, *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB) has left countless struggling students behind as retained students. Grade retention, the act of having a child repeat a grade, is also referred to as flunking, non-promotion, and being held back (Jimerson & Kaufman, 2003). In addition to low achievement, retained students frequently have the following characteristics in common: low parental IQ, lack of parental involvement (Jimerson, Carlson, Rotert, Egeland, & Sroufe, 1997), typically boys and often minorities. In addition, retained students are likely to have missed a greater percentage of school days than their peers who have been promoted (Jimerson et al., 1997; Jimerson & Kaufman, 2003). When examining race, the children most likely to be retained are African-American or Hispanic children (Rafoth, 2002).

The purpose of this section of the literature review is to uncover research findings on grade retention as an intervention to assist the struggling reader. In an effort to question why retention is still being used as a strategy to assist the struggling reader, the

researcher examined the findings of three meta-analyses examining the effectiveness of grade retention as an intervention.

The first systematic, comprehensive overview on grade retention was provided by Jackson (1975) and included 30 studies conducted between 1911 and 1973. Jackson's goal in conducting the review was to determine whether low-achieving students or those with socio-emotional maladjustment benefited more from grade retention or promotion to the next grade (Jackson, 1975; Jimerson, 2001). Jackson included students of all ages in his review and used design type as a way to categorize studies into three groups: naturalistic (retained compared to promoted), pre-post (retained performance before retention compared to performance after retention), and experimental (potential retainees randomly assigned to be retained or promoted).

Although Jackson (1975) concluded that, "There is no reliable body of evidence to indicate that grade retention is more beneficial than grade promotion for students with serious academic or adjustment difficulties" (p. 627), he cautioned researchers against concluding that promotion is better than retention. Rather, the results of his review of research showed that, "research evidence is so poor that valid inferences cannot be drawn concerning the relative benefits of these two options" (p. 627). Additionally, Jackson recommended that more research was needed, but cautioned that the research would take years to complete.

Following Jackson's systematic review other researchers began to examine the vast amount of research on the subject of grade retention. McAfee (1981) supported Jackson's conclusion regarding the quality of retention research and purported that in order for researchers to determine whether or not retention was beneficial, it was

necessary to conduct research with experimental designs. However, he went on to state, “Unfortunately, it seems that most school districts will be unwilling to adopt such a strategy because of the political ramifications” (p. 22). After examining eight matched studies where retained students were matched to promoted students on the basis of achievement test scores Holmes (1983) concluded that although the purpose of retention is for retained students to catch up, research does not support this practice. Holmes (1983) further suggested, “Retained pupils fall behind the year they are retained and spend the rest of their academic careers in vain trying to catch up” (p.4).

Table 3

Meta-analyses of Retention Research

Researcher	Years	# Studies	Criteria	Method	Participants	Ages
Holmes & Mathews	1929-1981	44	original research promotion vs. retention	effect size	11, 132	elem / jr. high
Holmes	1989	63	original research comparison group	effect size	n/a	kinder/elem/ jr high
Jimerson	1990-1999	20	original research comparison group	effect size	2, 806	K-high school

A total of three meta-analyses containing 700 analyses of achievement, from more than eighty studies published from between 1925 and 2006 fail to support the use of grade retention as an early intervention to enhance academic achievement (Jimerson & Kaufman, 2003; Jimerson, 2001; Holmes, 1989; Silbergliitt, Appleton, Burns & Jimerson, 2006). The results are indicated in Table 3.

A meta-analysis was conducted by Holmes and Matthews (1984) to determine the effects of retention on elementary and junior high school students using both achievement and socio-emotional outcomes. The meta-analysis included 44 studies published between 1929 and 1981. After calculating 575 individual effect sizes, the mean effect size was (-.37), meaning that on average the retained group scored (.37) units lower on the outcome measures than the promoted group. Outcomes included: academic achievement, language arts, reading, mathematics, word study skills, social studies, personal adjustment, social adjustment, emotional adjustment, behavior, self-concept, attitude toward school and attendance (Holmes and Matthews, 1984). Holmes and Matthews (1984) concluded that, "Educational professionals who continue to retain students do so despite cumulative evidence demonstrating that the potential for negative effects consistently outweighs positive outcomes" (p. 232). These results confirmed the findings of Jackson (1975).

A second meta-analysis was conducted by Holmes (1989). Findings gleaned from this meta-analysis once again indicated that after examining 63 studies from between 1925 and 1989, the results showed the overall negative effects associated with grade retention. Although findings from 9 studies yielded positive results, the benefits of

retention diminished over time (as cited in Jimerson, 2001, p.422). The results of this meta-analysis offer further support for both Jackson (1975) and Holmes and Matthews (1984) meta analyses.

Jimerson (2001) provided a systematic review as well as a meta-analysis of research from 1990-1999. The studies included in his review utilized a combination of IQ, academic achievement, socio-emotional adjustment, SES, and gender to match groups of control analyses between the comparison group and the retained students (Jimerson, 2001). Supporting previous findings, Jimerson's meta-analysis contains similar results to findings reported over the preceding 90 years (Holmes, 1989; Holmes & Matthews, 1984; and Jackson, 1975). Specifically, analyses which focused on the repeated year produced a mean effect size of (.09) in favoring the retained students. However, longitudinal results demonstrate a mean effect size of (-.31), meaning initial gains from repeating a grade often disappear over time. Only four of the 20 studies examined exploring the efficacy of grade retention, support the use of retention. The other 16 studies failed to support retention. Jimerson (2001) contends, "Researchers, educators, administrators, and legislators should commit to implement and investigate specific remedial intervention strategies designed to facilitate socio-emotional adjustment and educational achievement of our nation's youth" (p. 435).

Thus, "findings from the past decade reports results that are consistent with the converging evidence and conclusions of research from earlier in the century that fail to demonstrate that grade retention provides greater benefits to students with academic or adjustment difficulties than does promotion to the next grade" (p. 434).

Findings from the three meta-analyses fail to demonstrate that retention provides greater benefits to struggling students, than promotion to the next grade. Furthermore, results show that grade retention actually can be detrimental to a child's future. Shephard and Smith (1990) conducted a synthesis of research on grade retention and concluded that although retained students may appear to do better in the initial year following the retention, "they are at much greater risk for future failure than their equally achieving, non-retained peers" (p. 84). Grade retention has even been identified as the single most powerful predictor of dropping out of high school (Jimerson & Kaufman, 2003; Parker, 2001; Rumberger, 1987). Approximately 60 percent of students retained once drop out of high school by Grade 12. Even more disturbing, students who are retained twice have a 90 percent chance of dropping out before high school (Mann, 1987; Parker, 2001). In addition, grade retention has been linked to other long term, negative outcomes including fewer employment opportunities, substance abuse, arrests, more behavior problems, higher level of emotional distress, and reckless behavior (Jimerson & Kaufman, 2003). According to Darling-Hammond (1998),

"Students who are retained essentially do worse in the long run than comparable students who are promoted, in part perhaps because they do not receive better or more suitable teaching when they are retained, and in part because they give up on themselves as learners" (p. 18).

A longitudinal study (Ferguson, Jimerson, Dalton, 2001) followed 106 kindergartners through 11th grade examining the effects of family characteristics, school readiness, socialization, and student demographics on academic achievement and behavioral adjustment outcomes. Students were classified into one of four categories:

students retained in kindergarten, students retained in first or second grade either through a transitional program or by traditional early grade retention, students recommended for a transitional class who were promoted, and students who were promoted on schedule. The study examined within group factors. Dependent variables were represented by specific academic and behavioral outcomes. Independent variables were socioeconomic status, mother's level of education, parental value of education, age and kindergarten personal social functioning. The researchers employed descriptive statistics, multiple regression, Analysis of Variance, and Chi Square statistical analyses.

The participants consisted of students who were retained as well as those who were recommended for retention, yet were promoted. Results indicated that students, who were recommended for retention, yet were promoted and experienced academic success had certain factors in common. These included: mother's who graduated from college, only minimal delays on the Gessell "Developmental Delay" index, no kindergarten personal-social functioning deficits, strong scores on standardized tests and participation in a ninth grade sport. Students who were retained and did not experience success after retention also had certain characteristics in common. Of the retained students, results showed that older students who had demonstrated early personal-social deficits were especially disadvantaged by retention as were retained students whose mothers had a low level of education, lower socioeconomic status, or low parental view of education.

Although these findings are noteworthy, there are possible limitations to the study. The small sample size may make it difficult to generalize the findings to a larger population. Another possible limitation relates to the number of independent variables, representing a specific level of contextual analysis.

Further evidence of the negative effects of grade retention comes from a longitudinal study examining the effects of grade retention on student reading performance (Silberglitt et al., 2006). The study found that retained students did not experience a benefit to being retained. Further results showed that when retained students were compared to similar performing peers that were not retained, the researchers found no difference in slopes, thus showing the treatment had no effect. Additionally, when the retained students were compared to a randomly selected group of students, they made less progress. Strengths of the study included a large sample size and data collection that was extensive and lasted for years. However, upon closer examination of the data, 92% of the population used in the study was Caucasian. This makes it difficult to generalize these findings to a broader population because the children most likely to be retained are African American and Hispanic students (Rafoth, 2002). A summary of grade retention research can be found in Table 4.

Table 4

Summary of Grade Retention Research

Researcher/Year	Goal	Size	Design	Findings
Jackson, 1975	Determine benefits to retention.	Review of 44 studies	n/a	Retention not beneficial.
Peterson, Gracie, Ayebe, 1987	Determine the long term effect of retention/promotion on academic achievement.	106 first, second and third graders	Matched comparison groups	Students performed better the year following the retention, lose it in the second or third year.
Roderick, 1994	Explore influence retention has on grad.	707 drop outs and graduates	Event History Analysis	Retention increases odds of dropping out increase
Jimerson, 1999	A 21 year examination of the long term effects of retention.	21 years	Longitudinal	Retained students more likely to drop out than promoted peers who are performing equally.
Jimerson, Anderson & Whipple, 2002	Examine retention as a predictor of drop out status.	17 studies	Systematic Comprehensive Review of Research	Retention associated with subsequent school withdrawal.
Ferguson, Jimerson & Dalton, 2001	Explored factors associated with longitudinal and academic behavioral outcomes	107 Kindergarten-Eleventh Grade	Prospective Longitudinal	Lower SES, lower level of mother's ed, lower parental value of ed., inter. skills, students' age all risk factors.
Silbergliitt, Appleton, Burns & Jimerson, 2006	Used HLM to compare retained students to promoted students.	147 First-Eighth Grades	Longitudinal	Retained students did not experience a benefit or deficit in their reading growth.

After thoroughly examining the bulk of research on the issue of grade retention, (Darling-Hammond 1998; Holmes 1989; Jimerson 2001; Jimerson & Kaufman 2003; Parker 2001) it is evident that it is more beneficial to focus on instructional strategies to assist the education of children at risk of academic failure, rather than to retain them (Jimerson, 2001; Jimerson & Kaufman, 2003). Despite these conclusions, retention is not only being used today but has become an important piece of *The No Child Left Behind* legislation.

Under NCLB, one of the interventions offered to retained third-grade students is summer school. Retained third-graders have the opportunity to attend free reading summer school for six weeks. At the end of the six weeks the students are given an alternative reading assessment. Students who successfully master the alternative assessment are then placed in fourth grade as a “good cause” exemption.

Summer School

Under No Child Left Behind legislation summer school has taken an important role as a strategy to assist the struggling reader. In the state of Florida reading summer school is provided at no cost to second and third grade students who do not achieve mastery on standardized tests.

The purpose of this section of the literature review is to examine the research on summer school and to specifically examine summer school as an intervention for struggling readers. Summer programs to remediate learning deficits can be grouped into four categories: summer programs to help students meet minimum competency for graduation or grade promotion, summer school as an opportunity to retake a course,

summer school as a way to provide a program beyond the school year for children with disabilities, and summer school as a way to prevent summer learning loss (Cooper, Nye, Charlton, Lindsay, and Greathouse, 1996).

Many researchers have documented the summer reading slide (Cooper et al., 1996). The analogy of a faucet is used by Entwisle, Alexander and Olson (1997) to describe the summer reading slide and the effect it has on students from different socioeconomic backgrounds. When school is in session, all of the students receive equal resources. However, during the summer, the faucet is turned off. During this “drought” students from poor families do not receive the same resources that the school provides during the school year. Parents of higher SES status, however, provide extra resources such as vacations, summer camp and trips to the library for their children. Thus the faucet theory suggests that this lack of resources for the child of lower SES status could lead to inequality when his performance is compared to that of his peers.

After reviewing 39 studies Cooper et al., 1996 concluded that achievement test scores declined over summer vacation. Key findings from an additional part of the review involved a meta-analysis of 13 of the studies showing that summer loss for a typical student was equal to about one month’s worth of knowledge in math and reading. Further findings revealed that summer break was more detrimental on math and spelling progress than on reading. Offering support for the “faucet theory”, research shows that the summer slide is particularly harmful to students from low socio-economic status (Cooper et al., 1996; Heyns, 1978). Downey, von Hippel, and Broh (2004) concluded that there was a correlation between SES and summer reading loss. Specifically, Downey et al., (2004) estimated that the reading level of a student with a family income of \$40,000 fell 2.5

months behind a student with a family income of \$100,000. This offers additional support for Heyns' 1978 findings which showed that not only is there an achievement gap for students as a result of summer school, but this gap tends to be greater among the "have-nots" than among the "haves" (Borman & Boulay, 2004). In today's era of accountability, summer school is presently being used as a "core programmatic component" of the high stakes testing initiative (Borman, 2000).

Although summer school is currently being used as an intervention with struggling students, much of the research on summer school is non-experimental. During the early 1970's researchers found that summer programs in math, reading and language-communication showed modest achievement gains as well as having a positive effect on students' attitude about school and learning (Austin, Rogers, & Walbesser, 1972). Results of a large-scale national study on summer learning, The Sustaining Effects Study (SES), found that although there were reading gains over the summer there may have been math losses. Results from data from over 120,000 students revealed that, overall in comparing the achievement gains of students who attended summer school with those who did not attend, no differences were found (Carter, 1984).

The Teach Baltimore program began in 1992 and has provided summer instruction to more than 2,100 Baltimore City public school students, as well as recruiting 287 college students from a variety of majors. The mission of Teach Baltimore is, "To create high-quality summer learning opportunities for students from high poverty communities and to improve teacher recruitment and retention in Baltimore City" (Borman & Dowling, 2006, p. 3). A longitudinal study examined the effects of a

multiyear summer school program in preventing summer reading loss and promoting longitudinal achievement growth (Borman & Dowling, 2006).

The purpose of this voluntary summer school was to avert the summer achievement slide and have a positive impact on students' learning. Participants included 438 students from high poverty schools. The goal of the research was threefold. First, the researchers wanted to study the effectiveness of The Teach Baltimore Summer Academy on summer learning loss. Next, the researchers wanted to transform collegiate volunteerism into a focused and effective commitment. Finally, the researchers hoped to create a successful prototype that could be replicated. Class size was limited to eight students. Summer school lasted for seven weeks and included breakfast, 3 hours of intensive reading and writing, lunch, physical activity, hands on math and science projects, arts and crafts, and enrichment activities. Additionally, the students attended weekly field trips to museums and cultural events. The volunteers attended an extensive training as well as working closely with a mentor teacher. The method involved contrasting longitudinal outcomes for the participants with 248 children in the control group.

Findings from the longitudinal study showed that although summer school can improve the achievement of at risk students, encouraging and sustaining students' long term participation was a challenge. According to the researchers, approximately 50 percent of the students assigned to the program attended with enough regularity to make a difference. Students who attended at least two of the three years had achievement scores at least one standard deviation higher than those similar peers in the control group.

A meta-analysis by Cooper, Charlton, Valentine, and Muhlenbruck (2000) examined the findings of 93 studies of summer school. The researchers used quantitative synthesis to analyze the findings. Results showed the average effect size for remedial summer school programs equal to approximately one-fifth of a standard deviation ($d=0.19$). Findings from the meta-analysis showed that among students attending summer school, those children who were middle class benefited more than those who were disadvantaged. Additionally, researchers found the following characteristics of summer school programs to be related to achievement: small group/individualized instruction, early intervention, parent involvement, and treatment fidelity. In contrast to these characteristics, Austin et al., (1972) found the following characteristics many ineffective summer school programs have in common: short duration, limited academic focus, and low academic expectations.

Summer Bridge is a summer school program in Chicago for third, sixth and eighth graders not meeting minimum score requirements on the Iowa test of Basic Skills (ITBS), and in danger of being retained. Unlike Teach Baltimore, attendance in Summer Bridge is required. A study using multiple methods examined how low performing students attending summer school perceived their summer learning environments (Stone, Engel, Nagaoka, & Roderick, 2005). Although this study only examined data from 1999, the program, has been in place since 1997. It consists of six weeks of instruction for three hours a day for third and sixth graders. Eighth graders attend class for four hours a day over seven weeks. Similar to Teach Baltimore, key characteristics of the Summer Bridge program are low class size and a remedially focused and highly structured curriculum. At Summer Bridge, students receive a great deal of personal attention, with the average class

size at only 16 students, as compared to 30 students during the regular school year. Additionally, students receive even more support from tutors and aides. However, students and teachers at Summer Bridge know that the students must pass the test given at the end of summer school in order to avoid retention.

The study explored three questions:

- (1) How do students describe academic press and personalism in Summer Bridge?
- (2) To what extent do these descriptions differ from those of the school year?
- (3) How do these perceptions vary by student demographic and performance characteristics? (p. 938)

Results of the quantitative portion of the study (Stone et al., 2005) showed that on average, between 1997 and 2000, third graders gained about (.20) grade equivalents in reading, sixth graders gained (.40) and eighth graders gained (.80). Additional support was gathered both from surveys of students who had attended Summer Bridge in 1999 and semi-structured interviews with students who attended Summer Bridge that same year. Results from the qualitative portion of the study showed that 52 percent of the students had a positive experience overall. These students touched on four themes: teachers covered more content and made the content easier to understand; teachers paced instruction and made sure the students understood; one-on-one time with the teacher was available; and skills were improving. An additional 35 percent of the students had a neutral experience, and the final 13 percent had a negative experience.

Also, the researchers combined the quantitative data with the qualitative data to conclude that, "Over half of the 48 students in the qualitative sample characterized their experiences as more positive in the summer than in the school year" (p. 952). However,

it is difficult to generalize the findings of the surveys to a larger population since the samples under represent African American students. The researchers state that this was because African American students were less likely to complete surveys. Additionally, it is difficult to judge the effectiveness of Summer Bridge, since data on how many students met promotion requirements following Summer Bridge is not presented. Rather, the researchers only offer data on students with whom they conducted the interviews, of those 48 students, 21 were promoted.

Using a different approach to literacy instruction with summer school students, than that of Teach Baltimore or Summer Bridge, Duffy (2001), examined the effects of a balanced, accelerated, and responsive literacy program on the reading growth of elementary school struggling readers by looking at 10 second-grade children enrolled in an elementary summer school program. Duffy (2001) asserts that the purpose of the research was, “To address the significant real world teaching problem of accelerating the reading growth of elementary school struggling readers” (p. 68). The study was conducted as a formative experiment with a mixture of quantitative and qualitative methods used. Duffy took on the role of the teacher and the researcher, and modified the program based on her students’ needs and progress. During the summer program, which lasted 30 days, Duffy used a variety of reading materials. There were 21 instructional days in the program and students attended summer school from 9:00 a.m. to 12:00 p.m. Monday through Friday. Students received two and a half hours of instructional time each day, during which time students received instruction in whole group reading and word sorting, individual reading and writing, book talks and read alouds, and small group instructional level support reading.

Results from analyzing the six categories that emerged from the content analysis revealed that students demonstrated growth in six areas of reading, as well as perceptions, positive attitudes toward reading, and increased instructional levels. The six areas where students showed growth were: word identification abilities, fluency, reading comprehension, self-perceptions, attitude towards reading and instructional reading level.

Like Summer Bridge, these results support the use of summer school as an alternative to retention for the struggling reader. Results from the study showed that on average, students increased their reading levels on QRI passages and running records an average of 1.3 years in just 30 days. Additionally, through interviews these results support summer school as having a positive impact on students' attitudes toward reading.

However, on a cautionary note, other factors may have contributed to the success of the students. Teacher expertise may have been a factor in the results because the researcher, who also was a college professor, was the summer school teacher.

Duffy concludes her article by offering support for a balanced approach to teaching, as opposed to one that relies on a commercial reading program, like that used in Summer Bridge. Duffy purports:

“Rather than purchasing fixed, commercial reading programs and training teachers to use these programs, perhaps a better investment of school district's time and resources would be help teachers understand how principles of balance, acceleration, and responsive teaching can be utilized in multiple, purposeful ways in classrooms with struggling readers” (p.92). Table 5 offers a summary of summer school research.

Table 5

Summer School Research

Researcher/Year	Variables Studied	Sample Size/Ages	Design	Findings
Austin, Rogers & Walbesser, 1972	Review of research from Title 1/ESEA	n/a	Review of findings	Summer program showed gains in math and reading/did not persist over time.
Heynes, 1978	Summer achievement	42 Atlanta Schools Grades: 4,5,6,7	Longitudinal	Achievement gaps increase during summer.
Carter, 1984	Compensatory education	120,000 students from 300 schools over 3 years	5 separate studies	No difference in performance of kids who attended summer school.
Cooper, Nye, Charlton, Lindsay & Greathouse, 1996	Summer vacations effect on achievement scores	n/a	Narrative and Meta-Analytic Review	Scores decline over summer/math and spelling effected most.
Cooper, Charlton, Valentine and Muhlenbruck, 2000	Benefits of SS	93 studies	Narrative and Meta-Analytic Review	Middle class students benefited more from SS than disadvantaged.
Duffy, 2001	Balanced Literacy in SS	Second Grade (10 stud.)	Multiple Methods	QRI increased 1.3 yrs.
Stone, Engel, Nagaoka & Roderick, 2005	Perceptions of summer learning environments	Grades: 3, 6 and 8	Multiple Methods	More than half students felt SS more positive than school year.
Borman & Dowling, 2006	Multiyear SS and effects on summer slide	686 students high poverty schools	Longitudinal HLM	Describes effects of “summer slide”.

However, fixed, commercial “scripted” reading programs are exactly what many states are requiring in summer school. In the state of Florida, students attending summer school must receive intensive reading instruction for a minimum of two hours per day using a research-based intervention program. In the targeted district the research-based intervention program used is *Voyager Passport*, a scripted literacy program.

Scripted Literacy Programs

The purpose of this section of the literature review is to examine scripted literacy programs. First, the researcher will provide an overview of direct instruction and scripted literacy. Next, the author will present research on DISTAR, the father of scripted literacy. Finally, the author will present research on *Voyager Universal Literacy Systems*, the form of scripted reading that will be used during the present study.

Direct Instruction stresses basic skills and breaks them down into mini-components. Additionally, Direct Instruction follows a Bottom-Up approach to literacy instruction with children learning the sounds of the letters before letters and words. The curriculum is fast paced with highly structured and scripted reading lessons. The stimulus response interaction between the teacher and students is extremely important and requires that teachers ask 200-300 questions each day. The lessons are scripted, making each sequence predictable with little variation. The Direct Instruction Model is defined by Meyer et al., (1983) as having the following components:

- a) a consistent focus on academic objectives; (b) high allocations of time to small group instruction in reading, language, and math; (c) the tight, carefully sequenced DISTAR curriculum , which includes a task analysis of all skills and

cognitive operations and numerous opportunities for review and practice of recently learned skills; (d) ongoing inservice and preservice training that offers concrete, “hands-on” solutions to problems arising in the classroom; and (e) a comprehensive system for monitoring both the rate at which students progress through the curriculum and their mastery of the material covered” (p. 243).

Although states and districts make choices about reading instruction, under NCLB, the programs and materials must be based on scientifically based reading instruction which is defined as rigorous, systematic, and objective procedures to obtain knowledge about reading development, reading instruction, and reading difficulties. Materials that are considered scientifically based reading research consist of curriculum that includes instruction in the five areas of reading: Phonemic Awareness, Phonics, Vocabulary, Fluency, and Comprehension. Scripted literacy is defined as reading programs characterized by very explicit teacher’s manuals with instructions for teachers to follow verbatim when using the program with their students (Moustafa & Land, 2005). In a “scripted” classroom, all activities are to be followed in the order presented, and the teacher’s instructions are to be read word-for-word from the manual (Meyer, 2002).

Scripted literacy programs can be traced back to the late 60’s to Siegfried Engelmann and Wesley Becker. Project Follow Through began in 1967 and continued until the summer of 1995. Head Start began in the summer of 1965. The purpose of Project Follow Through was to “follow through” on Head Start and help children from kindergarten through third grade continue the progress they had made in breaking the cycle of poverty through better education. Although Project Follow Through was initially conceived as a comprehensive social services program, before the program got underway

budget cuts forced a re-conceptualization. Thus, Project Follow Through was converted to a longitudinal experiment aimed at finding effective methods for teaching disadvantaged children. Project Follow Through involved 120 communities and 10,000 children each year from 1968 to 1976. It continued as a service program until funding was eliminated in 1995. One of the models developed and implemented under Project Follow Through was the Direct Instruction System for Teaching Arithmetic and Reading (DISTAR or Direct Instruction).

DISTAR has been found to be successful when working with disadvantaged students (Kuder, 1990; Meyer et al., 1983). Sexton (2001) compared DISTAR (Engelmann, Haddox & Bruner, 1984) to a basal reading program as a way to increase language ability and reading comprehension. Participants included 40 first grade students who were all African American. The effectiveness of the program was measured by the Slosson Intelligence Test. Results of the study revealed that students using DISTAR earned a score on the Slosson Intelligence Test that was 9 points higher than the average of the basal group. Additionally, the researchers concluded that the DISTAR program was equally effective with students of low language ability as those with high language ability. On a cautionary note, it is difficult to generalize the findings of the study to other populations since all of the participants were African American. Finally, although the research study was attempting to measure the effectiveness of DISTAR, the tool used to measure growth was actually an intelligence test. It may have been more effective to use an assessment tool that measured language ability and reading comprehension.

A similar study by Kuder (2001) compared the effectiveness of DISTAR to a basal reading series when working with children with learning disabilities. Once again

the researchers compared the effectiveness of DISTAR to a basal reading program. The participants were 48 students identified as learning disabled representing 3 urban schools. The children were in two different classes. One class was taught using DISTAR, while the other class used a basal to teach reading. Like the Sexton study, this study compared the results of the experimental group to those of the control group. After seven months of training, the results from the study showed that in reading subtests the DISTAR group performed better on word comprehension and word attack, while the basal group scored better on letter identification. However, the researchers reported that there were no statistically significant differences between the two groups.

During the present study, students attending summer school received instruction using *Voyager Passport*. It shares many characteristics with scripted literacy programs. *Voyager Universal Literacy System* began as an after school tutoring program aimed at struggling readers. *Voyager* has experienced great success under No Child Left Behind. In fact, the company went from being worth 5 million before Reading First to a net worth of over 350 million dollars in 2005.

Voyager Universal Literacy Systems is the umbrella under which *Voyager Passport* comes under. Although there have been some studies conducted that examine *Voyager Universal Literacy Systems* (Frechtling, Zhang & Silverstein, 2006; Roberts & Alan, 2003; Hect & Torgesen, 2002), little research has been done yet using *Voyager Passport*. However, many schools are using *Voyager Passport* as a reading intervention with struggling readers. These interventions take place in small groups during the school year, as well as with students attending summer school. *Voyager Passport* is an approved

supplemental reading program under *Reading First* and falls under the category of scripted literacy programs.

Voyager Passport is described under Reading First as a K-3 reading intervention that is grounded in scientifically based reading research. In an effort to get students on grade level in reading, the goal of *Voyager Passport* is to accelerate students' reading. *Voyager Passport* lessons are designed to be taught explicitly at a quick pace in a small group setting. *Voyager Passport* lessons last between 30-45 minutes. Instruction using *Voyager Passport* is designed to be delivered five days a week. During a *Voyager* lesson every minute of instructional time is structured. All of the lessons in each reading component provide explicit instruction on every step of the reading process, with teacher modeling followed by multiple practice opportunities. Third grade lessons consist of instruction in two modules. The first module focuses on comprehension and vocabulary, while the second module focuses on fluency.

An additional component of *Voyager Passport* is ongoing progress monitoring. Progress monitoring is defined as, "a process of evaluating individual student reading progress between benchmark periods in order to make instructional decisions. *Voyager* uses both choral and individual student responses in an attempt to add extensive practice for all students. According to the publisher, "*Voyager Passport* provides a complete reading intervention program to give struggling readers the tools they need to read on grade level" (Voyager Expanded Learning, 2004). For a detailed summary of a typical daily lesson refer to Appendix C.

Voyager assesses using Vital Indicators of Progress (VIP). VIP is an alternative form of Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS). DIBELS is defined

as a set of standardized individually administered measures of early literacy development. They are designed to be short (one minute) fluency measures used to regularly monitor the development of pre-reading and early reading skills (www.dibels.uoregon.edu).

DIBELS was largely unknown before Reading First, yet DIBELS is now the primary assessment tool promoted by the Department of Education under Reading First. DIBELS measures initial sounds fluency, phoneme segmentation fluency, nonsense words fluency, and oral reading fluency. Initial Sounds Fluency assesses a child's skill to identify and produce the initial sound of a given word. Phonemic Segmentation Fluency assesses a child's skill to produce the individual sounds within a given word. Nonsense Word Fluency assesses a child's knowledge of letter-sound correspondences as well their ability to blend letters together to form unfamiliar "nonsense" (e.g., fik, lig, etc.) words. Finally, Oral Reading Fluency assesses a child's skill of reading connected text in grade-level material. (http://dibels.uoregon.edu/dibels_what.php).

Ken Goodman describes himself as a practical theorist, researcher and teacher educator whose work has centered on literacy processes, how they are learned, and how best they can be taught. Goodman's socio-transactional theory of the reading process demonstrates that reading is a unitary process in which readers actively construct meaning, that is they make sense of print. Goodman has written a critical review of DIBELS (2006). According to Goodman (2006),

“The tests reveal that competent reading is the ability to read words rapidly, accurately, and that comprehension is the result of such rapid, accurate reading. They also believe that what happens in one minute of reading happens in all of reading. It's likely that they do not explicitly state their definition of reading

because they don't see any need to define reading since they have not considered that there could be any other definitions" (p.9).

An additional component of VIP is VPORT, an online data management system that allows teachers to analyze class data and compare student data against a trajectory of desired learning. In 2003 the Texas legislature mandated an appropriations bill to spend 12 million dollars on a single intervention program for struggling readers. All districts had to use the one program chosen by TEA (Texas Education Agency) or pay for their own (www.edu.cyberpg.com).

Although there are intervention studies underway, because *Voyager Passport* is a relatively new program that has only been in existence since 2003, the researcher was unable to find any research that was specific to the intervention. Furthermore, although there is research on *The Voyager Universal Literacy System*, much of the research is not longitudinal. The research which is provided by *Voyager* was conducted by researchers who were directly associated with *Voyager* (www.edu.cyberpg.com). Further, in many cases the key researchers in each of the studies are in some way connected with Reading First. The *Voyager* website provides four different categories of research: scientific research studies, independent impact studies, white papers and stories, quotes and testimonials. *Voyager* states that the scientific research studies were, "conducted by nationally renowned researchers using quasi-experimental and comparative designs" (www.voyager.com).

A study which lasted eleven weeks was conducted in 2002 and evaluated the effectiveness of *The Voyager Universal Literacy System*. The participants were 108 economically disadvantaged kindergartners (Hect & Torgesen, 2002). During the study,

58 students were given The *Voyager* program as a part of their school day. An additional 50 students made up the control group. These students were not given the *Voyager* curriculum. Student performance was measured by a number of tests that measured phonemic decoding ability, letter sound knowledge, print concepts, phonemic segmenting, and phonemic building systems (VIP). Pretests were given in February and posttests were given in April and May.

Results from the study showed that students receiving instruction in the *Voyager Universal Literacy System* made larger gains from pretest to posttest in all areas, except word identification and spelling letters, which stayed the same. On a cautionary note, when looking at the study participants the control classrooms had 10 more students that were limited English proficiency than the *Voyager* classrooms. Thus, the classrooms may not have been equally matched.

The findings of a second study (Roberts & Alan, 2003), used data from 865 first grade and kindergarten students from 13 schools in Virginia. The nine schools that used *Voyager* during the 2001-2002 school year were all described as low achieving and low-income schools. An additional four “high performing” schools used an alternative reading program. Performance was measured using Phonological Awareness Literacy Screening (PALS). Results from the study demonstrate that only 21% of kindergartners and 29% of first graders began the year on grade level. However, by year’s end 70 % of kindergartners and 68% of first graders were on grade level as measured by a Phonological Awareness Literacy Screening.

The researchers state, “There were no changes from fall to spring for children attending non-*Voyager* schools” Although the non-*Voyager* schools are described as

“high performing”, the results showed that 87% of the kindergarten and 79% of the first graders (in the non- *Voyager* schools) were on grade level at the end of the year.

However, because there is no equally matched comparison group, it is not clear why the scores of the “high performing” school’s students are included in the study, since they did not receive *Voyager* training. The researchers state that the high performing schools were included to demonstrate that the gap between kindergarten and first grade students attending high to average schools in the sample was narrowed significantly over the course of the 2001-2002 school year. The researchers also state, “Children attending *Voyager* classrooms made large gains that they would probably not have made if *Voyager* had not been part of their school experience”. On a cautionary note, one would expect students to progress during the school year no matter what reading program was used.

The study lists Greg Roberts, Ph.D. as the Program Evaluation Consultant. Since the report gave no background information on the author, a *Google* Search was conducted to locate more information. The findings were interesting, given the recent controversy with *Reading First*. The results indicate that Dr. Roberts is the principal investigator and director of the Special Education Strand of the Center on Instruction. Additionally, Roberts is connected with Reading First, as co-director of the Central Center for *Reading First* Technical Assistance (CCRFTAC). Furthermore, he has a Texas connection as director of dissemination for the Texas Center on Learning Disabilities. Considering the recent controversy surrounding Reading First, it may be a conflict of interest that Roberts was the supervisor of the *Voyager Universal Literacy System* research.

A third study, also examined *Voyager Universal Literacy Systems*. Like the previous study, this study also lists Dr. Roberts as the program evaluation consultant.

This study looked at the data of 16, 443 students enrolled at 291 schools across the U.S. Data were collected using the Vital Indicators of Progress system (VIP). VIP is defined in the study (Roberts, 2002) an alternative form of DIBELS that is, “a standardized, individually administered test of accuracy and fluency with connected text” (p. 6). Once again the researchers compared kindergarten students in *Voyager* classrooms to children in non-*Voyager* classrooms. The results of this study were also difficult to interpret; therefore it is difficult to form conclusions from the data given. Although the researchers are open and up front regarding concerns with internal validity and state that the scores were positively skewed at all three time points, the researchers still conclude that most of the first grade students achieved benchmark status and purport that questions related to sustainability of effects will be addresses in subsequent studies. The researchers state that at that time, student and school level data will be more accessible.

A final study (Frechtling et al., 2006) examined 398 kindergartners representing 4 *Voyager* schools and 4 comparison schools to determine the efficacy of *The Voyager Universal Literacy System*. Like the other studies this study focused on *Voyager Universal Literacy System* which is the umbrella that *Voyager Passport* comes under. There were three parts to the quasi-experimental study. The first part compared the performance of kindergartners in *Voyager Universal* schools to those in comparable non-participating schools. The second part of the research looked at how the level of implementation affected student achievement. The last part of the study looked at the effectiveness of the program with students from different backgrounds, gender, race, ethnicity, economic status, and English language skills.

When the researchers returned in the spring they conducted site visits at both the *Voyager Universal* schools and the comparison schools. During these visits they interviewed teachers and principals to gather data on the general classroom environment, the presence of other educational reforms in the schools, parental involvement, students' pre-kindergarten exposure to reading, and principals' assessments of the general strengths and weaknesses of the program. Researchers suggested that both the *Voyager Universal* and non-*Voyager* schools were comparable in all but one way. The researchers found that the teachers at the *Voyager Universal* schools were spending 90-120 minutes a day on reading, whereas the non-*Voyager* classrooms were spending less time on reading (60-90 minutes). However, the researchers note that all teachers seemed to be integrating reading in other subjects.

Results from the 8-month study revealed that in three out of the four schools examined, a significant difference was found in favor of the *Voyager Universal* students. The seven test instruments used to measure growth were DIBELS letter naming fluency, CTOPP Elision, CTOPP Blending Words, CTOPP Segmenting Words, Woodcock Word Identification, and Woodcock Word Attack. All of the students were assessed in the fall prior to the intervention using the above mentioned literacy assessments and no differences were found between the control or treatment groups.

Following the intervention, the researchers used a paired-sample t-test to analyze the results from pretest to posttest at the *Voyager Universal* schools. The results revealed effect sizes ranging from 1.51 (CTOPP Elision) to 8.3 (Woodcock Word Attack) in 7 test instruments at the $p < .01$ level. This can be interpreted as the *Voyager Universal* schools gaining from 1.51 to 8.3 standard deviations in one school year. Although these effect

sizes are large it is important to note that some of the gains may be explained by the natural developmental growth of the kindergartners, rather than just the program. When the *Voyager Universal* schools were compared to the comparison schools an independent sample t-test was used. The gains in the *Voyager Universal* schools were significant with an average effect size of 0.62. The researchers concluded that three out of the four *Voyager Universal* schools outperformed their comparison schools. Researchers stated that the *Voyager Universal* school that did not show a significant difference had inadequate implementation and that some teachers failed to use parts of the curriculum or substituted materials that were not part of the curriculum.

Researchers then developed an ANCOVA model to assess the effectiveness of the program. Using the model the dependent variable was the gain score for each student. The main independent variable was the *Voyager Universal* program. Control variables included gender, class size, teacher experience, and percentage of free and reduced lunch. Although the researchers looked at race, LEP, IEP, attendance rate, and student mobility rate, these variables were excluded from the model because of a lack of variability or missing data.

Researchers measured implementation effects by using the *Voyager Universal* Instructional Fidelity Checks, and making an ANCOVA model. This time the main independent variable was implementation score. This score was determined from the final implementation score from the *Voyager Universal* Fidelity Measure. They grouped the scores into three clusters, high (10-12), medium (7-9), and inadequate (0-6). Using implementation as an ordinal value, the researchers found that the level of

implementation had a positively significant effect ($p < .05$) on student achievement on all seven assessments.

On a cautionary note, when reviewing the available research on *Voyager*, it is of interest that much of the research on *Voyager Universal Literacy Systems* uses kindergarten and first grade students (Hecht & Torgesen, 2002; Roberts, 2002; Roberts & Allen, 2003), when students' reading development shows the most growth. The researcher was not able to locate any research studies using second or third grade students. However, there are 41 independent Impact Studies on the *Voyager* website which report the findings of individual schools and the results they had with *Voyager*. These studies, which appear in a summarized format, offer a brief one page report which highlights the findings. One of these independent impact studies is specific to the targeted county summer school students. According to an independent impact study on the targeted county completed in the summer of 2005, 263 third-graders attending summer school received the *Voyager Passport* intervention. After six weeks in the summer school program, 72 percent of the third-graders passed the SAT 9 and were promoted. The results are compared to the previous summer when only 27 percent of the students achieved proficiency on the assessment.

Table 6

Summary of Research on Voyager Universal Systems

Researchers	Variables Studied	Sample Size/Age	Design	Findings
Hect & Torgesen	Reading Performance	108 kindergartners	Pretest/Posttest	Treatment group on grade level after Voyager
Greg Roberts	Gains in Reading Fluency	16, 433 students	Longitudinal, Pretest	1 st graders gained 30 WPM
Roberts and Allen	Phonological Awareness	864 K-1 students	Pretest/Posttest/Control Group	70% K and 68% 1 st on grade level
WESTAT	Reading Achievement using Voyager	255 Kindergartners	Pretest/Posttest/Control Group	Voyager students showed greater gains than comparison group.
WESTAT Year2	Year 2 Voyager Intervention	Same students as prior year now 1 st graders	Pretest/Posttest/Control Group	Voyager students showed greater gains than comparison group.
Frechtling, Zhang & Silverstein	Reading Performance	398 kindergartners	Pretest/Posttest/Control Group	Voyager schools scored higher than comparison schools; Level of implementation contributed to gain in reading scores.

Although under Reading First, scripted literacy is being used as an intervention to assist the struggling reader, not everyone supports scripted literacy in the classroom.

Allington (2002) summarizes his view on scripted literacy with this statement, “A veritable trove of scientific research tells us that effective teaching is not standardized and cannot be scripted” (p.28). Allington agrees that the five pillars of scientific reading instruction set forth in the National Reading Panel Report (2001) are critical aspects of reading acquisition (phonological awareness, phonics, comprehension, fluency and vocabulary). However, Allington purports that there are an additional 5 pillars missing from the National Reading Panel Report. These include: access to interesting text and choice; matching kids with appropriate texts; writing and reading; classroom organization; balancing whole class teaching with small group and side-by-side instruction; and expert tutoring availability (<http://teachersread.net/pdf/FivePillars.pdf>).

There are alternative ways to provide supplemental tutoring to struggling readers in the classroom other than relying on the use of scripted programs. Taylor, Short, Shearer and Frye (1995) examined how first grade teachers could work with their lowest achieving readers to provide effective early reading intervention in the classroom. The goal of EIR (Early Intervention in Reading) was to accelerate the learning of the lowest readers by providing them with an additional 20 minutes of reading instruction by the classroom teacher. Teacher training consisted of half-day workshops at various times throughout the year. Using EIR, instruction was done in small groups utilizing books at the children’s reading level. Teachers implemented a variety of reading techniques with the assistance of a part time resource teacher. The role of the resource teacher was to provide feedback and suggestions to the classroom teacher as well as to assist with

dissemination of materials. Some of the reading techniques utilized during the lessons included read alouds, oral retellings, spelling using elkonin boxes, paired reading, choral reading, writing, and phonological awareness activities. The teacher provided scaffolded support during the lessons with the ultimate goal being to create independent readers.

The first year the program was implemented the researchers found that 72% of the students were on grade level by the end of second grade. The next year the program was implemented district wide in both first and second grade classrooms. Results revealed that 78% of the children were reading at least at a pre-primer level and 36% of the students were reading on grade level or better.

Reading Attitude

The purpose of this section of the literature review is to examine the many factors that contribute to the reading attitudes of struggling readers. Presently, under *Reading First*, many struggling readers are receiving scripted literacy as an intervention. McKenna's model states that the factors that contribute to reading attitude are not only complex, but are subject to change and influence one another as well as attitude (McKenna et al., 1995). McKenna (1994) postulates that based on his model one can predict that,

“Certain instructional approaches may produce more successful experiences contributing directly and cumulatively to attitude, and they may also lead to more positive beliefs about the outcomes of reading, contributing to attitude indirectly (p.939)

Reading attitude can be also be seen as one part of a broader construct, motivation to read (Sainsbury & Schagan, 2004). Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) describe five aspects

of motivation. These include: learning orientation (understanding the content of what is read), intrinsic orientation (enjoyment of reading/disposition to seek out activities, self-efficacy, and social motivation). Reading attitude, the continuum of positive or negative feelings toward reading, plays an important role on both the level of ability attained by a given student and through its influence on reading engagement and practice (McKenna et al., 1995; McKenna & Kear, 1990). Likewise, a poor reading attitude may contribute to aliteracy, a condition when fluent readers choose not to read when other options exist (McKenna et al., 1995).

The relationship between reading ability and attitude has been explored by several researchers (Askov & Fishback, 1973; Walberg & Tsai, 1985). Using multiple regression, reading achievement and attitude scores of a National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) were compared to home environment variables such as amount of television watched, presence of newspapers, spare time reading, dictionary use, kindergarten attendance, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, school characteristics, and other variables (Walberg & Tsai, 1985). Using a sample of 1,549 nine-year-old students the researchers found that variance in reading achievement and attitude could be accounted for by home environment, quality of instruction, and leisure-time television watching. Canonical correlation of reading achievement and attitude with the independent and control variables is .48, which is significant at the .001 level. This correlation is highly significant and shows that the relationship between the two sets is very likely not to have occurred by chance.

An international survey was conducted in England to determine if children's attitudes about reading had changed over the five year period between 1998 and 2003.

Results revealed that although students were performing well in relation to their peers in other countries, the attitudes toward reading held by English children were lower than those of children in other countries (Twist, Gnaldi & Morrison, 2004). A comparable study focused on the reading attitudes of upper primary pupils in The United Kingdom (Sainsbury & Schagen, 2004). The study presents results of a survey given to 5,076 nine and eleven year olds. Results presented in the survey displayed similar results to the findings by Twist et al. (2004), showing that while the students reading confidence increased, their enjoyment of reading declined.

Swanson (1982) administered a reading attitude survey (Heathington, 1975) to 116 first graders in northeastern Georgia and correlated the findings with the students' reading scores on the Metropolitan Achievement Test (Durost, Bixler, Wrightstone, Prescott, and Balow, 1970). Findings from the research revealed a correlation of .18 ($p < .05$). This means that only 3% of the variance in achievement scores can be accounted for by scores on the reading attitude inventory. Findings from the study indicated that children had positive attitudes toward reading in the initial stages of learning to read and that negative attitudes did not surface until reading became more of a "task".

Kush and Watkins (1996) offer support for these findings and suggest that attitude towards reading declines as children grow older. The researchers tested the long-term stability of children's attitudes toward reading by administering The ERAS with 189 elementary age students (grades 1-4). The researchers administered the survey two times over a three-year period. Following the three years, reading attitudes in both academic and recreational scores dropped significantly. Additionally, the results of a 2x4 factor

analysis of variance showed that girls had a more positive attitude about reading than boys did. It is interesting to note that as children grow older they make the transition between reading to learn and learning to read. It's possible that this may impact their attitude about reading, and account for the decrease in reading attitude as children get older.

Although some studies suggest that teaching techniques can influence reading attitudes, it is difficult to substantiate this claim. Researchers have looked at the effects on students' attitudes when high quality literature was used and found positive effects (Morrow, 1983). Additionally, although researchers have undertaken the chore of examining basal readers and the effect they have on students' attitudes (McKenn et al., 1995), there are no conclusive findings. Other studies suggest that although classroom teachers see attitudes toward reading as important, most teachers spend little time fostering childrens' attitudes (Heathington & Alexander, 1984).

Principle results from a national survey conducted in The United States to determine children's attitudes about reading revealed the following findings (McKenna et al., 1995): (a) Recreational and academic reading attitudes begin at a relatively positive point in Grade 1, but end in relative indifference by Grade 6; (b) negative recreational attitude is related to ability and the trend is most rapid for least able readers; (c) gender differences favored girls' positive attitudes toward reading; (d) ethnicity played little role in reading attitude; and (e) Teacher's reliance on a basal reader did not appear to play a role in reading attitude (p. 951).

These findings offer support for the McKenna model (1994) on reading attitude acquisition. Because the findings show that as children grow older their attitude about

reading declines, this suggests the importance of assisting the struggling reader at an early age. The researchers conclude that, “the greatest potential for further research lies in the matter of instructional techniques” (p. 953). The researcher’s findings that the use of a basal did not appear to play a role in reading attitude, does offer support for other methods of teaching reading.

How the Review of Literature Informed the Study

From the review of research, the following conclusions were drawn. Retention has not been shown to be an effective way to assist the struggling reader (Jimerson, 2001; Jimerson & Kaufman, 2003; Parker, 2001). Furthermore, retention has been proven to have detrimental effects on the retained student (Parker, 2001). Yet in light of this, retention continues to play an important role under NCLB as an intervention to assist the struggling reader. Although there is research to support different instructional techniques and approaches used by effective summer school programs (Stone et al., 2005; Duffy, 2001; Borman & Dowling 2006), under NCLB students must attend summer school using a scientifically based reading research (SBRR) approved reading program. In the targeted district the approved intervention program used in summer school is *Voyager Passport*.

The recent emphasis on reading performance as defined by performance on the FCAT examination has ignored the important role that childrens’ attitudes play in the process of becoming literate. When considering McKenna’s (1994) model of reading attitude, the decision to read or not to read is ultimately determined by three factors: the expectation of others; both physical and time constraints as well as competing options; and the desirability of reading outcomes. Unfortunately, research on attitudes has shown

that students' attitudes about reading have been shown to decrease with age (Sainsbury & Schagen, 2004; Swanson, 1982).

Third-graders in Florida who earn a Level 1 on the FCAT Reading Test are retained. These retained students are then encouraged to attend reading "summer camps", or summer schools. Summer school is now the last "good cause" intervention available to these third grade students. Although summer school is being used as an alternative to retention, and research has examined different summer school models, very little research has been conducted on the use of scripted literacy programs with third-grade retained students.

Additionally, there is a need for research that explores the impact different instructional methods have on childrens' attitudes about reading. Because the researcher did not find any research that examined the impact that a scripted literacy summer school had on the attitudes of third-grade struggling readers, there was a need for further research in this area. Additionally, there is very little research on *The Voyager Passport* program as a reading intervention. However, under *Reading First* legislation many districts nationwide are currently using the program with struggling readers. All of these findings revealed a need for research focusing on the reading attitudes of retained third-graders during summer school using *The Voyager Passport* program.

Organization of Remaining Chapters

The topic of Chapter 3 is methodology. This chapter begins with information on the *Voyager Passport* training and the instructional fidelity measure. Next, descriptions of the design of the study, the population and sample selection, instrumentation, data collection, and the manner in which the data were analyzed and interpreted are presented.

Chapter 4 summarizes the findings of the study. Both quantitative and qualitative findings are reported. Chapter 5 presents a summary of the study, conclusions and implications derived from the research findings, recommendations for practice based on the study conclusions and implications, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

Overview of Chapter

The purpose of this mixed method study was to determine the effect a summer school literacy program had on the reading attitudes of elementary school struggling readers. This chapter describes the methodology used to conduct the research and contains eight sections. The first section describes the design of the study. The second section describes the *Voyager Passport* training. The third section describes the population and sample selection for the study. The fourth section includes a discussion of the Pilot Study, the validity of the instrument, and interrater reliability. The fifth section describes instrumentation used in the study. The sixth section describes data collection. The seventh section explains the manner in which the data were analyzed and interpreted. The final section contains Evidence of Ethical Considerations.

Design

The intent of this mixed study was to address the following two research questions:

1. What is the effect of a scripted literacy program on the reading attitudes of elementary school struggling readers?
2. What do elementary school struggling readers perceive to be the effect of a scripted summer school literacy program on their attitudes toward reading?

This design of this non-experimental, longitudinal, mixed method study includes both quantitative and qualitative methods, depending on the question being analyzed. Because random assignments to groups were not possible, and because there was no manipulation of an independent variable, the study is considered non-experimental (Johnson & Cristensen, 2004). Although data were gathered at multiple points in time, data collection only lasted six weeks making the study short-term longitudinal.

Depending on the purpose for mixing methods, there are different purposes for mixed method designs. (Greene, Caracelli & Graham, 1989). Greene et al., (1989) offer this theoretical base for understanding triangulation as a study design:

Triangulation refers to the designed use of multiple methods with offsetting and counteracting biases, in investigations of the same phenomenon in order to strengthen the validity of inquiry results. The core premise of triangulation as a design strategy is that all methods have inherent biases and limitations, so use of only one method to assess a phenomenon will inevitably yield biased and limited results (p. 256).

Because the purpose for conducting this mixed-methods design was to seek corroboration from the results of the quantitative attitude survey, the classroom observations and the qualitative interview, the researcher selected triangulation as the design of the study (Greene, et al., 1989; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Onwuegbuzie, 2002). Triangulation was achieved through the use of quantitative data from the ERAS surveys and qualitative findings from the focus groups and classroom observations.

The dependent variable for this study was students' attitudes toward reading. The independent variable was *Voyager Passport*. The hypothesis was that time spent in a scripted literacy summer school program would affect the attitudes of third grade struggling readers, specifically that their attitude about reading would improve. The researcher expected this change in just six weeks time because of the intensity of the intervention. During summer school the students received two 30 to 45 minute lessons daily of *Voyager Passport* Instruction. Over the course of the 30 days the children were in summer school they actually received between 1800 and 2700 minutes of the intervention which equates to 12 weeks of instruction. This equivalence was determined by multiplying the number of minutes times the number of intervention days.

Mixed method research is defined as, "Research in which quantitative and qualitative techniques are mixed in a single study" (Johnson & Christensen, 2004; p. 410). Because both quantitative and qualitative methods are used in this study, the study takes on a mixed design. Tashakkori and Teddlie stress the importance of, "mixing methods in a way that has complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses" (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; p. 299). Based on this, in an effort to answer both research questions, the researcher collected data concurrently.

The first question, "What is the effect of a scripted literacy program on the reading attitudes of elementary school struggling readers?" is quantitative in nature. Data were collected from The Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (McKenna & Kear, 1990). This question was analyzed using descriptive statistics, a dependent measures *t*-test and three factorial ANOVAs. The three dependent variables for the factorial ANOVAs were

recreational reading attitude, academic reading attitude and total reading attitude. The independent variables were gender and school site.

The second question, “What do elementary school struggling readers perceive to be the effect of a scripted summer school literacy program on their attitudes toward reading?” is qualitative in nature. The qualitative analysis was completed using findings from focus groups as well as field notes gathered during classroom observations. The qualitative analysis completed following focus groups was done using a stance of objectivist grounded theory, allowing the students’ responses to define the categories used in the analysis (Charmaz, 2000). The results of the classroom observations were coded using a priori codes and analyzed for patterns. The findings from the classroom observations are presented first as vignettes representing each classroom. Next, a cross case analysis was completed to find patterns throughout the different school sites. Following quantitative and qualitative data collection, the researcher triangulated the findings and formed conclusions and recommendations.

Voyager Passport Training

In preparation for the study, the researcher reviewed the *Voyager Passport* materials available for principals and teachers and attended the training the summer school teachers attended on *Voyager Passport*. The researcher had access to all of the training materials provided by *Voyager Passport*. The summer school training took place the Friday before summer school was to begin and lasted four hours (see Appendix D). The training was facilitated by the summer school coordinator for the district and three representatives from *Voyager Passport*. During the four hour training each teacher

received a Teacher's Resource Kit and the materials necessary to implement *Voyager Passport* in their summer school classroom. The resource kit consisted of a box with a curriculum guide on fluency, comprehension and vocabulary, and targeted word study. There was also a VIP assessment guide, a packet of benchmark assessments, and test prep masters. Additionally, each kit included a stop watch.

Although there were 35 teachers in the initial training, in the end a total of 29 teachers participated in the study. Some of the teachers were released due to lower than expected enrollment. Another teacher was absent for the initial training and never received the materials. A fifth teacher was absent at the end of the study and was unable to administer the post assessments.

During the training the third-grade summer school teachers received specific guidelines and instructions on how to structure their summer school day as well as how to implement *Voyager Passport* in their summer school classrooms. The teachers also received tips and suggestions for implementing the program with enthusiasm and fidelity. This was done utilizing a lecture style format which was structured around a Power Point presentation. During the training maintaining student's enthusiasm during *Voyager Passport* lessons was stressed. Video clips were shown that showed teachers implementing the program with enthusiasm and others who lacked enthusiasm and displayed very flat affect. Teachers were then given time to analyze video clips for strengths and weaknesses in regards to the fidelity of the implementation. Following this the teachers had time to discuss what they had seen with peers. Then the *Voyager*

consultant again spoke of the important role that enthusiasm would play in the implementation of the program.

There were differences in the knowledge of the classroom teachers in regards to the *Voyager Passport* program. Many of the summer school teachers had used *Voyager Passport* in their classrooms during the school year or the previous year in summer school and therefore were familiar with the program. However, others had never used *Voyager Passport*. Regardless of previous experience everyone attended the same training. Some of the teachers in attendance voiced their frustration at having to attend a training they did not think was necessary.

The district allowed a portion of the training to be devoted to the researcher's study. This meant that during the training the teachers were able to meet the researcher and receive an overview of the researcher's study and training on how to administer the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (McKenna & Kear, 1995). The researcher began by presenting an overview of her study, during which time she passed out materials and trained the summer school teachers on how to administer the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (ERAS). The training followed the ERAS Teacher Training Protocol (see Appendix E). Overall, the teachers were receptive to administering the reading survey. The researcher went over the ERAS group protocol with each of the teachers (see Appendix F). Each of the teachers in attendance agreed to participate in the study.

The district recommended that the ERAS be administered to all of the third-graders attending summer school at the five participating sites. This recommendation was made because the district administrators felt that giving the survey to all of the students

would be less confusing than only giving the survey to specific students. In regards to data collection, this meant that the survey was given on the first day of summer school first thing in the morning. Therefore, during the training the researcher provided each teacher with a set of surveys (ERAS) and informed consent forms (Appendix B). She explained that although the surveys would be given to all the students, data would only be collected from those students who returned a yes informed consent letter. Next, the researcher explained how focus group participants would be selected and that focus group participants would be observed on Wednesdays at varying times. Finally, the researcher allowed time for questions. There were many questions concerning where the teachers could obtain copies of the survey to use in their own classrooms during the school year as well as how to analyze the findings.

Following the *Voyager Passport* training the teachers returned to their summer school site where they met with the acting principal of the site. In all there were five summer school sites that participated in the study. Each of the summer school teachers received additional reading resources in the form of books for independent reading time and big books for shared reading lessons. These included leveled books, Harcourt Trophies books (Harcourt, 2004), big books and Elements of Vocabulary (Beck, 2005). Additionally, the teachers were able to meet the Reading Coach and ELL teacher at each site. Both of these teachers assisted the classroom teachers during summer school. Following that meeting the teachers were given time to work in their classrooms and prepare for Monday morning when the students would arrive.

The elementary schools from the district were broken into six clusters, which represented the six sites. Which site children attended for summer school depended on where their home school was located. Generally, children attended summer school at the site closest to their house. The researcher only used five of the six sites in the study. One of the sites was located in a rural area outside of the town. Due to low enrollment at this site, the district recommended that the researcher just use five sites. The acting principals of the summer school sites were actually assistant principals from the district. Two assistant principals shared each site and decided who would work what weeks. Therefore, in most situations the assistant principals systematically changed midway through the study.

Summer school in the targeted county followed the guidelines set by the state. Students attended summer school five days a week for a total of five hours each day. Class size varied from 10 to 12 students. According to state guidelines, intensive reading instruction was to last a minimum of two hours of the total instructional day. Additionally, the state recommended that summer schools not exceed a teacher to student ratio of one to twelve. Each of the summer school classrooms the researcher visited met these requirements.

Regarding instructors, the state recommended that counties hire teachers who had successful teaching experience as well as reading certification or endorsement. An additional recommendation from the state was that counties involve mentors in their summer reading camp as a way to reinforce reading skills and to enhance a student's self-esteem. However, the state stipulated that although mentors could provide one-on-one mentoring for a student in the classroom, students were not allowed to leave the

classroom during reading instruction (<http://www.justreadflorida.org/camps/>). During the observations at the different summer school sites the researcher observed mentors working with students both one on one and in small groups. Additionally the researcher observed reading coaches working with small groups of students and ELL teachers assisting the classroom teacher.

Population and Sample Selection

The school district from which the sample was drawn encompassed a county on the west coast of Florida with a population of over 313,298. There were 33 elementary schools in the district during the summer of 2007. Although summer school was held at six different sites, only five sites were used in this study. Students attended one of the summer schools based on which “cluster” their home school was located in.

Determination as to which summer school site students attended was made by the district office who arranged the elementary schools into six different clusters. A summer school site was then designated for each group. Therefore, although it was likely that the summer school site the students attended was not their home school, most likely it was the site closest to their home.

The convenience sample was limited to third-grade students who earned a Level 1 on the FCAT reading test and were attending summer school. The population the researcher made inferences about for both the quantitative and qualitative portions of this study were retained third-grade struggling readers who scored a Level 1 on the reading portion of the FCAT test in 2007. There were 336 third-grade students who attended summer school. Complete data were collected on 91 or 27 percent of the students. The low return rate might have been due to a lack of parental involvement which is

characteristic of retained students (Jimerson et al., 1997; Jimerson & Kaufman, 2003). Of the 336 students, 285 students completed summer school and participated in Stanford 10 testing the last day of summer school.

Retained students frequently have the following characteristics in common: low parental IQ (Jimerson et al., 1997), lack of parental involvement, are boys, and are minorities. In addition, retained students are likely to have missed a greater percentage of school days than their peers who have been promoted (Jimerson & Kaufman, 2003). The decision to use third-grade students was made because of the current political climate supporting retention as an intervention with third grade struggling readers.

The purpose of the qualitative portion of the study was to use focus groups as well as field notes collected during classroom observations to gain a more in depth understanding of childrens' attitudes about reading and to compare these findings to the quantitative findings. When selecting participants for the qualitative portion of the study, the researcher used a nested portion of the sample for focus groups. What the researcher is referring to by a nested portion, is that the sample members selected for one phase of the study represent a subset of those participants chosen for the other part of the research study. In this study, the participants for the qualitative part of the study came from the participants of the quantitative part of the study (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2004). In this particular study, focus groups provided more than isolated interviews because the group members were able to react to and build upon the responses and comments in others. This helped the researcher to obtain the "voice" of the struggling reader (Langford & McDonagh 2003; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

For this study, data collected through the use of focus groups supported quantitative data collection. In an effort to ensure that the “voice” of the struggling reader was representative of the group, the researcher attempted to intentionally select participants for the focus groups whose initial attitude on the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (ERAS) represented three distinct levels (full scale attitude in the lowest third, middle third, and in the highest third). However, when the district intervened and said they wanted the least amount of classrooms impacted by visitors, the researcher was forced to select classrooms based on how many children had returned their informed consent letters. Specifically, the researcher was asked to limit focus group participants to just one classroom at each of the five summer school sites. This made it impossible for the researcher to use within case sampling to select a nested portion of the struggling readers. (See Threats to Limitation in this chapter for more information).

Pilot Study

When considering instrumentation and population, because the ERAS was normed using a heterogeneous population and the participants in this study were homogenous, specifically third-grade struggling readers, it was important for the researcher to collect additional empirical reliability and validity data. Therefore, the researcher conducted a Pilot Study to determine how the survey performed with third-grade struggling readers.

International Review Board Approval

The researcher obtained IRB approval in the winter of 2006 to administer a Pilot Study to determine if the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey measured changes in attitude with a homogeneous population. The sample size for the Pilot Study consisted of

15 third-grade students enrolled in a third grade remediation class at an elementary school on the west coast of Florida. The students for the Pilot Study were located in the same district where the actual study took place. Additionally, the students selected for The Pilot Study came from the same population as the students for the actual study, since they were all retained third-grade struggling readers. Each of the students involved in the Pilot Study returned a signed consent form (see Appendix G).

The intent of the Pilot Study was to determine the reliability of the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey with a homogeneous population. Since it was not possible to conduct the Pilot Study during summer school, the researcher selected the FCAT as an event that might impact the attitudes of third-grade struggling readers. The participating students were given the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey the week before the FCAT examination. The researcher administered the survey in the student's classroom while the regular classroom teacher was present using the ERAS Pilot Study Group Protocol (see Appendix H). The researcher then returned two weeks later on the day that FCAT testing ended. Once again the researcher administered the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey. The individual scores are broken down by recreational attitude, academic attitude, and total attitude and are represented in Appendix I.

Descriptive Statistics

The distributions of attitude scores were examined separately for recreational reading attitude, academic reading attitude and total attitude using descriptive statistics. A summary including the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis is provided in Table 7 and illustrated in Figure 2. For the difference in recreational reading attitude the skewness and kurtosis both suggest approximately normal distributions. For the

difference in academic reading attitudes the distribution appears to be negatively skewed. This can be interpreted as the distribution has a long tail in the negative direction, or there was variability in the scores in the negative direction.

Table 7

Descriptive Data Pilot Study

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Recreation	15	-4.13	5.67	-.58	.70
Academic	15	-3.07	5.90	-1.34	3.0
Total Score	15	-7.00	10.56	-1.41	2.70

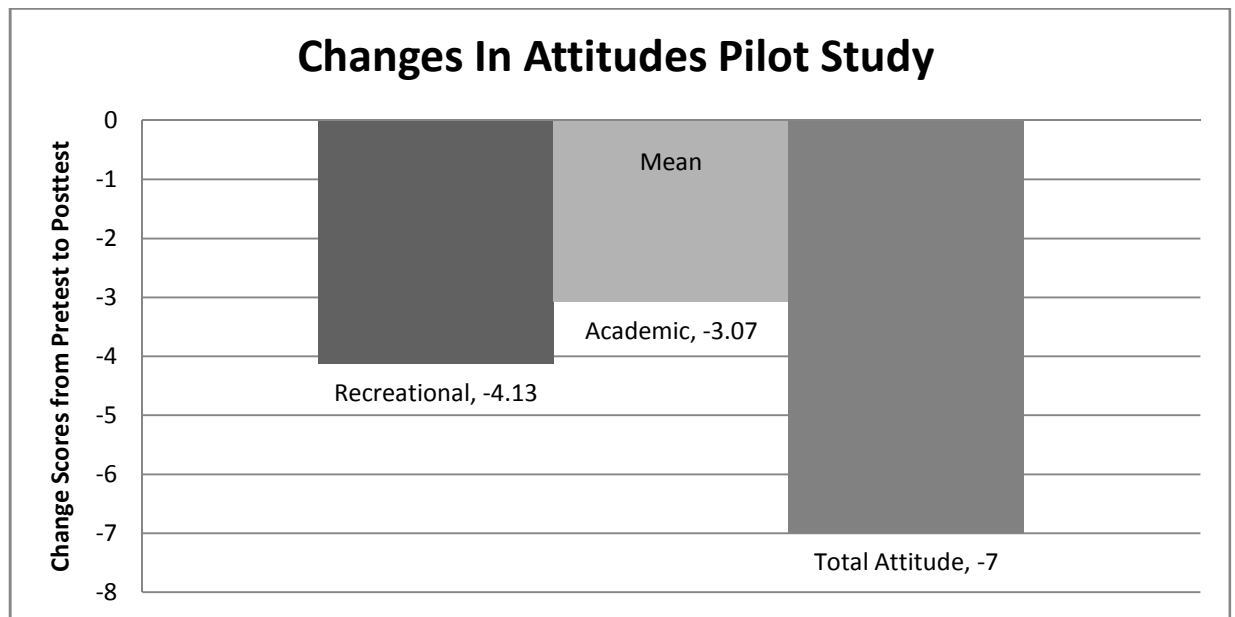


Figure 2. Changes in Attitudes Pilot Study

Dependent Measures t-Test

The results of the recreational, academic and total attitudes as measured by the ERAS were analyzed using a dependent measures *t*-test. This analysis revealed a significant difference between mean levels of commitment observed in two of the three conditions. Sample means of -4.13, -3.07, and -7.00 for the recreational reading attitude, academic reading attitude, and total reading attitude respectively show enough variation to be of practical importance.

The results of a dependent measures *t*-test indicated that although recreational attitude [$t(14) = -4.13, p = .014$] and total reading attitude are statistically significant, [$t(14) = -7.00, p = .02$], academic reading attitude does not show enough variation to be of statistical significance [$t(14) = -3.07, p = .06$]. The sample means are displayed in Figure 2, which shows the students' attitude scores decreased after the students took the FCAT reading test. These results demonstrate that although the ERAS can be used to measure change with a homogeneous population, change in a small sample size may not always be statistically significant.

Reliability of the Instrument

Cronbach Alpha

When considering the reliability of an instrument it is important to consider, "the degree of consistency with which it measures whatever it is measuring" (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 1996, p. 273). One way to measure reliability involves assessing the extent to which all items are measuring the same thing. This involves assessing a test's internal consistency. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient is used to measure internal consistency when test items are not scored as right or wrong, but rather are given a range of scores, as

is the case with the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (McKenna & Kear, 1995). The items on the survey were scored on a scale of one to four for questions related to both academic and recreational reading. This scale makes the Cronbach Alpha an appropriate measure of the reliability.

Cronbach's Alpha represents a measure of internal consistency amongst a set of items. The more consistent the score of a set of items, the higher the reliability of the measure. The maximum value is 1.0 (Cronbach, 1951). Following the guidelines of Guilford and Fruchter, (1978), a reliability coefficient of .70 or higher is considered acceptable. Following a Pilot Study, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was computed for recreational attitude, academic attitude and total attitude respectively. The raw coefficients for the pilot administration of the test for reading attitudes following the FCAT test (n= 15) were: pre-test recreational attitude .30, post test recreational .81, pre-test academic attitude .49 and post-test academic attitude .65, and pre-test total attitude, .65 and post-test total attitude .66. All of the coefficients from the Pilot Study, with the exception of post-test recreational are of interest. One explanation as to why most of the coefficients are low is that the low Alpha levels may indicate several attributes and dimensions rather than just one and thus the Cronbach Alpha is deflated. Another reason might be due to limited numbers of items in the scale. Yet another explanation might be due to the sample size (n=15).

After analyzing the ERAS results during the full study, it was important to once again assess the reliability of the measure. When the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was computed for pre-test recreational attitude, post-test recreational attitude, pre-test academic attitude , post test academic attitude, and pre-test total attitude, and post-test

attitude for the full study the following coefficients were reported. The raw coefficients for each of those variables were .82, .83, .85, .47, .91, and .73 respectively. Each of these numbers except post test academic attitude is considered satisfactory following the guidelines of Guilford and Fruchter (1978). The raw Alpha for post-academic at a .47 is of interest because it is well below a .70 which is considered an acceptable Alpha coefficient (Guilford and Fruchter, 1978). An Alpha score of .47 indicates that the scores on the academic questions of the ERAS were not consistent. This inconsistency can also be seen by looking at the difference in mean academic scores based on school site. This also may be why the Factorial ANOVA for school site and academic attitude was significant, yet a follow up Tukey test could not pinpoint the significance.

Interrater Reliability and Scoring

Another reliability issue involved the consistency of scoring the test items. To control for this the researcher double checked the scores on the ERAS before entering them into an Excel Spreadsheet. After entering the information into Excel, once again the researcher double checked the information for accuracy. Additionally, to ensure equitable representation for each school and classroom in the study sample a random sample of 20 percent of the ERAS surveys were double scored to check for accuracy. The second scorer was a fellow graduate student with extensive experience in reading. Prior to double scoring the second scorer was trained by the researcher in how to score the ERAS. The training process began with an overview of the ERAS. Next, the researcher explained how to score the items based on a four point scale and how to transfer the scores to the score sheet. The second rater then observed the researcher score a survey before

attempting to score a random sample of 20 percent of the surveys. Surveys from each of the school sites were represented.

Additionally, inter rater reliability measures were used during the qualitative part of the study. The second scorer also verified the coding of the focus group data by double coding 20 percent of the answers to the focus group questions to see if the codes were the same as those assigned by the researcher. Following the collection of focus group data, the researcher conducted a coding training with the additional scorer (See Appendix J).

The coding training followed these steps:

1. The training began with an overview of the coding process.
2. Next, the researcher used a sample question (that would not be scored by the secondary coder) as a practice question.
3. Next, the researcher and the double scorer examined the sample question and reviewed the sample codes from the typology that the researcher had already established.
4. The researcher answered any questions the double scorer had about the process.
5. Finally, the second scorer reviewed the transcripts from 20 percent of the questions and coded the answers. To ensure equitable representation for each school and classroom in the study, the 20 percent of transcripts that were scored were made up of one question at four of the five sites. Two questions were verified from the fifth site.
6. The researcher then explained to the second coder what would be done if there was a discrepancy amongst the two coders. In the event of a discrepancy the

two coders would discuss the specific response and come to agreement as to how to code it. In the event that a consensus could not be agreed on, both answers would be accepted.

Threats to Legitimation (Qualitative Phase)

There were possible threats to legitimation in the qualitative portion of the study. The first threat concerned researcher bias. First, when considering descriptive validity it was important that the researcher report the accounts of the focus groups factually. In this study, in order to control for this, the researcher did not act as the moderator during focus groups, but rather the researcher selected a moderator. The researcher then served as an observer taking notes and observing. Additionally, the researcher tape recorded all focus group sessions, which she later transcribed. These results can be found in Chapter Four.

The moderator for the focus groups was a graduate student trained in qualitative research. The moderator used a group protocol (Appendix K) during the focus groups. The graduate student and researcher practiced using focus group protocols prior to collecting data. The use of multiple observers allowed for cross checking of observations (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). Additionally, the use of an outside moderator helped the researcher ensure that the informants did not provide only socially desirable responses to the questions (Onwuegbuzie, 2002). The use of simultaneous triangulation helped control for this bias. This triangulation was accomplished by gathering quantitative data from the ERAS, qualitative data from the focus group interviews, and classroom observations.

Additionally, the researcher left an “audit trail” which included oral tape recordings (with permission) of the focus groups as well as analyzed transcripts of the

students' oral responses to the questions on reading preference. Finally, in chapter 5 the researcher made clear her position and any biases that may have impacted the investigation. One possible bias concerned the *Voyager Passport* program, the reading program the students used in summer school. Because the researcher prefers to view reading instruction using a balanced approach to literacy, it was important for her to state this position in her final report.

Another threat to legitimation involved interpretive validity. Because the researcher only gathered data from the students during the beginning of summer school and the end of summer school she was concerned that it might be difficult to obtain an adequate representation of the "voice" under study (Onwuegbuzie, 2002). Therefore, in an effort to capture the "voice" of retained third-graders and to "get inside the heads of the participants" (Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p. 251), the researcher used participant feedback, or member checking during data collection. This was done informally by having the group moderator restate key statements at the end of the focus group session. Additionally, member checking helped to clear up any areas of miscommunications. Another way the researcher controlled for this bias was through field notes gathered during weekly classroom observations of targeted students.

Another threat occurred during the actual study. Students were originally targeted for participation in the focus groups based on their score on the ERAS. However, the district requested that the observations and researcher visits impact the fewest number of classrooms as possible. Therefore, the researcher had to select classrooms where the most students had returned a yes informed consent. In all situations this meant that the researcher was unable to obtain an equal representation of attitudes (low, average and

high). Specifically, of the 22 focus group participants only two of the students had low attitudes at the beginning of the study. The remaining twenty had average or high attitudes. However, there were only 10 students with low attitudes at all of the summer school sites. This may have been the result of a low permission return rate for students with low attitudes. A lack of parental involvement is characteristic of retained students (Jimerson et al., 1997; Jimerson & Kaufman, 2003). Additionally, due to a request from the district that the researcher not conduct the fidelity checks herself, the researcher had a lack of access to the data in regards to the fidelity checks. Additional information on the fidelity measure can be found in Chapter Four.

Classroom visits were conducted weekly by the researcher and took place at varying times throughout the school day. Although the majority of the observations took place during *Voyager* lessons, some of the observations took place during other literacy activities. The results of these field notes gathered during observations and vignettes of each of the targeted classrooms can be found in Chapter Four.

Instrumentation

Quantitative Instrument

The instrument used in the quantitative portion of this study was the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (McKenna & Kear, 1990) (See Appendix A). This public domain instrument was selected because it is designed to be used with elementary age students, can be administered to an entire class of students in a manner of minutes, and provides the researcher with three different scores: recreational reading, academic reading, and a composite score. The purpose of the ERAS is to examine the reading attitudes of elementary age students so that teachers can estimate the attitude levels of

their students efficiently and reliably. The content consists of 20 items that assess students in regards to two sub-scores: recreational reading and academic reading. A high score would represent a positive attitude toward reading, a low score a negative attitude towards reading. The developers of the assessment are Michael C. McKenna and Dennis J. Kear. The format of the assessment is a pictorial questionnaire, using the Garfield cartoon, and designed to be given orally.

To administer the assessment, the test administrator begins by telling students he/she wishes to find out how the student feels about reading. In an effort to prevent students from giving a response that will please the test administrator, the administrator emphasizes to the students that this is not a test and that there are no right answers. Additionally, the administrator stresses sincerity and explains that she is going to read some statements about reading and that the students should think about how they feel about each statement. Next, the administrator distributes the surveys and discusses the pictures of Garfield and the mood he appears to be in and what that means. Class consensus was then achieved as to the predominant mood characterized by each illustration. In an effort to minimize the possible effects of decoding difficulties, each item was then read orally 2 times slowly and distinctly, as students followed along and marked their responses.

For each item, a total of 4 responses are given ranging from 1 to 4. A score of 4 represents Garfield looking the happiest. A score of 1 on the other hand represents Garfield looking very frustrated with his hands crossed. To score the survey, the administrator accounts 4 points for the happiest Garfield, 3 points for each slightly smiling Garfield, 2 points for each mildly upset Garfield, and 1 point for each very

frustrated Garfield. Three scores can be obtained for each student: the total for the first 10 items, the total for the second 10 items, and a composite total. The first 10 questions on the survey relate to attitude towards recreational reading and the second 10 questions relate to attitude toward academic aspects of reading.

To interpret the scores, a formal approach involves converting raw scores into percentile ranks using a table provided in the directions. If the researcher prefers to interpret the scores informally, they can note informally where the scores fall in regards to the four different nodes of the scale (Garfield pictures). Responses are quantified by assigning 1 to 4 points to each item, from most negative (1) to most positive (4) respectively. Thus, scores on each of the two subscales can range from 10 to 40 total points. A total score of 50 would represent a score that was directly in the middle, which could be interpreted as an indifferent score. For the purpose of this data analysis, the researcher relied on the use of raw scores. Because the instrument is easy to administer and thorough directions are provided with the instrument, the creators state that it is not necessary for the administrator to receive training before administering the assessment (McKenna & Kear, 1990). However, to ensure that each of the summer school teachers administered the survey the same way, the researcher used a Group Protocol (see Appendix K) to train the summer school teachers.

The developers of the survey created norms by conducting a large-scale study in January 1989. The survey was administered to 18,138 students in Grades 1-6. Steps were taken to ensure that the sample was sufficiently stratified; specifically participants were drawn from 95 school districts in 38 states. There were five more girls than boys. The ethnic distribution was similar to that of the U.S. population at that time.

Overall developmental trends in attitude were addressed by means of two separate one-way designs for recreational and academic reading attitude by grade. The F test for recreational attitude was significant ($F=104.1$, $p < .001$). Academic reading was also significant $F=266.0$, $p < .001$. The researchers then ran a post-hoc Scheffe's test to determine whether the mean drops between successive grade levels were significant. Recreational reading drops were all significant ($p < .05$) except between second and third grades. Whereas for academic reading all five declines between successive grades were significant ($p < .05$).

Thus, as children progressed from first to sixth grade their attitude toward reading both recreationally and academically declined. Specifically an examination of first grade means revealed a 31 for recreational attitude and a 30.1 for academic attitude. Visually both of these scores would be located near the slightly smiling Garfield on the ERAS. By sixth grade the two means had fallen to 27.9 recreational and 24.6 academic. Visually these scores fall between the slightly smiling and the slightly frowning Garfield which might suggest virtual indifference. The long-term effect sizes of .54 and .80, respectively from grade 1 to grade 6 are considered significant (McKenna et al., 1995). The F statistic was calculated with effect sizes of .20 for recreational and .27 for academic attitude, which can be interpreted as moderate effect sizes (Cohen, 1965).

The researchers also looked at attitude and ability, attitude and gender and attitude and ethnicity. When the researchers examined ability they found that a negative recreational attitude is related to ability. Furthermore, the "Attitudinal" gap among ability levels widened with age. However, when the researchers looked at academic reading attitude they found a similar negative trend regardless of ability (McKenna, et al., 1995).

These results support the McKenna model which suggests that a reader's history of success or frustration plays a central role in shaping the reader's attitude (McKenna, 1994). When gender was examined, girls had more positive attitudes towards both academic and recreational reading at all grade levels. Further more in the case of recreational attitude the gap widens with age. This is similar to the ability findings. Academic attitude remained relatively constant. Ethnicity did not appear to play a role in the negative trends of either recreational or academic reading. The same thing was found when it came to the teacher's reliance on a basal reader. Reliance on a basal reader did not appear to be meaningfully related to recreational or academic reading.

Reliability was measured using Cronbach's Alpha (Cronbach, 1951). It was calculated at each grade level for both subscale scores and for the composite score. These coefficients ranged from .74 to .89, and of 18 coefficients computed (for the two subscales and the full scales at each of six grade levels), 16 were at least .80 (McKenna et al., 1995). A value of .70 is considered acceptable. The majority of the coefficients were .80 or higher. Two coefficients were lower, recreational subscales at Grades 1 and 2. The researchers suggest that this may mean that the stability of young children's attitudes toward leisure reading grows with their decoding ability and as they become more familiar with reading as a hobby or pastime.

To gather evidence of construct validity, on the recreational subscale the researchers began by sorting children in the norming group into sub-groups. The first sub-group separated children based on access to a public library. The students to whom a library was available were then divided into two more groups, those with library cards and those without library cards. Cardholders were found to have a significantly higher

recreational attitude score ($p < .001$, $M=30$) than non-cardholders ($M =28.9$). This provided evidence that the scores varied predictably with an outside criterion. Next, the researchers compared students who presently had books checked out from their school library to those who did not. In this case the comparison was limited to those children whose teachers reported not requiring them to check out books. Once again the means of the two groups varied significantly ($p < .001$). Children with books checked out had a higher mean ($M =29.2$) than those who had no books checked out ($M =27.3$).

The next test of the recreational subscale compared students who reported watching an average of less than one hour of television per night with students who watched more than two hours per night. This time the recreational mean for the low television group ($M=31.5$) significantly ($p < .0001$) exceeded the mean of the heavy television viewing group ($M=28.6$). Thus the researchers concluded that the amount of television watched varied inversely with students' attitudes towards recreational reading.

Next, the researchers examined the validity of the academic subscale. This time the researchers categorized their children based on reading ability (low, average, high). The high ability readers ($M =27.7$) significantly ($p < .001$) exceeded the mean of the low ability readers ($M =27.0$). This provided evidence that the scores were reflective of how students truly felt about reading for academic purposes. The relationship between the two subscales was also examined. The researchers found, "The inter subscale correlation coefficient was .64, which meant that just 41 percent of the variance in one set of scores could be accounted for by the other. It is reasonable to suggest that the two subscales, while related, also reflect dissimilar factors-a desired outcome" (McKenna & Kear,

1990). Finally, the researchers conducted a factor analysis and found evidence that the survey's two subscales reflect discrete aspects of reading attitude.

Data Collection

Quantitative Procedures

For the quantitative portion of the study data were gathered from The Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (McKenna & Kear, 1990). After training the summer school teachers using The ERAS Teacher Training Protocol (see Appendix E) all of the third-grade summer school teachers used the ERAS Group Protocol (see Appendix F) to administer the survey to each of their students. The survey was administered during the morning of the first day of summer school. Following implementation the surveys were bundled and sent to the front office to be placed in a large manila envelope that the researcher had dropped off with the office staff Monday morning. This same procedure was followed at each of the summer school sites. Additionally, also on the first day of school the summer school teachers were asked to send the Informed Parental Consent forms home with all of the students (see Appendix B). At the end of the first week of summer school, the researcher returned to each site and picked up the completed surveys and returned informed consent papers.

After the first week, the researcher then went through the returned Parental Consent forms and determined which students had parental permission to participate in the study. A total of 547 third-graders qualified for summer school. However, just 336 students (61%) actually attended summer school the first day. In all, 115 students out of 336 students had permission to participate in the study. Complete data were collected on 91 students. Next, the researcher calculated the full scale, recreational and academic

attitude scores for each of the participating students' surveys. Then the researcher assigned a numerical code to each student. Data were then placed on an Excel spreadsheet so that it could be entered into SAS. After entering data, the researcher double checked to be sure all data were entered on the spreadsheet accurately. Next, the researcher had a second person double check the accuracy of 20% of the scores to be sure they were entered correctly.

Finally, the researcher color coded the students ID numbers based on their full scale scores into three categories 0-40 low attitude, 41-60 average attitude, and 61-80 high attitude. Those scores were used to help the researcher determine the participants for the subsequent qualitative portion of the data collection. The researcher administered the post-test the last week of summer school following the same procedures and protocols as the pre-test prior to the Stanford 10 assessment.

Qualitative Procedures

The qualitative research approach relied on the use of focus groups and field notes collected through classroom observations.

Focus Groups. Focus groups are defined as, "a type of group interview in which a moderator leads a discussion with a small group of individuals to examine in detail how the group members think and feel about a topic" (Johnson & Chistensen, 2004, p. 185). Advantages of focus groups include: data collection can be done quickly, the researcher interacts directly with participants, it allows for rich data collection through open response, synergy of group, flexibility, it's appropriate for use with children, and the results are easy to understand (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990). The use of focus groups offered a more in-depth understanding than could have been obtained through a survey

alone (Barbour & Kitzinger, 1999; Billson, 1994; Edmunds, 1999; Langford & McDonagh, 2003; Morgan, 1988). Through the use of focus groups, the researcher gained a more in depth understanding of third-graders' attitudes toward reading. Additionally, it allowed the researcher the opportunity to interact directly with the third-graders and to attempt to "get inside their heads" (Langford & McDonagh, 2003; Johnson & Christensen, 2004).

A fellow graduate student trained in qualitative research and working with struggling readers assumed the role of the group moderator, leading the focus group discussion. Edmunds (1999) recommends the following qualities in a good moderator: ability to learn quickly, experience, organizational skills, flexibility, good memory, good listening skills, strong probing skills, time management skills, and a good personality. Additionally, Stewart and Shamdasani (1990) recommend that the moderator is adaptable, alert, ambitious, assertive, cooperative, decisive, dependable, persistent, tolerant of stress, and willing to assume responsibility. Additionally, children are often more comfortable with a female moderator (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990). The moderator worked as a reading coach at an elementary school and was accustomed to working with struggling readers. The researcher expanded on Edmunds' recommendation of a good personality, and selected a moderator with the following traits: an outgoing personality, a good sense of humor, approachable, and a knack for making children feel comfortable in her presence.

After selecting a group moderator who would conduct the focus groups, in an effort to fine-tune the group protocol (See Appendix K), prior to summer school the

group moderator and the researcher conducted an informal pilot of the focus group protocol with a group of second grade students from the researcher's own class. The purpose of the pilot was to answer the following questions: Were the questions appropriate? Would the children answer them? Would the children understand what they were being asked? Were the questions worded in such a way that usable data were gathered?

As a result of the Pilot Test a few modifications were made in the original protocol. Results of the pilot revealed the importance of the moderator's ability to get the children to talk. Many of the students were very shy and only gave one-word responses. This emphasized the importance of the child feeling comfortable with the moderator. It really helped that the moderator had a good sense of humor and knew how to talk to kids. The primary modification to the protocol centered around the informal warm up. Originally the researcher had planned on beginning with a discussion on foods. After conducting the Pilot Test, the researcher realized that for the most part all of the children had eaten the same thing for breakfast, since most of them had eaten in the school cafeteria. After realizing that in summer school all of the children would be receiving free breakfast and lunch and would have had the exact same thing to eat, the researcher decided to ask the children about pets (Have you ever had a pet? Does anyone have a dog?). When the warm up was changed, the researcher found that the children got very excited and that although some of the pet stories were tragic, the children wanted to talk about their pets.

An additional result of the Focus Group Pilot revealed that it was helpful to change from a monologic to a dialogic interaction in order for the focus group to feel more conversational. Additionally, allowing the flexibility to vary the order of the questions allowed for more conversational patterns. The moderator supported the style most adaptive to the comfort level of the children. Some of the groups did better taking turns answering one question at a time. Other groups displayed more cohesiveness and piggybacked off each other's responses. The researcher assumed the role of an observer. Stewart and Shamdasani (1990) support this flexibility and encourage the researchers to understand that, "groups take on lives of their own" and "the interview guide is just that a guide, which the moderator and group should be allowed to modify if it proves desirable" (p.62).

The protocol (see Appendix K) provided a framework for the discussion. The nature of the discussion was to find out the students' attitudes about reading after they had been in a scripted summer school environment for 30 days. The researcher began by introducing herself and the moderator and making sure that the children felt comfortable participating in the focus group. The researcher also explained that she would be tape recording the session and showed the children the tape recorder before placing it in the center of the group. The moderator began by having the children become more comfortable by introducing themselves and their "home school". Next the moderator introduced herself again and explained her role and what to expect during the session. An informal warm up helps the moderator to get an idea of the participant's interaction style (Billson, 1995). Therefore, the moderator began with a discussion on pets (Have you ever

had a pet? Does anyone have a dog?). Next, the moderator reviewed the following ground rules: speak clearly one at a time, no right or wrong answers, need for active participation, sharing “the floor”.

When formulating the questions for the focus groups the researcher followed Stewart and Shamdasani’s recommendation that questions be ordered from general to specific if possible. They also recommend that questions be ordered by their relative importance to the research agenda. This explains why question #2, “Do you like reading? Why or why not?” is positioned second.

Finally, the moderator asked the following questions:

1. Tell me about summer school. Which part of summer school do you like best?
2. Do you like reading? Why or why not?
3. What types of books do you like to read the most?
4. Does anyone read to you at home?
5. Have you noticed and changes in your feelings about reading this summer?
6. Tell me about *Voyager Passport*.

Because participants in focus groups do not always say everything they think, it was necessary for the moderator to recognize verbal and nonverbal cues. At times it was necessary for the moderator to ask follow up questions, restating, summarizing or asking the group for samples or examples (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990). During questioning the moderator followed the clarification and probing routines stated below:

Clarification and Probing Routines

1. Because children will agree with others to avoid standing out, it will be important to frequently ask if anyone has “other ideas” or “different opinions”.
2. Watch for gestures and facial expressions that may reveal something about the accuracy of a comment, or suggest that someone has a strong feeling about a question being asked.
3. If a “talker” takes over the conversation, thank them for sharing and call on another student.
4. Begin with voluntary responses, if some children are not participating, call on them.

Following the pilot test, the researcher used the data gleaned from the ERAS initial surveys to attempt to select focus group participants from each site. Focus groups were made up of four to six students from each summer school site. Although the researcher attempted to select students based on the following criteria: two students whose full scale attitude was in the lowest third, two students whose full scale attitude was average and two students whose full attitude was in the highest third made this was not possible in most cases. Additionally, although the researcher attempted to select children with strong verbal skills this was not always possible. Specific information regarding the selection of focus group participants from each site can be found in Chapter Four.

Next, the researcher scheduled times to conduct the Focus Group Interviews. Focus Group Interviews were scheduled after the ERAS had been given the second time

and before the Stanford 10 was given. The focus group interviews took place on Wednesday during the final week of summer school and were all tape-recorded. Although the researcher and the moderator had allowed two days for focus group sessions, because the sessions did not last a full hour, all of the focus groups were conducted on one day. The focus groups were held in empty classrooms with the students sitting around a table, in the media center, in a circle on the floor in the hallway, or in one case, in a conference room. Stewart and Shamdasani (1990) recommend a table as a way of providing a protective barrier between respondents which in turn gave less secure members of the group a sense of security. Additionally, the circular arrangement of a table provided a maximum opportunity for eye contact between the moderator and other group members (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990). In the focus groups the only noticeable difference in outcomes was that the group in the conference room required a great deal of redirection. This was because some of the children were fascinated with adjusting the height of the conference room chairs.

Although the researcher limited focus groups to one hour per group, the length of the focus groups varied between 30 minutes and one hour. The shorter duration of the focus groups may be because the groups were homogeneous in nature being made up of all struggling readers (Stewart and Shandasani, 1990). The lack of involvement could also have been because the participants did not trust the researcher and moderator enough to open up. The sessions were all tape-recorded and later transcribed by the researcher. Additionally, both the researcher and the group moderator took notes during each of the focus groups.

Classroom Observations. Once the children for the focus groups had been selected, the researcher began classroom observations. The observations took place on Wednesdays and lasted approximately 45 minutes. During the classroom observations, the researcher gathered field notes about the classroom and what the teacher was doing as well as the childrens' attitudes during the observations. Attitudes were measured using a likert-type scale that emulated the one used in the ERAS survey. (See Appendix L) Also, at least once at each site the researcher had the opportunity to talk informally with the summer school teachers about the students, summer school, and *Voyager Passport*. The results of the classroom observations and meetings with the summer school teachers are collapsed into vignettes and are also found in Chapter Four.

During the initial observations it appeared that the students' attitudes improved as the day went on. Therefore, the researcher varied the times she completed observations in the classrooms. By varying the times, this meant that the classroom teachers did not know when the researcher was coming. It also meant that the researcher was able to observe different parts of the summer school day. During the informal classroom observations the researcher used her laptop to type notes on what activities the focus group children were participating in and their focus, behavior, attitude, and participation during the activity. It was also an opportunity to observe the interaction between the teachers and the children.

When the children were not involved in a *Voyager Passport* lesson the remainder of the day was spent doing literacy activities. During the classroom observations the researcher observed children in a variety of activity structures.

These included:

1. Small Group *Voyager Passport* Lessons: Lessons where the children were engaged in a lesson with the teacher using *Voyager Passport* materials where the teacher to student ratio was between 1:3 and 1:6.
2. *Voyager* fluency lessons with timed reads: A one minute timed read of a story the children have already read. This occurs in Lessons 1, 2, and 5 and is how *Voyager* monitors fluency growth.
3. *Voyager Passport* Whole Group Vocabulary Lessons: lessons where the entire class was engaged in a lesson with the teacher using *Voyager Passport* materials where the teacher to student ratio was more than 1:6.
4. Literacy Centers: A physical area set aside for specific learning purposes. The center consists of appropriate materials to enable children to explore and work independently (As individuals, with partners, or in small groups) and behave as active learners.
5. Independent Reading: An instructional approach that provides reading practice for individual students. Texts are student selected, based on the student's interests, needs, and self determined purpose and typically within the student's appropriate independent reading range.
6. Shared Reading: An instructional approach that models strategies for reading text. During a Shared Reading lesson everyone has access to the text, in the form of enlarged text or multiple copies of the text.

7. *Workbook*: Two consumable student workbooks accompany the *Voyager Passport Kit*. Each of the stories are in the workbooks. Additionally there are lessons and activities as well as questions to answer based on the story.
8. *Teacher Read Aloud*: Teacher reads aloud from a piece of written text which may be in the form of a picture book or chapter book. The teacher models reading fluency as well as exposing the students to new genres and vocabulary words that are above their level.

Quantitative Data Analysis

Upon completion of data collection, the researcher utilized descriptive statistics to determine the mean and standard deviation of the students' responses to the attitude survey. Data were organized according to academic, recreational and total reading attitude. The mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values were all based on the total sample of 91 students from their responses to 20 items. Each of the 20 questions had a possible score of 4 points.

After completing descriptive statistics on the data to determine the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values, the researcher conducted a dependent measures *t*-test. First, it was important to examine the assumptions underlying the *t*-test. (Specific information on the assumptions can be found in chapter Four). A *t*-test can be used to determine whether the means of two groups are statistically different from each other. Since the researcher wanted to compare the mean scores from the pre-test to the post-test, the recreational, academic and total reading attitude scores from the ERAS pre-test and post-test were analyzed using a dependent measures *t*-test.

Prior to completing three factorial ANOVAs the researcher first examined the assumptions that underlie factorial ANOVAs. In an effort to determine if attitudes differed in the subgroups, the researcher conducted three separate 2x2 factorial ANOVAs with alpha levels set to .05 for each effect to determine if gender, site, and the interaction between gender and site were predictors of change scores. Following the factorial ANOVAs, when it was appropriate, the researcher conducted follow up Tukey tests. The researcher also included descriptive statistics for the subgroups. To report the findings, the researcher then transferred those data into box plots (over time) and histograms. The researcher used SAS as the statistical software tool.

Qualitative Data Analysis

Focus Group Analysis. There is not one way to analyze focus group data that is well researched and agreed on (Carey, 1995). Focus group analysis is the least agreed on process and the least well developed. Further, an agreed on technique does not exist (Carey, 1995; Kidd & Parshall, 2000). It takes interpretation and insight to develop the meaning of a focus group discussion (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990).

In an effort to qualitatively examine students' attitudes on reading, gleaned from the focus groups, the researcher used content analysis (Krippendorff, 1980; Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990) to break data into content chunks and to code the content into conceptual categories. Strauss and Corbin (1990) stress the need for open coding, which requires the researcher to remain open as new relationships and categories emerge during data collection. In this study, the researcher developed a set of open codes as she labeled the key points made by the interviewees for each question asked during focus groups.

When conducting the content analysis, the first step was to transcribe the audio-tapes of the five focus group sessions. The transcripts served as the basis for further analysis. The researcher also used additional observational data in the form of notes that were taken during the focus group sessions by the researcher and the moderator. This observational data helped the researcher to interpret the transcripts.

After the tapes were transcribed, the researcher read through the transcripts for each school site for Question 1. In an effort to examine the meaning of the focus group discussions and its implications for research on struggling readers' attitudes, the results of the focus group discussions were coded using semantic content analysis (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). Content analysis is defined by Krippendorff (1980) as, "a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context" (p. 21). When implementing the first stage, Data Making, the researcher defined the appropriate unit or level of analyses as words and phrases. The temporal designation for creating categories was iterative because, although the researcher had categories in mind from the survey administered during the quantitative portion of the research, the researcher did not want to limit the temporal designation to just those categories. By utilizing an iterative temporal designation the categories were able to be created at various points during the research process (Constas, 1992).

Next, the researcher used the cut and paste technique (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990) to go through the transcripts and identify the sections that were relevant to the research question. Based on this initial reading, the researcher determined a classification system for assigning units to categories. This was done beginning with the first question. The researcher went back to the transcribed focus group session and took the students'

responses and assigned each child's response to a word or phrase. For instance, the first question was, "Tell me about summer school. What part of summer school do you like best?" Responses varied and consisted of comments such as, "I like recess", or " I like reading independently." After going through each student's response, the following "codes or chunks" emerged: timed reading, independent reading, read aloud, pass test, learning, recess, playing with friends, meeting new people, games and teachers. The researcher then took the "codes or chunks" and recorded them on a matrix by the child's name and question 1. From the matrix the researcher then looked at words and phrases that could be clustered together into a category. For instance, recess, playing with friends and meeting new people were all coded into the category "social".

However, it was important for the researcher to understand that, "The recording or coding of individual units is not content analysis" (p. 112) (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). Stewart and Shamdasani recommend the use of "virtually any analytic tool" (p.113) when analyzing focus group data. In this study, the researcher used attribution analysis (Janis, 1965) to determine the frequency within which certain objects were mentioned. Next, the researcher converted the frequency tables into percentages. Percentages are shown visually through pie graphs.

In an effort to establish the reliability of the first stage of data analysis, recording, Krippendorff (1980) recommends that the researcher executes an explicit set of recording instructions which represent the rules for assigning units to categories. In regards to inter rater reliability, the second rater who was also the moderator, served as a second coder on 20 percent of the transcripts. The second rater worked from a typology that the researcher had already established. The typology included a list of units. The second rater simply

assigned words of phrases to units. The second rater coded 6 different questions at varying sites. In all the second rater coded 26 separate responses. A different question was coded at each site, except Franklin Elementary where two questions were coded. 92 percent of the codes were the same as the researcher. There were only two instances where there was a discrepancy. Both instances involved students who gave an answer and then were probed. During the probe, they gave another answer. After collaborating, the researcher decided to accept both responses. Appendix M offers an example of how the transcripts were coded.

Classroom Observations. Classroom observations allowed the researcher the opportunity to observe the children during summer school to see what activities they were engaged in as well as what their attitudes were during the activities. The researcher relied on a priori categories to code the observation and interpret the child's attitude. In the case of activity structures during summer school, the categories were based on a mandate from *Just Read Florida* that specifically stated which approved activities could take place during the summer school day. During the visits the researcher observed students engaged in activity structures which were also the a priori categories. Each of these activity structures are previously discussed in this chapter. Next, the researcher quantified the data by counting how many times the category was observed (Tjora, 2006). Finally a cross case analysis of the findings was conducted using the data to look for patterns across sites.

The researcher then used the information collected from the classroom observations to write a vignette of each of the targeted classrooms. The information from

the vignettes was then used to do a cross case analyses which can be found in chapter Four.

Triangulation of Findings. Finally, in an effort to use several different research methodologies to research students' attitudes about reading, the researcher triangulated the findings from the ERAS survey, focus groups and classroom observations.

Mixed Data Analysis

Due to the mixed nature of the study, the researcher had intended to quantitize the qualitative data into quantitative data to make statements about the findings. However, during the course of the study, Dr. Onwuegbuzie who developed the concept of quantitizing and was going to be instrumental in serving as a mentor during data analysis, moved to another university. This unexpected change caused the researcher to revise her data analysis plan and to analyze quantitative and qualitative data individually before triangulating the findings from the focus groups, the classroom observations and the ERAS surveys.

Evidence of Ethical Considerations and District Permission

Finally, in an effort to protect the participants, the sampling design adheres to the ethical guidelines set forth by the International Review Board. The researcher completed the necessary IRB application from the University of South Florida. Part of this application included permission from the school district where the study was conducted (see Appendix N). Included in the proposal were copies of the districts' permission letter, consent forms for teachers and parents, and assent forms for students. After receiving IRB approval, the researcher first met with the assistant superintendent. After she gave

initial approval for the study, she requested that the researcher modify the way the fidelity checks would be completed. She stated that because the researcher was also a teacher in the district, it would be inappropriate for the researcher to conduct the fidelity checks on her peers. Next, the assistant superintendent asked the researcher to write a formal letter requesting permission from the district to conduct the study (see Appendix O).

As summer school grew closer, the researcher was asked to meet with the Director of Elementary Education who had specific questions about how the study would impact the summer school teachers. The Director of Elementary Education gave permission for the researcher to attend the summer school training day and to train the teachers in the administration of the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (McKenna & Kear, 1990). Additionally, he made the decision that the survey be given to all of the students on the first day of summer school. During this same meeting, the Director of Elementary Education requested that in order to impact the least amount of classrooms, the researcher limit participants for the focus groups to one class at each summer school site. The implications of this decision are discussed in Chapter Five.

Organization of Remaining Chapters

Chapter 4 summarizes the findings of the study. Both quantitative and qualitative findings are reported. Chapter 5 presents a summary of the study, conclusions and implications derived from the research findings, recommendations for practice based on the study conclusions and implications, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

Overview of Chapter

The purpose of this mixed method study was to determine how summer school using *Voyager Passport* would impact retained third-grade students' attitudes about reading. The chapter begins with an overview of the summer school training. Next, information on the fidelity measure and a summary of the fidelity data is presented.

The remainder of the chapter is organized by research question and begins by addressing the quantitative question, "What is the effect of a scripted literacy program on the reading attitudes of elementary school struggling readers?"

To address the quantitative question, the researcher begins by providing a summary of descriptive statistics from the initial results of the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (McKenna & Kear, 1990). Following the descriptive data, the researcher presents the findings of the inferential statistics. First, the researcher examines the assumptions as they relate to the dependent measures *t*-test. Following an examination of the assumptions, the researcher examines the dependent measures *t*-test findings. After presenting the findings of the *t*-test, the researcher examines the assumptions that underlie the Factorial ANOVA. Next, the researcher presents the results of three 2x2 Factorial ANOVAS. Data in this section are organized around recreational attitude,

academic attitude, and total reading attitude. Next, the result of a follow up Tukey test is shared. This section concludes with a summary of the quantitative findings.

To answer the second question, “What do elementary school struggling readers perceive to be the effect of a scripted summer school literacy program on their attitudes toward reading?” The researcher begins by presenting information on the focus group participants in regards to gender, ethnicity, site and prior retentions and ERAS scores. Then the researcher provides short case vignettes which provide a snapshot of one teacher and her classroom at each school site. Next, a cross case analyses of the vignettes from the five sites presents similarities and differences across each of the classrooms. Next, the researcher provides a summary of the focus group findings organized by question. Then the researcher provides the themes that emerged from the focus groups.

Finally, in an effort to use several different research methodologies to research students’ attitudes about reading, the researcher triangulates the findings from the ERAS survey, focus groups and classroom observations.

Summer School Training

Training for summer school teachers took place the Friday before summer school began and lasted four hours. The training was facilitated by the summer school coordinator for the district and three representatives from *Voyager Passport*. During the four hour training, each teacher received a Teacher’s Resource Kit and the materials necessary to implement *Voyager Passport* in their summer school classroom. Although there were 35 teachers in the initial training, in the end a total of 29 teachers participated in the study. Four of the teachers were released due to low enrollment. Another teacher was absent for the initial training and never received the materials. A sixth teacher was

absent at the end of the study and was unable to administer the post assessments. During the training the third-grade summer school teachers received specific guidelines and instructions on how to structure their summer school day (see Appendix P) as well as how to implement *Voyager Passport* in their summer school classrooms. Additionally, the teachers received tips and suggestions for implementing the program with “enthusiasm” and “fidelity”. Additional information regarding the teacher training can be found in Chapter Three.

Fidelity Checks

Fidelity of implementation is the actual presentation of instruction the way it was intended to be delivered (Gresham et al., 2000). Specifically, it is the adherence to the intervention protocol in comparison with the original program design (Mihalic, 2002; Mowbray et al., 2002). Measurement of fidelity is especially crucial with studies that seek to provide evidence for the effectiveness of an intervention (Mowbray et al., 2002).

In regards to educational research, if there is a high rate of fidelity in the implementation of a program, then the administration and staff can rule out this variable in regards to student achievement. Gresham et al., (1990) explored the extent to which integrity was assessed in the literature on learning disabilities (LD). This was achieved through an analysis of articles in three LD journals from January 1995 to August 1999. Results of the analyses revealed that of the 479 articles published in these journals, although 65 articles were focused on an intervention; only 12 of the articles measured and reported data on treatment integrity. Establishing the fidelity of implementation is crucial to assuring that procedures are implemented with integrity.

Developing measures of fidelity, validating them, and using them can be intensive and costly. However, the other option is to recommend programs that are either not effective, or are only effective if implemented in a particular way (Borrelli, Sepinwall, Ernst, Bellg, Szajkowski, Breger, DeFancesco, Levesque, Sharp and Ogedegbe, 2005).

When establishing a measure to assess the fidelity of the implementation of a program, it is vital that the fidelity measure itself is supported through reliability and validity evidence. In order for researchers to have sufficient evidence to support internal validity, there must be a valid measure of the levels of validity during the implementation of an intervention in a classroom (Dumas, Lynch, Laughlin, Smith and Prinz, 2001).

It is important to follow steps when establishing fidelity criteria. The following steps are involved in establishing fidelity criteria: (1) Identify critical intervention components and define measurable indicators for the components. (2) Collect the data to measure the indicators. (3) Examine the reliability and validity of the fidelity criteria.

When examining fidelity measures, The National Center for Learning Disabilities (<http://www.nclد.org/content/view/1220/389/>) recommends that fidelity of implementation measures: (1) Link interventions to improved outcomes (credibility) ; (2) Definitively describe operations, techniques, and components; (3) Clearly define responsibilities of specific persons; (4) Create a data system for measuring operations, techniques, and components; (5) Create a system for feedback and decision making (formative); and (6) Create accountability measures for non-compliance (Mowbray et al., 2002).

A summary of the fidelity data reported by the district can be found in Table 8. The chart contains the observation (which comes directly from the *Voyager Fidelity*

Measure) that was used during summer school. The fidelity measure asks the observer to rate each observation as “Clearly Evident”, “Somewhat Evident” or “Not Evident”. When referring to Mowbray et al., it is important to follow steps to establish criteria fidelity. *Voyager Passport* followed the first step by identifying critical intervention components on their fidelity measure (Classroom Organization, Instruction and Pacing). However, although they defined indicators for the components, measuring some of the components might be subjective. For instance, one of the items is, “Pre-planning is evident in lesson delivery”. This could be difficult to measure depending on specific attributes relating to the implementing teacher. Further indicators of how to assess whether or not pre-planning is evident are not offered. A complete list of the measureable indicators for the components can be found in Table 8. The second step in establishing fidelity criteria involves collecting data to measure the indicators. *Voyager Passport* provides a way to collect data to measure the indicators on their fidelity measure. However, a vital step, “Examine all reliability and validity of the fidelity criteria” has been omitted.

Although *Voyager Passport* is one of 101 supplemental intervention reading programs that have been reviewed by the Florida Center for Reading Research (FCRR), and reviewed under Reading First, *Voyager Passport* lacks any norming data on their fidelity measure on either the *Voyager* website, or on the Florida Center for Reading Research website (FCRR). After contacting *Voyager Expanded Learning Systems* directly the researcher was told that the company had no norming data on the fidelity measure. Additionally, the researcher contacted the district where the study was conducted. The researcher was told that the district did not have any norming data on the actual fidelity measure as well.

The researcher had planned on revising the district's fidelity measure to include specific information on the teacher (enthusiasm, affect, and quality) and conducting the fidelity checks herself during summer school. However, the district would not allow the researcher to complete the fidelity checks or revise the measure. (see Appendix Q). This decision was made by the assistant superintendent. Her reasoning was that since the researcher was also a third-grade teacher in the district where the study was conducted, for the researcher to assess her peers might have been seen as a conflict of interest.

Fidelity indicates the extent to which teachers follow a curriculum that is written. However, fidelity provides no insight into either the quality of the curriculum or the quality of learning that might result from its' use. Although a total of 177 fidelity checks were conducted by the summer school coordinator from the district office, reading coaches at the summer school sites, and administrators at the summer school, because there is no norming data on the fidelity measure the researcher is unable to assess the data or conclude that the intervention was implemented with fidelity.

Table 8

Summary of Fidelity Visits

Measureable Indicators	Clearly Evident	Somewhat Evident	Not Evident
<i>Classroom Organization</i>			
Voyager materials are accessible.	171 (96%)	5 (3%)	(.006%)
Small group area is designated.	149 (84%)	16 (9%)	12 (7%)
<i>Instruction</i>			
Preplanning is evident in lesson delivery.	149 (84%)	20 (11%)	8 (.05%)
Teacher follows daily lesson plan.	155 (86%)	17 (9%)	9 (.05%)
Instruction from both modules delivered.	142 (80%)	14 (8%)	20 (11%)
Students respond chorally and individually during lesson	155 (88%)	8 (.05%)	14 (8%)
Reading behaviors and expectations are evident.	148 (84%)	13 (7%)	16 (9%)
<i>Pacing</i>			
Instructional pacing matches suggested times.	110 (62%)	19 (11%)	48 (27%)
Are the adventure and lesson numbers indicated to students or posted on board?	112 (63%)	19 (11%)	46 (26%)

n=177

Quantitative Findings

The quantitative findings are organized around the first research question: What is the effect of a scripted literacy program on the reading attitudes of elementary school struggling readers? To answer the question, the reading attitudes of 91 third-graders attending summer school were measured using the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (McKenna & Kear, 1990). The survey was administered the first day of summer school as well as during the last week. Data were collected from five different summer school sites in the targeted district.

This section will begin by presenting the findings from the initial results of the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey as they relate to descriptive statistics. Following the descriptive data, the researcher presents the findings of the inferential statistics. First, the researcher examines the assumptions as they relate to a dependent measures *t*-test. Following an examination of the assumptions, the researcher examines the dependent measure *t*-test findings. After presenting the findings of the *t*-test, the researcher examines the assumptions that underlie the factorial ANOVA. Next the researcher presents the results of three 2x2 Factorial ANOVAs. Data in this section is organized around recreational attitude, academic attitude, and total reading attitude. Next, the results of a Tukey test are shared. This section concludes with a summary of quantitative findings.

Descriptive Statistics

The researcher utilized descriptive statistics to determine the mean and standard deviation of the students' responses to the attitude survey. Table 9 organizes the data according to academic, recreational and total reading attitude. The mean, standard

deviation, skewness and kurtosis values are all based on the total sample of 91 students from their responses to 20 items. Each of the 20 questions had a possible score of 4 points.

Figure 3 provides a summary of the mean scores on the ERAS. When mean scores for pre-test academic, recreational and total attitude scores were compared to mean scores for post-test academic, recreational and total attitude scores, there was little difference in mean scores. Figure 3 confirms these findings. The maximum academic and recreation scores on the ERAS were 40, and the maximum total score on the ERAS was an 80. A score of 50 on the ERAS is considered to be directly in the middle which can be interpreted as an indifferent score.

Table 9 offers information on the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values for each of the tests. When considering the distribution of scores, all of the scores are negatively skewed. This can be interpreted as the scores on ERAS were clustered on the right side of the distribution. Additionally, the kurtosis values of (<1) suggest a platykurtic distribution with the majority of values occurring the same number of times.

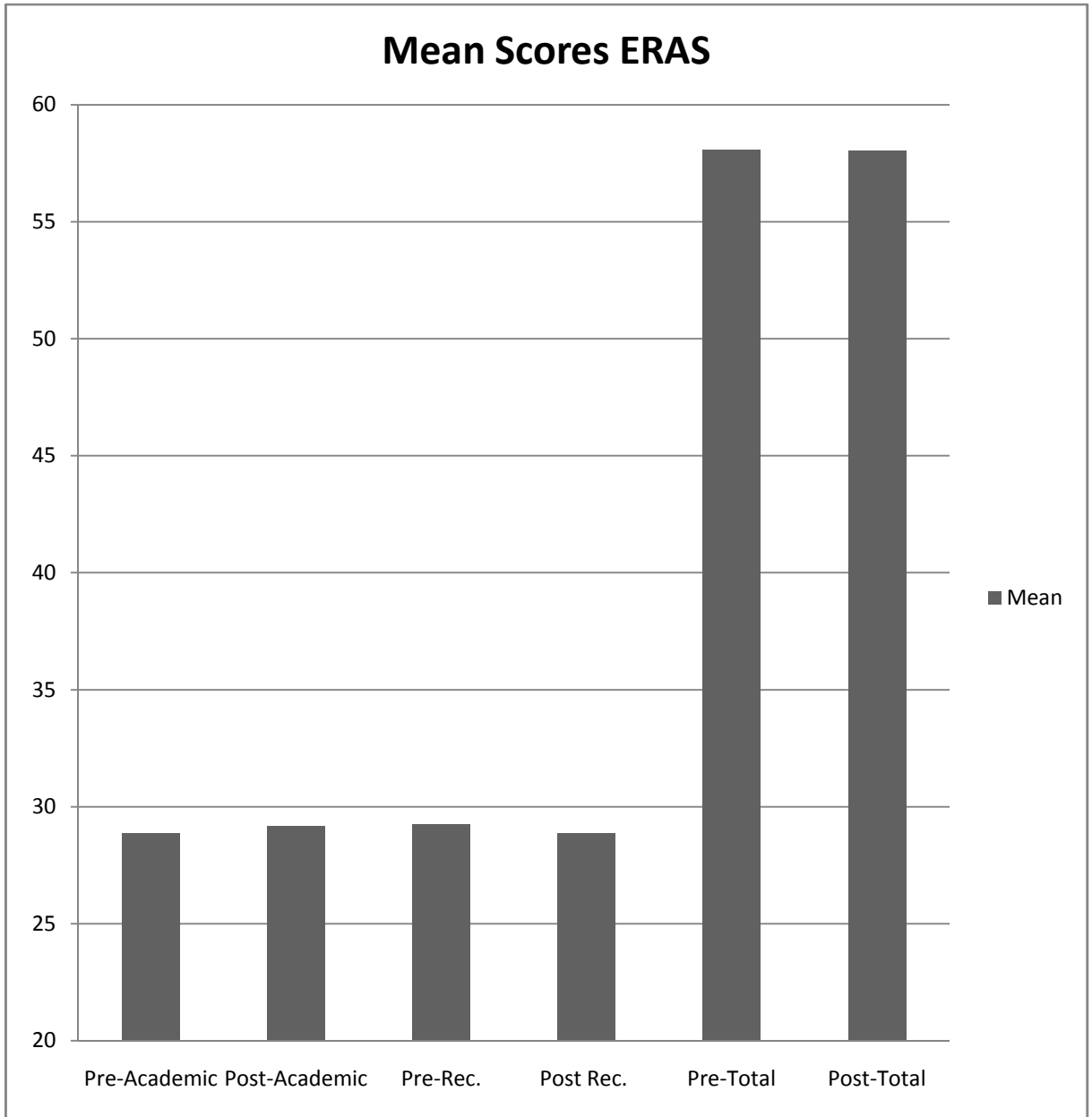


Figure 3. Mean Scores ERAS

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Pre-test academic	91	28.85	6.70	-0.59	-0.30
Post-test academic	91	29.16	6.77	-0.56	-0.18
Pre-test recreational	91	29.24	6.21	-0.44	-0.44
Post-test recreational	91	28.88	6.54	-0.27	-0.78
Pre-test Total	91	58.09	12.25	-0.55	-0.43
Post-test Total	91	58.05	12.63	-0.33	-0.68

Assumptions Underlying the Dependent Measures t-Test

Next, in an effort to screen data for possible violations the researcher examined the following assumptions underlying the dependent measures *t*-test. Because the data were collected from an independent sample of different scores from the sample, there is no reason to think that the independence assumption was violated. Next, because the scores were normally distributed, there was no need to question normality. The-Shapiro Wilk test (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965) tests the null hypothesis that a sample came from a normally distributed population. In this study, probabilities of .97, .95, and .96 for recreational, academic and total reading attitude respectively provide evidence of failing

to reject the null hypothesis for normality. Additionally, the skewness and kurtosis values appeared normal [pre-test $sk = -0.55$, $ku = -0.43$; post-test $sk = -0.33$, $ku = -0.68$].

Inferential Statistics

Descriptive statistics provided basic data about the sample and the measures. In an effort to reach conclusions that extended beyond the immediate data alone, the researcher used inferential statistics. First, the researcher conducted a dependent measures t -test.

Dependent Measures t-Test

A t -test can be used to determine whether the means of two groups are statistically different from each other. The recreational, academic and total reading attitude scores from the ERAS pre-test and post-test were analyzed using a dependent measures t -test. Since the researcher wanted to compare the mean scores from the pre-test to the post-test, this was an appropriate test.

This analysis revealed no statistical significance between mean test scores (academic, recreational and total) during the two levels of time (pre and post). Specifically, when the difference in recreational attitude was examined the results indicated that the change was not statistically significant [$t(90) = -0.36$, $p = .55$]. When the difference in academic attitude was examined, once again the findings were not statistically significant, [$t(90) = .32$, $p = .61$]. Additionally, when the difference in total attitude was examined, the findings were not statistically significant, [$t(90) = -.03$, $p = .98$]. Perusal of Table 10 provides a summary of the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values from the paired samples t -test.

Table 10

Results of Paired Samples t-Test

Measure	N	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Difference Recreation	91	-.36	5.83	0.13	0.88
Difference Academic	91	.32	6.00	0.62	1.23
Difference Total	91	-.03	10.59	0.59	1.58

Factorial ANOVA's

Following the dependent measures *t*-test, in an effort to determine if gender and school site would result in differences in differences in recreational, academic and total reading attitude, three 2x2 factorial ANOVAs were conducted. In order to suggest that differences in gender and school site would result in differences in recreational, academic and total attitude about reading, chance must be ruled out as a plausible explanation for the observed differences in the sample. To assess the tenability of a chance explanation, three 2x2 factorial ANOVAs were conducted with an alpha set at .05 for each effect. The degree to which the Type 1 error rates were actually controlled to the specified alpha level depended on how adequately the data met the assumptions of independence, normality, and equal variances.

Assumptions

The assumption of independence was met by ensuring that different observations came from different individuals. The ERAS tests were administered individually and each student completed his/her test alone. The descriptive statistics indicated that the assumption of normality was not violated. Next, because the sample size was small in some of the subgroups, and the variances found in the different subgroups are unequal; it is possible that the assumption of equal variances was violated. Finally, in regards to the normality assumption, the low sample size of some of the sub groups may have caused the researcher to violate normality. According to this analysis of the assumptions, since none of the assumptions were violated in a manner that would have substantial consequences on the interpretations, it appeared reasonable to conduct the factorial ANOVAs.

Results

In an effort to determine if attitudes differed in the subgroups, the researcher conducted three separate 2x2 factorial ANOVAs with alpha levels set to .05 for each effect. The results of the 2x2 factorial ANOVAs are presented in Tables 11, 12, 13, 14, 16 and 17 and illustrated in Figures 5, 6, and 7. The results of the Factorial ANOVAs are organized by recreational attitude, academic attitude, and total attitude on The Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (McKenna and Kear, 1990).

Recreational Attitude

First, recreational reading attitude was examined. A summary table for the ANOVA on recreational attitude is provided in Table 11. When gender was examined, the obtained $[F(1, 90) = 1.16, p = .28]$, was judged not to be statistically significant using

a predetermined Type 1 error rate of .05. This indicates that the observed difference in recreational attitude for the male students is not different enough from the observed difference in attitude for the female students to conclude that recreational attitude differences would differ across gender in the population. The p -value of .28 suggests that it is reasonable to accept the null hypothesis and conclude that there is not a difference in recreational attitude based on gender.

Next, when school site was examined, the obtained [$F(4, 90) = 1.14, p = .34$] was also judged not to be statistically significant using a predetermined Type 1 error rate of .05. This indicates that the observed difference in recreational attitude at one school site was not different enough from the observed difference in recreational attitude at another school site to conclude that recreational attitude would differ across school sites. The p -value of .34 suggests that it is reasonable to accept the null and conclude that there is not a difference in recreational attitude based on school site.

Finally, when the interaction between gender and school site was examined, the obtained [$F(4, 90) = 1.95, p = .11$] was also judged not to be statistically significant using a predetermined Type 1 error rate of .05. This indicates that the observed difference in recreational attitude based on gender and site was not different enough from the observed differences at another site in regards to gender and site. The p -value of .11 suggests that it is reasonable to accept the null hypothesis and conclude that there is not a difference in recreational attitude based on gender and site.

Table 11

Variable Difference in Recreational Attitude

Source	SS	MS	F Value	<i>p</i>
Gender	38.98	38.98	1.16	0.28
Site	153.58	38.40	1.14	0.34
Gender*Site	261.69	65.42	1.95	0.11
Error	2721.03	33.59		

n=91

Table 12 provides specific information in regards to the sample size, mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values for the changes in recreational attitude based on school site and gender. This figure indicates high variability amongst the sub-groups in regards to sample sizes. Additionally, although differences in scores are noted, there are no trends in scores based on gender or site. The histogram shown in Figure 5 provides a visual display of the mean change scores in regards to recreational attitude on the ERAS based on school site and gender.

Table 12

Difference in Recreational Attitude by Site and Gender

Site/Gender	N	M	SD	SK	KU
Dolphin Male	8	.75	6.76	-0.92	.34
Dolphin Female	9	-2.33	5.59	-0.72	-0.23
Horn Male	13	.15	4.88	-0.25	-0.63
Horn Female	4	5.5	9.68	1.30	1.0
Carter Male	6	-3.17	6.70	.98	1.58
Carter Female	7	.57	4.35	-0.68	.29
Franklin Male	5	-3.2	3.42	-1.65	3.33
Franklin Female	6	.67	4.18	-0.46	.44
Lincoln Male	21	.48	5.87	0.28	0.15
Lincoln Female	12	-2.08	6.05	-0.89	1.45

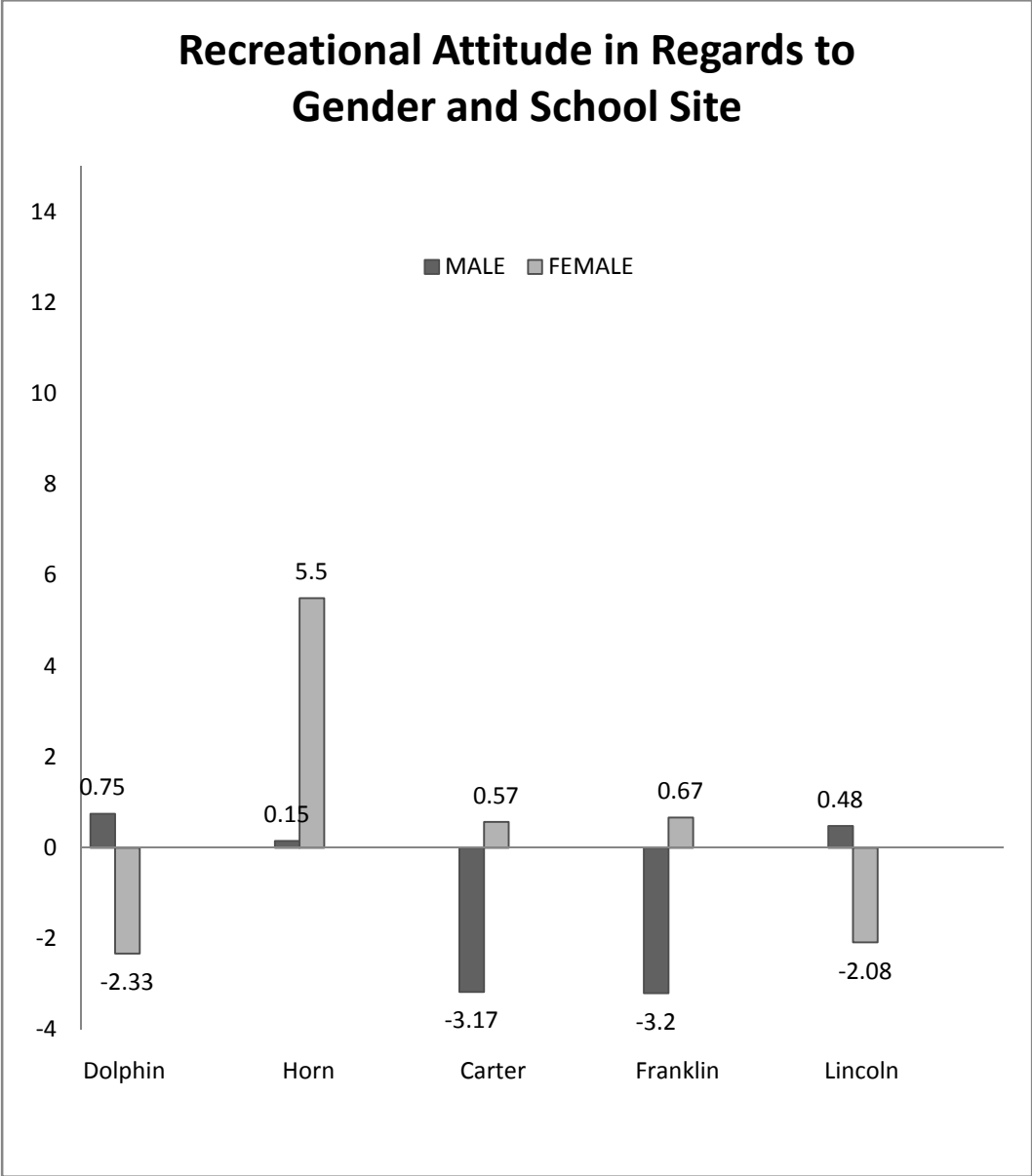


Figure 4. Difference in Recreational Attitude in Regards to Gender and School Site

Academic Attitude

Next, the researcher examined variable differences in academic attitude. A summary table for the ANOVA on academic attitude is provided in Table 13. When gender was examined, the obtained [$F(1, 90) = 1.01, p = .32$], was judged not to be statistically significant using a predetermined Type 1 error rate of .05. This indicates that the observed difference in academic attitude for the male students is not different enough from the observed difference in attitude for the female students to conclude that academic attitude differences would differ across gender in the population. The p -value of .32 suggests that it is reasonable to accept the null hypothesis and conclude that there is not a difference in academic attitude based on gender.

However, when school site was examined, the obtained [$F(4, 90) = 2.87, p = .03$] was judged to be statistically significant using a predetermined Type 1 error rate of .05. This indicates that the observed difference in attitude based on school site might be different enough to conclude that academic differences would differ across school site in the population. The p -value of .03 suggests that if the null hypothesis was true, the probability of obtaining an F as large or larger than the one obtained is .03. Since this probability is so small (less than .05), the null hypothesis is rejected in favor of an alternative hypothesis that suggests at least one pair of population group means differ.

When the interaction between gender and school site was examined, the obtained [$F(4, 91) = 2.09, p = .09$], was judged not to be statistically significant using a predetermined Type 1 error rate of .05. This indicates that the observed difference in academic attitude based on males and females at one school site is not different enough from the difference in academic attitude of males and females at another school site to

conclude that academic attitude differences would exist across gender and site in the population.

Table 13

Variable Differences in Academic Attitude

Source	SS	MS	F Value	<i>p</i>
Gender	34.16	34.16	1.01	.32
Site	390.46	97.61	2.87	.03
Gender*Site	283.68	70.92	2.09	.09
Error	2751.38	33.97		

n=91

Table 14 provides specific information in regards to the sample size, mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values for the changes in academic attitude based on school site and gender. This table indicates high variability amongst the sub-groups in regards to sample size. Additionally, although differences in scores are noted, there are no trends in scores based on gender or site. The histogram shown in Figure 6 provides a visual display of the mean change scores in regards to academic attitude on the ERAS based on school site and gender.

Table 14

Differences in Academic Attitude in Regards to Gender and School Site

Site/Gender	N	M	SD	SK	KU
Dolphin Male	8	1.	4.41	-0.65	-0.06
Dolphin Female	9	-.56	4.48	-0.32	-0.38
Horn Male	13	.62	6.50	.29	1.70
Horn Female	4	9.5	8.27	0	-1.66
Carter Male	6	.67	3.01	-0.25	.88
Carter Female	7	-2.17	3.19	-1.44	2.44
Franklin Male	5	-2.	3.46	-1.92	3.67
Franklin Female	6	-2.17	3.19	-1.44	2.44
Lincoln Male	21	.19	8.40	.52	-0.59
Lincoln Female	12	-1.75	3.89	-1.05	.27

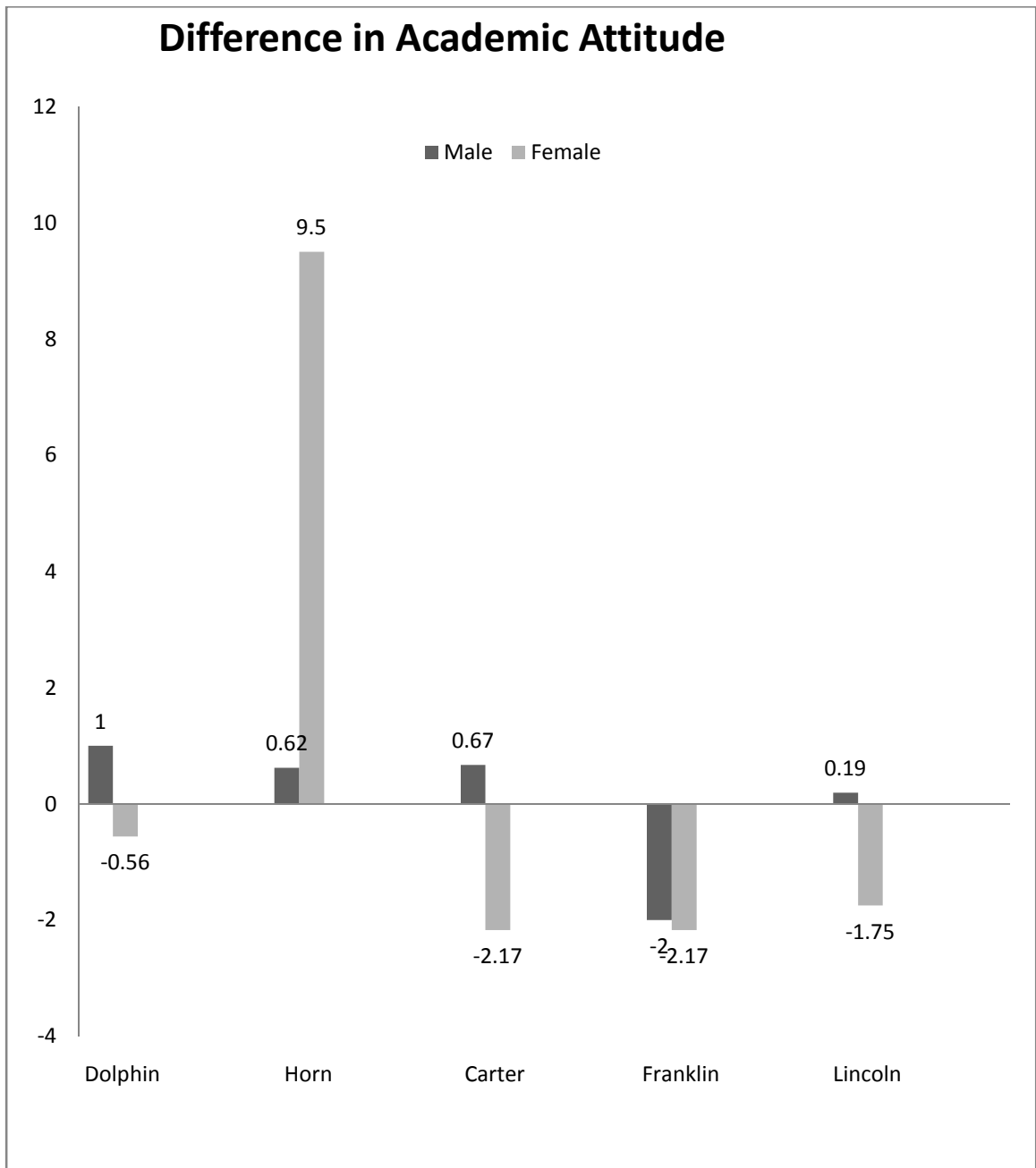


Figure 5. Difference in Academic Attitude in Regards to Gender and School Site

Tukey Test

To determine more precisely which sites differed in regards to academic attitude from each other by a statistically significant amount, a Tukey test of all pair wise comparisons was conducted. The Tukey test can be used as a post hoc procedure to determine where the significant differences lie while maintaining the overall alpha rate at .05. The mean differences and confidence intervals around these differences are presented in Table 15. The results indicate that although there was variation amongst the sites, the variation could not be pinpointed to an exact variation between sites. This could be due to the small sample size at some of the sites.

Table 15

Tukey's Studentized Range for Difference in Academic Attitude

Site Comparison	Difference between Means	Confidence Limits	
H-C	1.17	-4.82	7.16
H-D	2.53	-3.05	8.11
H-L	3.22	-1.63	8.08
H-F	4.80	-1.50	11.09
C-D	1.36	-4.63	7.35
C-L	2.05	-3.30	7.38
C-F	3.63	-3.03	10.30
D-L	.70	-4.16	5.55
D-F	2.27	-4.03	8.56
L-F	1.58	-4.09	7.24

Total Attitude

Finally, the researcher examined variable differences in total attitude. A summary table for the ANOVA on total attitude is provided in Table 16. When gender was examined, the obtained [$F(1, 90) = 1.42, p = .24$], was judged not to be statistically significant using a predetermined Type 1 error rate of .05. This indicates that the observed difference in total attitude for the male students is not different enough from the observed difference in attitude for the female students to conclude that total attitude

differences would differ across gender in the population. The p -value of .24 suggests that it is reasonable to accept the null hypothesis and conclude that there is not a difference in total attitude based on gender.

When school site was examined, in regards to total attitude the obtained [$F(4, 90) = 2.23, p = .07$] was also judged not to be statistically significant using a predetermined Type 1 error rate of .05. This indicates that the observed difference in attitude based on school site is not different enough to conclude that total attitude differences would exist across school site in the general population. The p -value of .07 suggests that it is reasonable to accept the null hypothesis and conclude that there is not a difference in total attitude based on school site.

When the interaction between gender and school site was examined, the obtained [$F(4, 90) = 2.28, p = .07$], was judged not to be statistically significant using a predetermined Type 1 error rate of .05. This indicates that the observed difference in total attitude based on males and females at one school site is not different enough from the difference in total attitude of males and females at another school site to conclude that total attitude differences would exist across gender and site in the population.

Table 16

Variable Differences in Total Attitude

Source	SS	MS	F Value	<i>p</i>
Gender	152.35	152.35	1.42	.24
Site	955.82	238.96	2.23	.07
Gender*Site	977.81	244.45	2.28	.07
Error	8675.26	107.1		

Table 17

Difference in Total Attitude in Regards to Gender and School Site

Site/Gender	N	M	SD	SK	KU
Dolphin Male	8	1.75	10.50	-1.19	1.07
Dolphin Female	9	-2.67	8.81	-0.54	-0.77
Horn Male	13	.69	10.14	.15	2.40
Horn Female	4	15	17.53	.84	-0.79
Carter Male	6	-2.5	9.90	.66	-1.18
Carter Female	7	2.86	3.53	-0.60	-0.43
Franklin Male	5	-2.	3.46	-1.92	3.67
Franklin Female	6	-1.5	4.60	1.52	2.73
Lincoln Male	21	.67	13.32	.36	-0.27
Lincoln Female	12	-3.83	8.17	-.41	-0.88

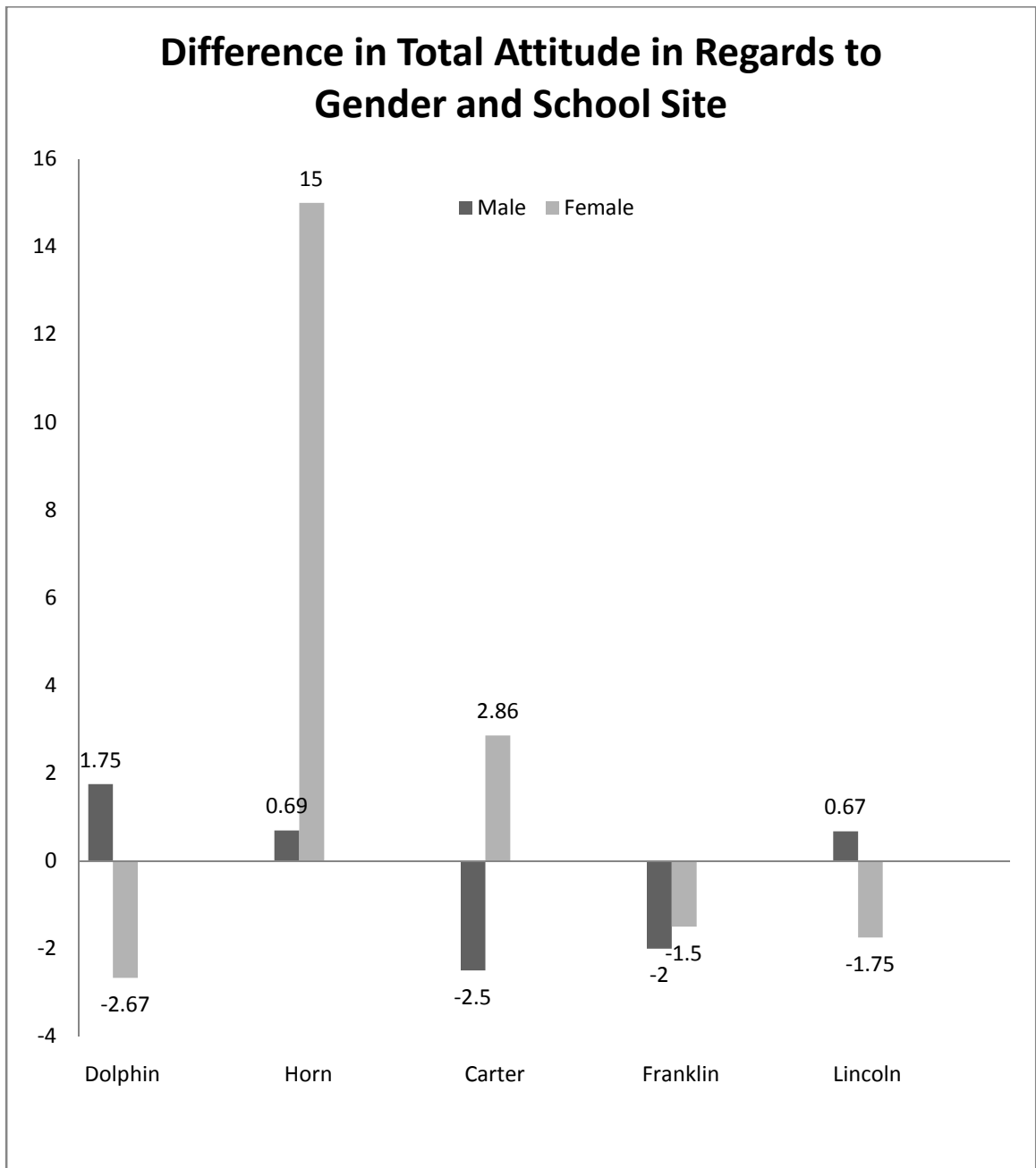


Figure 6. Difference in Total Attitude in Regards to Gender and School Site

Table 17 provides specific information in regards to the sample size, mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values for the changes in total attitude based on school site and gender. This figure indicates high variability amongst the sample sizes of the sub-groups. Additionally, although differences in scores are noted, there are no trends in scores based on gender or site. The histogram shown in Figure 4 provides a visual display of the mean change scores in regards to recreational attitude on the ERAS based on school site and gender.

Summary of Quantitative Findings

In summary, the findings from an investigation on the fidelity data revealed that although the district conducted 177 fidelity checks on the implementation of *Voyager Passport* during summer school, because there is no norming data on the fidelity measure the researcher is unable to conclude that the intervention was implemented with fidelity.

An examination of the assumptions underlying a dependent measures *t*-test revealed no violations that would be considered problematic. A dependent measures *t*-test revealed little differences between mean test scores and levels of time. The results of the two-way factorial ANOVAs indicate that changes in recreational attitude and total reading attitude following summer school using *Voyager Passport* as an intervention with third-grade struggling readers were not statistically significant. Additionally, the interaction between recreational attitude and school site was not statistically significant. When academic attitude was examined the results indicated that changes in academic attitude were statistically significant based on the summer school site. However, the results of the follow-up Tukey test indicated that although there was variation amongst the sites, the variation could not be pinpointed to where the exact significance lies. This

could be due to the small sample size at some of the sites. Thus, overall, the results of the quantitative portion of the study revealed no significant differences in students' attitudes following summer school using a scripted literacy program.

Qualitative Findings

The findings in this section address the following research question: What do elementary struggling readers perceive to be the effect of a scripted summer school literacy program on their attitude towards reading? The intent of this question was to target a group of 4-6 students from each classroom at the five summer school sites. The main purpose of the focus groups was to allow the students to discuss and articulate in their own language their perception of how summer school using a scripted literacy program impacted their attitudes about reading.

In an effort to observe the students' attitudes during summer school lessons, field notes were gathered during weekly classroom observations at each of the five sites. To complete the triangulation, focus groups were then conducted using these same targeted students the last week of summer school. Although children are at the center of the No Child Left Behind Legislation, because politicians are representing them, often the children's voices are excluded. This "exclusion of the voices of children from the political culture of the public sphere has become commonplace" (Kulynych, 2001, p. 259).

While the survey portion of this study was vital, focus groups provided a way to meaningfully involve children in the research process. Thus, the purpose of the focus groups was to "get inside the heads" (Langford & McDonagh, 2003; Johnson & Christensen, 2004) of the struggling third-grade readers to determine their perceptions on

how a scripted literacy program had impacted their attitudes toward reading. Data collected through classroom observations and focus groups provided the researcher with a more in-depth understanding of struggling readers' perceptions of their reading attitudes than would have been obtained from just the ERAS (McKenna & Kear, 1990).

This section begins with information on the focus group participants. Then the researcher presents classroom vignettes consisting of a narrative description of each of the summer school sites, targeted classrooms and interviews with the targeted classroom teachers. Next, the findings from the field notes gathered during classroom observations are presented. Finally, the researcher presents the results of the focus groups.

Focus Group Participants

A nested portion of the quantitative sample was selected to participate in the focus groups. The selection criteria were originally based on students' initial attitude score on the ERAS (McKenna & Kear, 1990). The researcher's original intent was to intentionally select participants for focus groups whose initial full scale raw score attitude on the ERAS (McKenna & Kear, 1990) represented three distinct levels (0-40 low, 41-60 average, and 61-80 high). When selecting these students for each of the individual focus groups, the researcher attempted to select students with different levels of attitude scores. However, because the district wanted to have interruptions in classrooms kept at a minimum, they asked that the focus group participants come from just one classroom at each individual site. This was challenging because of the variation in numbers of returned consent forms at the different sites. The site with the most returned consent forms was Lincoln where 34 students had permission to participate in the study. Two sites (Carter and Franklin) had just 12 students with permission to participate in the study. This

variability in regards to site made it impossible to select a classroom at each school site with participants whose scores on the ERAS (McKenna & Kear, 1990) varied according to the selection criteria.

Additionally, only 10 of the 91 students who had parent consent to participate in the study had initial attitudes in the low range. This further complicated the selection process, and meant that ultimately, of the 22 children involved in focus groups, only two students (10%) had initial low attitudes. Therefore, the focus group participants were not always made up of two students with high attitudes, two students with average attitudes and two students with low attitudes as measured by the initial ERAS (McKenna & Kear, 1990). This also meant that not all of the children had strong verbal skills. These complications in recruitment of focus groups participants had an effect on the group dynamics and ultimately influenced the content of the focus groups. Specific information on each of the targeted focus group participants is provided in Table 20.

The literature on focus groups provides varying advice in regards to the ideal size for focus groups (Morgan & Krueger, 1997). When considering group size, Edmunds (1999) recommends that researchers work with mini groups of five or six participants. Although the researcher intended to have five to six students in each of the focus groups, in the end focus groups ranged from three to five participants. The small groups reflected the practicalities of recruitment and last minute drop outs due to absences. Conversely, the focus group made up of just three participants was tiring for all involved and was less of a focus group and more of an interview. In all, although 24 students were targeted and observed, only 22 students from five summer school sites took part in the actual focus groups (see Table 18).

Table 18

Number of Focus Group Participants by Site

Site	Teacher	Number of Students
Horn	Mr. Owl	5
Dolphin	Mrs. White	3
Carter	Mrs. Fields	5
Lincoln	Mrs. Smith	5
Franklin	Mrs. Golden	4

The 22 students selected for focus groups varied in regards to school site, ethnicity, gender, previous retentions, and initial and final ERAS raw scores (McKenna & Kear, 1990) (See Table 18 and Figures 7 and 8). In regards to gender 45 percent of the participants were male and 55 percent of the participants were female. When ethnicity was considered, Hispanic students represented 55 percent of the focus group participants. The ethnicity of the remaining participants was Caucasian (18 percent), African-American (23 percent), and Korean (4 percent). In regards to initial attitude as measured by the ERAS, nine percent of students had an initial attitude that was low (0-40), 36 percent had an initial attitude that was considered average (41-60), and 55 percent had an initial attitude that was considered high (61-80).

Table 19

Information on Focus Group Participants (n=22)

Name	ID#	Site	Gender	Ethnicity	Prior Retentions	Initial ERAS	Final ERAS	Diff
Jill	24	Horn	Female	Hispanic	No	48 (average)	52	+4
Yasmin	29	Horn	Female	Hispanic	No	64 (high)	63	-1
Mark	23	Horn	Male	Hispanic	Yes	71 (high)	74	+3
Alex	22	Horn	Male	Hispanic	No	46 (average)	53	+7
Eriberto	21	Horn	Male	Hispanic	No	47 (average)	49	+2

Allison	54	Dolphin	Female	Caucasian	No	53 (average)	*	*
Daisy	55	Dolphin	Female	African American	Yes	38 (low)	27	-11
Peter	56	Dolphin	Male	Hispanic	No	60 (average)	67	+7

Mary	2	Carter	Female	Hispanic	Yes	71 (high)	74	+3

Table 19 Continued

Information on Focus Group Participants (n=22)

Name	ID#	Site	Gender	Ethnicity	Prior Retentions	Initial ERAS	Final ERAS	Diff.
Jane	5	Carter	Female	Hispanic	Yes	67 (high)	69	+2
Jesus	4	Carter	Male	Hispanic	Yes	43 (average)	41	-2
Juan	1	Carter	Male	Hispanic	No	67 (high)	66	-1
Eric	3	Carter	Male	Hispanic	No	66 (high)	56	-10

Daphney	38	Franklin	Female	African American	Yes	37 (low)	44	+7
Terrance	39	Franklin	Male	African American	Yes	78 (high)	76	-2
Lucy	37	Franklin	Female	Hispanic	No	73 (high)	72	-1
Rene	40	Franklin	Female	Korean	No	78 (high)	76	-2

Table 19 Continued

Information on Focus Group Participants (n=22)

Name	ID#	Site	Gender	Ethnicity	Prior Retentions	Initial ERAS	Final ERAS	Diff.
Carl	56	Lincoln	Male	Caucasian	Yes	60 (average)	67	+7
Allan	71	Lincoln	Male	Caucasian	No	65 (high)	75	+10
Sydney	68	Lincoln	Female	Caucasian	No	64 (high)	*	*
Shamika	70	Lincoln	Female	African American	Yes	58 (average)	41	-17
Alyssa	72	Lincoln	Female	African American	No	63 (high)	66	+3

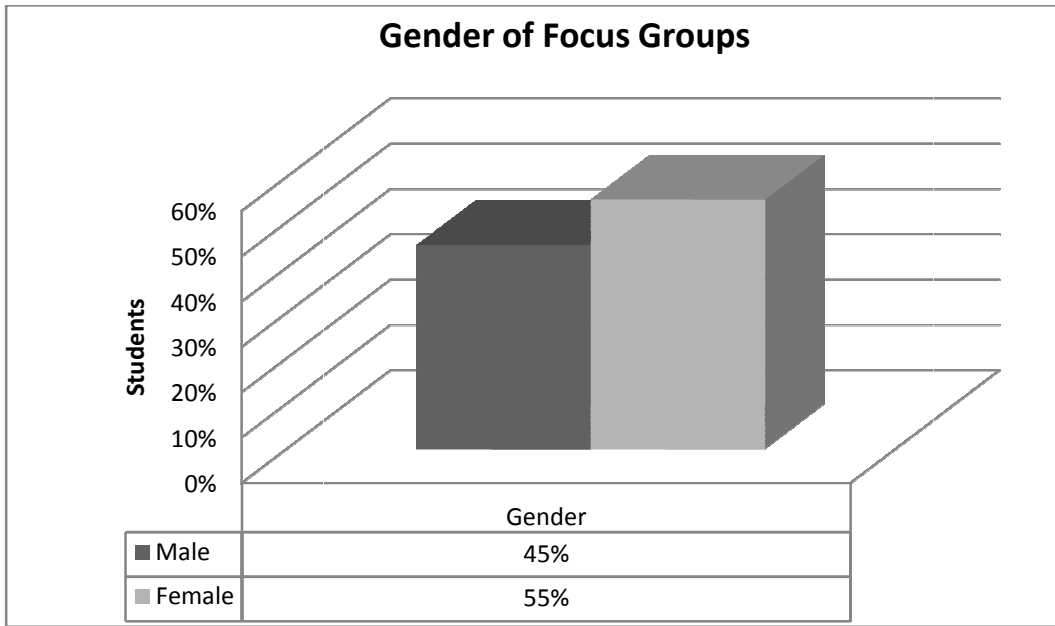


Figure 7. Gender of Focus Group Participants

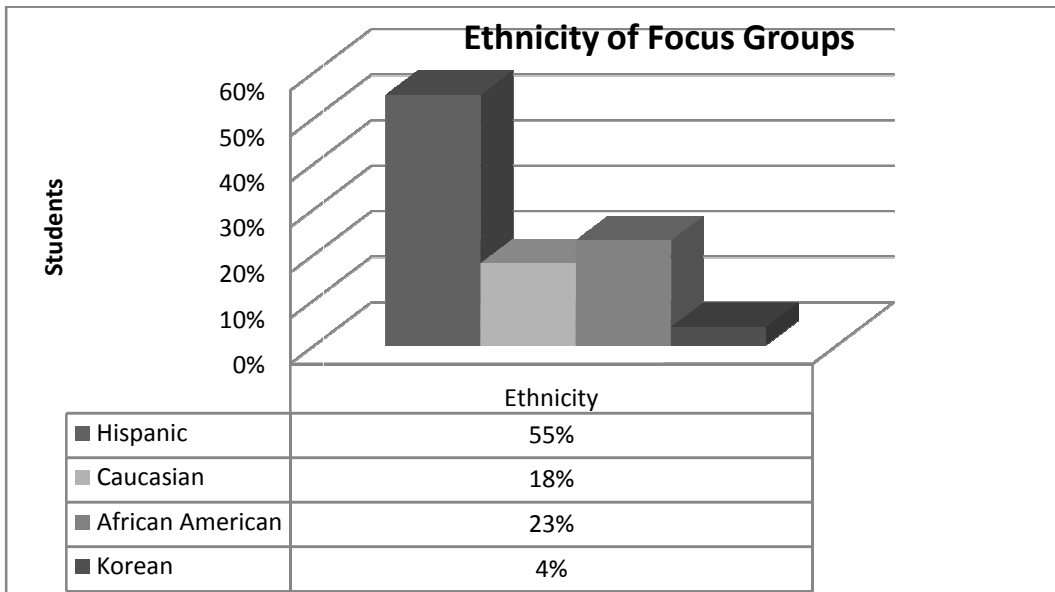


Figure 8. Ethnicity of Focus Group Participants

Classroom Observations

Observation was a valuable tool and an alternate source of data for triangulation with information gathered through focus groups and ERAS surveys (Adler & Adler, 1994). Although focus groups provided a snapshot of the students' attitudes the last week of summer school, throughout summer school the researcher spent time each week at the five different summer school sites observing targeted students in their summer school classrooms. The classroom observations lasted approximately 45 minutes and took place during varied times throughout the day. The purpose of the observations was to gather field notes which would offer support for the focus group findings and the survey. Additionally, these observations allowed the researcher to see what it was like inside each of the targeted classrooms. Field notes were taken using a laptop computer during weekly classroom observations at each of the summer school sites for a total of four or five site visits per school in addition to the focus group that was held the last week.

When gathering field notes, the researcher used anecdotal notes to record a description of the adults and children in the classroom, activities that were taking place, conversations that were going on, and the attitude of the children during the observation (Bogdan & Biklin, 1998). Next, upon returning home, the researcher read through the anecdotal notes taken that day and added anything that was not included. From the anecdotal records, the researcher provided a generalized description of the observations described in the anecdotal records (Tjora, 2006). Then the researcher relied on a priori categories to code the observation and interpret the child's attitude. Next, the researcher quantified the data by counting how many times the category was observed (Tjora, 2006).

Finally a cross case analysis of the findings was done on the data to look for patterns across sites (see Appendix R).

Field note Analysis

Content analysis allows inferences to be made which can then be corroborated using other methods of data collection (Krippendorff, 1980). When coding the data, since the researcher had already established the categories of the observations the researcher relied on a priori coding. A priori coding is defined as, “Coding where the categories are established prior to the analysis” (Stemler, 2001). In the case of activity structures during summer school, the categories were based on a mandate from *Just Read Florida* that specifically stated which approved activities could take place during the summer school day. During the visits the researcher observed students engaged in the following activity structures which were also the a priori categories: small group *Voyager Passport* lessons; *Voyager* fluency lessons where the students participated in timed reads; *Voyager Passport* whole group vocabulary lessons; literacy centers; independent reading; shared reading; workbook and teacher read aloud. Each of these activity structures are defined in Chapter 3.

When examining the reliability of a priori modeling, because it does not depend on established theories for support, it is important to ask questions such as whether or not the measure seems like a reasonable way to gain the information the researchers are attempting to obtain. Since the purpose of the classroom observations was to offer support for the focus group findings and the survey, and allow the researcher to see what it was like inside each of the targeted classrooms, the measure was an appropriate way to provide the researcher with the information.

During the observations the researcher also recorded the student's attitude using a Likert-type scale emulating the one used in The Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (McKenna & Kear, 1990). The scale ranked the children's attitude as enthusiastic, engaged, indifferent, off-task or withdrawn (Appendix L).

Case Vignettes

Case vignettes can be used to highlight important aspects in teaching. In this study, the researcher organized the findings from the classroom observations into one case vignette on each of the summer school sites. These vignettes included: the student enrollment at the site; the number of teachers at the site; a description of the school and neighborhood where the school was located; a description of the treatment the researcher received from the staff of the school (office, administration, classroom teacher); a description of the physical environment of the classroom; a description of the activities the students were engaged in during observations as well as their attitude during observations; and information about the classroom teacher including results of any interviews.

Horn Elementary Mr. Owl

There were 61 third-grade students who attended Horn Elementary School during the summer. Complete data were collected from 26 percent of the students. In regards to gender, twelve male students and four female students participated in the study. The students were taught by 6 different teachers. Horn Elementary was located in a rural part of town. During the regular school year, Horn Elementary was a magnet school for Mass Communications Graphic Art and Design. Additionally, the school held Title I status due to the high percentage of free and reduced lunch students who attended the school (85

percent). The school was rebuilt approximately ten years ago with a modern design. The buildings that housed the classrooms, media center, office, and cafeteria were arranged around a large, grassy courtyard. The grounds and school were all well kept and maintained with fresh paint and landscaping that had been cared for.

When the researcher visited the school the office staff was friendly and helpful. Although the researcher never had the opportunity to meet with either of the site administrators, they were both supportive of the study by e-mail. During the second campus visit when the researcher was trying to select a classroom to use for the study, the secretary helped the researcher to examine the class lists and determine which classroom had the most children with permission to participate in the study. Additionally, the third grade teachers returned all surveys and permission slips to the office in a timely manner.

The classroom was spacious and clean. The walls had a fresh coat of paint and the floors were carpeted in new carpet. There were windows along one wall, which allowed natural sunlight to stream into the classroom. The temperature of the classroom was comfortable. The desks were arranged in a large U shape. Additionally, areas of the room were set up for small group teaching areas and centers. The bulletin boards had paper on them and were also simply decorated.

The classroom the researcher observed in was taught by Mr. Owl, a middle aged Caucasian male. Mr. Owl was a ten-year veteran teacher who had made teaching his second career. His teaching experience came from teaching both the third and fourth grade. This was Mr. Owl's third year teaching summer school. Mr. Owl made the researcher feel comfortable in his classroom. When it was appropriate, Mr. Owl would talk with the researcher about how the students were doing.

When the researcher had the opportunity to talk with Mr. Owl he expressed his interest in struggling students and said, “I enjoy working with the students in summer school because they are all on an equal playing field. During the regular school year, the struggling students just get further behind. I believe in setting the kids up for success.” During an informal interview Mr. Owl expressed that he was very pleased with the results he was seeing in summer school. He explained that the teachers at his school had grouped the children homogeneously based on their reading ability. The teachers determined the students’ reading ability based on an initial *Voyager Passport* assessment that assessed how many words the students could read in one minute. The initial assessment was given at the beginning of summer school. The students in Mr. Owl’s class were the students who had scored the highest on the one minute timed read. Because of this Mr. Owl was not using the word study component of *Voyager Passport*, just the Comprehension and Vocabulary components. Mr. Owl stated that he had seen a lot of growth in vocabulary and fluency especially in the Hispanic students in his class.

I observed five students in Mr. Owl’s class, two girls and three boys. All five of the students were Hispanic. Only one of the five students had been retained before. A total of 20 student observations were conducted in Mr. Owl’s classroom during different parts of the summer school day. Although the times of the observations varied, every time the researcher observed in Mr. Owl’s classroom he was teaching a *Voyager Passport* lesson. These lessons ranged from small group to whole group lessons. Additionally, the researcher observed Mr. Owl doing “timed one-minute reads” with the students. During the observations of the five targeted students, the students were either reading independently or engaged in a *Voyager Passport* groups.

In regards to attitude during the observations, during 75 percent of the observations the students' attitudes appeared to be enthusiastic or engaged. These students exhibited behaviors such as sitting on the edge of their chair during lessons, begging Mr. Owl if they could go next, following along with their finger as they read the text, making eye contact with Mr. Owl and smiling, and raising their hand during lessons. During the visits to Mr. Owl's classroom the researcher observed two students who were off-task. One student kept turning around and watching the researcher while Mr. Owl was teaching. The other student was rolling around on the ground during independent reading time, and went into the bathroom for 10 minutes. The researcher did not observe any students in Mr. Owl's class who were indifferent or withdrawn during the observations.

Dolphin Elementary Mrs. White

There were 54 third-grade students who attended Dolphin Elementary School during the summer of 2007. Complete data were collected from 34 percent of the students. In regards to gender, eight male students and nine female students participated in the study. The students were taught by five different teachers. Dolphin Elementary was located in a neighborhood known for high crime incidents in a suburban part of town. The school held Title I status during the regular year due to the high percentage of free and reduced lunch students who attended the school (88 percent).

During the summer of 2007, Dolphin Elementary was in the process of being rebuilt next to the current campus. The buildings that housed the classrooms, media center, office, and cafeteria were all inside with wide air-conditioned hallways connecting the different parts of the campus. The lighting in the carpeted hallways was dim and the carpet was worn. There was a musty odor that lingered throughout the

school. There were tables and chairs in the center of the hallways for volunteers to work with students. The classrooms were all off of the main hallway. Teachers taught with their classroom doors open. Some of the classrooms contained windows. There were many boxes piled up in the hallways. Because a part of the campus had become a construction site and there were construction workers busily working on the new building the entrances to the school kept changing depending on the construction that day. Campus entrances and parking locations varied each week depending on the construction.

During each of the visits to the school the office staff on duty was always different. This meant that the researcher had to reintroduce herself during each visit and explain the purpose of her visit. The researcher had the opportunity to talk with one of the site administrators on the first day of summer school. During the meeting he told the researcher that although the district had asked that permission slips for the researcher's study be sent home with summer school students prior to summer school, he had decided not to send do so at his school because he did not think it was necessary.

During the second visit to the school, the researcher met with the same site administrator again, this time to ask for assistance in determining which classroom had the most students who had returned yes informed consents. The site administrator could not provide the researcher with class lists of the third-grade classrooms. Instead he escorted the researcher down to the first third-grade classroom, Mrs. White's room. There only ended up being four students in Mrs. White's Class who had permission to participate in the study.

The third grade-teachers at Dolphin Elementary did not return all surveys and permission slips to the office in a timely manner. There was confusion amongst the staff

in regards to where to turn the materials in and when to administer the surveys. The researcher had to go to the individual classrooms and ask the teachers for results of the post survey since in many cases they had not been returned to the office.

The targeted classroom at Dolphin Elementary School was taught by Mrs. White. Her classroom was small in comparison to some of the other classrooms at the site. The walls of the classroom contained paint that had become faded and discolored. The carpet on the floor was worn and stained. There were no windows, however there were two doors. One of the doors led outside and had mud stains on the frosted glass.

The temperature of the classroom was approximately 65 degrees, even though it was in the lower 90's outside. Many of the children wore bulky coats and sweaters inside the classroom. The desks were arranged in rows. There was a large kidney shaped table at the front of the room and a rectangular shaped table in the back of the room. Although there was a tape recorder in the back of the room, there were no literacy centers set up in the room. The bulletin boards did not have paper on them but there were some posters hanging on the boards as well as on the wall. Additionally, there was a dry erase board which contained a word wall. There were many boxes lined up around the outside perimeter of the classroom.

Mrs. White was a middle aged Caucasian female. This was Mrs. White's first year teaching summer school. There were a total of ten students in her class, six girls and four boys. Mrs. White was very busy teaching during all of the classroom visits which made it difficult for the researcher to have an opportunity to talk with her. During one incident the researcher stood next to the kidney shaped table and smiled during a *Voyager Passport* lesson waiting for Mrs. White to look up, but she never did. Rather, she

continued to teach and then announced it was time for lunch. As the children headed out the door she said, “I sure would like to visit with you!” In comparison to the other classroom visits, the researcher had the most trouble communicating with Mrs. White.

On one occasion while the students were working on phonics worksheets Mrs. White talked with the researcher about how the students progress in summer school. During this visit Mrs. White expressed her frustration that the children were at so many different levels. During the researcher’s observations the students displayed a flat affect. The majority of the talking that took place in the classroom was by Mrs. White. There was not ample wait time for the children to respond to the frequent comments and questions made by Mrs. White. For instance, during one visit she introduced a text by stating, “While I’m reading, I’m making a picture in my mind. Are you making a movie in your mind?” The students just stared at her blankly. No matter how much Mrs. White smiled and talked with the students, during all of the observations I never observed any of the students in her class smiling, laughing or talking. The students only responded to questions if they were called on specifically.

The researcher observed four students in Mrs. White’s class, three girls and one boy. Two of the students were African American, one student was Hispanic and one student was Caucasian. One of the students was absent during focus groups. Two of the four students had been retained before. One of the students was an ELL student with little experience using the English language.

A total of 18 student observations were conducted in Mrs. White’s classroom during different parts of the summer school day. During three of the four observations Mrs. White was teaching whole group *Voyager Passport* lessons. During these lessons

the ten students gathered around a kidney shaped table. Because there was not enough room for the children to fit around the table, there were actually two rows gathered around the table. During the fourth lesson all of the students were completing a phonics worksheet with a partner. While the students worked with a partner on the phonics worksheet the students smiled and talked with one another.

In regards to attitude during student observations, during 39 percent of the observations students' attitudes were classified as enthusiastic and engaged. During these observations the students talked with one another, smiled, read chorally, or raised their hand to volunteer an answer to a question. During 34 percent of the observations the students appeared indifferent. They did not comment, smile or raise their hand. During 22 percent of the observations students were off task. This was displayed by not following along in their reading book, putting their head down during a lesson, crossed arms, no expression, and looking around the room. During 5 percent of the observations the students appeared withdrawn. One student, on two separate observations, physically turned around during the lesson crossed her arms and stared at the wall with a sad look on her face.

Carter Elementary Mrs. Fields

There were 65 third grade students who attended Carter Elementary School during the summer of 2007. Complete data were collected from 18 percent of the students. In regards to gender the class was made up of five males and seven female students. The students were taught by seven different teachers. The school was located in a rural area and was a Title One School during the regular school year due to the high percentage of free and reduced lunch (90 percent).

The school was remodeled a few years ago and had adopted a multicultural theme. The hallways were painted bright colors and each hallway spotlighted a different country. A two story media center was the heart of the school. The classrooms, media center, office and cafeteria were all arranged under one roof with different wings all built around the media center. The campus was clean and appeared to have new carpet and new paint. There were windows in the classrooms which allowed natural sunlight into the classrooms. The school site was very clean.

When the researcher visited the school the office staff was friendly and helpful. The researcher was always greeted by the same secretary who always asked if she could help. As with Horn Elementary the researcher never had an opportunity to sit with the site administrators; however, the administrators were supportive via e-mail. Also like Horn Elementary on the second visit the secretary helped the researcher to examine the class lists and determine which classroom had the most children with permission to participate in the study. Additionally, the secretary provided the researcher with a map and explained how to get to the spotlighted teacher's classroom. The teachers at Carter Elementary were very cooperative and turned surveys and permission slips into the office in a timely manner.

Each hallway in the school was dedicated to a different country. Mrs. Field's classroom was located in The "Mexican" themed Hallway. On my first visit to the classroom, I could smell buttered popcorn before I entered her doorway. The classroom was freshly painted and had new carpet. The bulletin boards had nothing on them and there were only a few charts hanging up around the room. The lighting was dim in the classroom because only half of the lights were turned on. One of the corners of the

classroom was filled with packed cardboard boxes. The desks were arranged in two groups with all of the boys in one group and all of the girls in another group.

Mrs. Fields was a middle aged Hispanic female. She spoke often to the researcher and always welcomed the researcher to the room during each visit. Mrs. Fields frequently served food to her students. Additionally, she always offered candy, pretzels, popcorn or whatever treat the class was enjoying to the researcher. Mrs. Fields taught fifth grade, also at Carter Elementary School, during the school year. She had been teaching for twelve years and had taught summer school previously.

When the researcher had an opportunity to informally talk with Mrs. Fields she told me that although the students enjoyed the *Voyager Passport* lessons, she felt it was very rote to do *Voyager Passport* lessons all day long, therefore she felt it was important to supplement with other literacy activities. However, during the observations the researcher did not observe any supplemental literacy activities. Additionally, Mrs. Fields told the researcher that giving the children frequent treats and snacks “helped to keep them going”. Every time the researcher visited the children were eating some type of snack.

The researcher observed five students in Mrs. Fields classroom, two girls and three boys. All five students were Hispanic. Three of the five students had been retained in first grade. A total of 5 observations and 30 student observations were done by the researcher in Mrs. Fields Classroom. The researcher observed *Voyager Passport* taught whole group with all of the students in their seats as well as *Voyager Passport* taught small group with some of the students gathered around a kidney shaped table. Additionally, the researcher observed the students partner reading.

In regards to attitude, the results indicated that the students were enthusiastic or engaged during 83 percent of the observations. This was evidenced by students raising their hands, smiling, being on task during games and offering answers to questions. None of the targeted students were withdrawn during any of the observations. An additional 6 percent of the students were off task during independent reading. One played with flashcards during a whole group lesson. The other student spent a long time in the bathroom during a partner read. An additional 6 percent of students were indifferent, one during *Voyager* Whole Group and one during partner reading.

Lincoln Elementary Mrs. Smith

There were 80 students who attended Lincoln Elementary School. Complete data were collected from 43 percent of the students. Lincoln Elementary school had more returned yes informed consent papers than any other site. In regards to gender there were 23 male students and 11 female students. Lincoln Elementary School was located in a suburban neighborhood. The school was recently torn down and rebuilt. The new modern facility was very spacious. The entire building was two stories with high ceilings and large classrooms. Everything in the building was new including the furniture. The school was the only site that did not have Title One status during the school year.

The office staff was very attentive to the researcher's needs during the six weeks of summer school. Whenever the researcher e-mailed the site administrator she would forward the e-mail to her secretary who would take care of any requests. When the researcher arrived at the school for the second visit the site administrator was waiting for her. She had already asked her secretary to have class lists ready. This made it very easy for the researcher to select a class to work with. The selected classroom had gathered 90

percent of the informed consents back. The site administrator then walked the researcher upstairs to Mrs. Smith's classroom.

When the researcher arrived in Mrs. Smith's classroom the first thing she noticed was that the classroom was decorated for summer school. There were attractive bulletin boards, a word wall, and colorful posters posted around the room. Unlike the other spotlighted classrooms, Mrs. Smith had adopted many of the classroom routines from the regular school year in her summer school classroom. For instance, she had "helpers" each day and a Helper bulletin board. Additionally, all of the children went to recess each day. The children completed a "Jumpstart" assignment relating to spelling patterns as they arrived each day. Each day Mrs. Smith would post the day's agenda at the front of the board. During the regular school year Mrs. Smith was a third grade teacher in an upper middle class neighborhood. She had taught summer school many times before.

Mrs. Smith had been teaching for 33 years and had experience teaching a variety of grades. Her knowledge of curriculum was evidenced by the way she asked higher order thought provoking questions to the students during lessons. The responses the students gave to questions offered further support for what the children were learning in school. She was a very thorough teacher which was evidenced by the use of the entire *Voyager Passport* program with all of her students, even the optional Word Study component and Progress Monitoring.

Mrs. Smith always spoke to the researcher when she was observing and offered her views and opinions on summer school freely during each of the visits. When the researcher had the opportunity to talk with Mrs. Smith about summer school she said that the student's enthusiasm and attitudes increased throughout the day and that they were

very quiet and withdrawn in the morning, but by the end of the day they were focused and energetic.

When the researcher asked Mrs. Smith how *Voyager Passport* was going, she began to talk about the different components of the program. She first explained to the researcher that she was using the progress monitoring component with all of her students even though it was not required in summer school. The progress monitoring component allows a teacher to measure a child's fluency growth every five lessons. She was also using the optional word study or phonics program with all of her students, even though *Voyager* recommended that this piece only be used with students who scored below a 44 words per minute on a grade level reading passage.

Five students were observed in Mrs. Smith's room, two boys and three girls. Three students were Caucasian and two students were African American. Two of the students had been retained in first grade. The researcher observed in Mrs. Smith's classroom 5 times as well as conducting one focus group. During the observations the researcher saw a variety of activities such as *Voyager* small group, *Voyager* Timed read, *Voyager* whole group, centers, workbook activities and partner reading. During each of the observations *Voyager Passport* lessons were taking place with either the whole class or a small group. Therefore, the researcher was able to observe both *Voyager Passport* lessons as well as what the other children were doing during small group *Voyager Passport* lessons. In regards to attitude during 84 percent of the observations students appeared enthusiastic or engaged. This was higher than any of the other sites in regards to attitude. An additional 16 percent of the observations were indifferent or off-task. None of the observations revealed students who were withdrawn.

Franklin Elementary Mrs. Golden

There were a total of 76 students taught by six teachers who attended summer school at Franklin Elementary School. Complete data were collected from 16 percent of the summer school students. In regards to gender there were five male students and seven female students.

The school was located in a suburban area of town. Like many of the other schools included in the study, the school was rebuilt approximately ten years ago. The campus was mainly outdoors, with separate wings for the office, Media Center, and classrooms. The school was considered a Title One school during the school year due to the number of students who qualified for free and reduced lunch (78 percent).

When the researcher visited the school the office staff was friendly and helpful. During the second visit when the researcher was trying to select a classroom to use in the study, the other site administrator was very helpful. He went through all of the class lists and helped the researcher to figure out what class to use. Then the site administrator walked the researcher up to the classroom and introduced her to the classroom teacher. Although the third grade teachers returned all surveys and permission slips to the office in a timely manner, the percentage of returned informed consents was only 12 percent making it one of the lowest schools in regards to student participation in the study.

The classroom was spacious, clean and decorated with posters and charts. The bulletin boards had paper on them and had been decorated for summer. The room had new carpet and fresh paint and was spacious. There were ample windows and the lighting was optimal. The classroom teacher was friendly to the researcher and available to talk with her during each visit. The desks were arranged in a u-shape. Although Mrs. Golden

had only been teaching for four years, she had strong classroom management. This was evidenced through consequences the researcher observed for students not abiding by the classroom rules.

Mrs. Golden had a different way of breaking up the summer school day than the other targeted classrooms. The day began with 2 small group *Voyager* lessons. During the *Voyager Passport* lessons the children who were not engaged in a *Voyager* lesson visited literacy centers. Following the *Voyager* lesson Mrs. Golden team taught with the teacher next door. During this time the two classes listened to a teacher read aloud as well as participating in shared reading lessons using supplemental reading materials. Following lunch the class split back into two groups and had another round of *Voyager* lessons before going home.

Mrs. Golden offered her feelings about *Voyager Passport* and how it was being used as a summer school intervention. She told the researcher that many of the children in her summer school class had already been using *Voyager Passport* as an intervention during the school year. Further, some of the children had attended summer school last year and had used the same *Voyager Passport* materials/kit during that time as well. Because of this Mrs. Golden felt that the children were “tired” of using it. She shared with the researcher her view that she really saw a change in attitude during *Voyager Passport* lessons. When commenting on doing *Voyager Passport* lessons during the afternoon she said, “From 12:30 to 1:30 we do a *Voyager* lesson and it’s like pulling teeth.” Additionally, Mrs. Golden felt that the summer school day was much too long. She felt that it should be over at 12:30 instead of 1:30.

Mrs. Golden said that in addition to *Voyager* she had to supplement with additional literacy activities. She said the students really enjoyed writing supplements consisting of descriptive writing as well as lessons using Venn Diagrams to compare and contrast different books. During my observations at Franklin Elementary School I often observed the ELL students received “push in” services from an ELL teacher. Additionally, the reading coach at the site pulled a small group of students out for remediation. This was the only site where the researcher encountered the reading coach or ELL teacher interacting with the children she was observing.

Four students were observed in Mrs. Golden’s culturally diverse class. The researcher observed one African American male and one African American female, a Korean female, and a Hispanic female. A total of four classroom visits and 20 student observations were done in addition to the focus group. During those five observations the researcher saw activities such as *Voyager Passport* small group, Centers, Shared Reading and Read Aloud. Mrs. Franklin classroom was the only class where the researcher observed a shared reading lesson as well as a read aloud lesson. The observations from Franklin Elementary revealed that the majority of the lessons observed were small group *Voyager Passport* lessons. Additionally, it was the only class where the researcher observed team teaching.

In regards to attitude during the observed lessons, none of the students displayed enthusiastic attitudes during any of the observations. However, 70 percent displayed engaged attitudes, 25 percent of the student observations were off task, and an additional 5 percent were withdrawn. The off task student observations were not limited to one

teaching method, but rather were spread out amongst *Voyager* small group, centers, shared reading and read aloud.

Table 20

Student Observations During Summer School

Activity	N	Enthusiastic	Engaged	Indifferent	Off Task	Withdrawn
<i>Voyager</i> Small Group	37 (32%)	7 (19%)	17 (46%)	7 (19%)	5 (14%)	1 (2%)
<i>Voyager</i> Timed Read	10 (9%)	6 (60%)	4 (40%)	0	0	0
<i>Voyager</i> Whole Group	36 (32%)	10 (28%)	11(31%)	7 (19%)	3 (8%)	5(14%)
Centers	5 (4%)	0	4 (80%)	0	1 (20%)	0
Independent Reading	5 (4%)	1 (20%)	1 (20%)	0	3 (60%)	0
Shared Reading	1 (.9%)	0	0	0	1 (100%)	0
Partner Reading	8 (7%)	2 (25%)	3 (37%)	1 (13%)	1 (13%)	1(13%)
Teacher Read Aloud	4 (4%)	0	3 (75%)	0	1 (25%)	0
Workbook	8 (7%)	5 (62%)	2 (25%)	0	1 (13%)	0

Cross Case Analysis

The purpose of the classroom observations and the resulting classroom vignettes was to gather field notes which would offer support for the focus group findings and the ERAS survey. Additionally, these observations allowed the researcher to see what it was like inside each of the targeted classrooms. The field notes provide a description of the different activities that the children participated in during summer school and their resulting attitudes. During this analysis, patterns emerged across the sites. Given the results of the five case vignettes, this section briefly highlights the key similarities and differences in the patterns that emerged across each of the sites.

Pattern 1: Teacher's Thoughts on Voyager Passport

One pattern that emerged involved the classroom teacher's thoughts on *Voyager Passport*. Four of the five teachers interviewed felt that *Voyager Passport* was unable to stand alone in summer school and therefore they had to supplement the program with other materials. One of the teachers said, "I am having to supplement (the program) with additional literacy activities. The students really enjoy writing supplements consisting of descriptive writing as well as lessons using Venn Diagrams to compare and contrast". Another teacher offered support for supplementing *Voyager* by saying, "The students enjoy the stories in the *Voyager* books, but it's just too rote to do it all day long. I think it's important to supplement with other literacy activities". Yet another teacher felt that *Voyager* was not meeting the needs of her lowest students, "My students are at so many different levels. For the kids that are struggling I had to pull some phonics work sheets. Many of the children in my class seem to lack phonics". A fourth teacher said, "I am

using the entire program, even the optional components and I still have to supplement”. However, a fifth teacher felt that *Voyager Passport* was meeting the needs of his kids. When asked about *Voyager Passport* his response was, “Even though some of the kids had *Voyager* during the school year, it’s not an issue in summer school. They are still attending class and still seem interested”. This pattern in regards to supplemental materials being used during summer school may impact the study in regards to fidelity. If other methods were used in addition to *Voyager Passport*, this may have played an important part in why the students’ attitudes about reading did not change.

Pattern 2: Teacher Characteristics

Another pattern that emerged throughout the classroom visits was in regards to the classroom teacher. All five teachers displayed strong classroom management skills. This was evidenced by the lack of behavior issues that occurred while the researcher was observing. Additionally, all five teachers were kind and caring to their students. This was evidenced by the way they spoke to the children and by the tangible and intangible rewards they offered the children (smiles, hugs, kind words, candy, popcorn, etc.). Four of the five teachers appeared to be connected to their students. This was evidenced by the way they looked at their students when they spoke, answered questions, and when necessary redirected the students. For instance, during one observation the teacher was teaching a small group *Voyager Passport* lesson while another group of students were working on a vocabulary lesson at a literacy center in the back of the room. One of the children’s voices could be heard above all the others. Without getting up from her group the teacher said, “Daphney are you playing ring leader back there? All I am hearing is

your voice. This is your last warning. I like that you are working together but you are way too loud”.

Only one of the five teachers observed seemed to be disconnected to her students. This teacher was highly energetic and spoke to her children in a fast lively manner. When they didn't answer her questions, she just kept talking. For example, during one lesson the researcher observed the students were all sitting at a table around the teacher who was saying, “While I'm reading, I'm making a movie in my mind! Are you making a movie in your mind?” As the students stared at her blankly she kept talking. “Now I'm making a connection. Is anyone else making a connection?” This pattern may have impacted the findings as well. If the children wanted to please their classroom teacher, this may have influenced the way they responded to the ERAS.

Pattern 3: Activities During Observations

During the summer a total of 113 observations were conducted. The researcher coded the activity structure that took place during each observation. Due to the a priori design, the activity structures were in place prior to the observations. During the observations students participated in: 37 *Voyager* small group lessons, 10 *Voyager* Timed Reads, 36 *Voyager* whole group lessons, 5 literacy center activities, 5 independent reads, 1 shared reading lesson, 7 partner reading activities, 4 teacher read alouds, and 8 workbook pages. An interesting finding emerged from this pattern that may have impacted the study results. *Voyager* was being taught whole group during 32% of the classroom visits. *Voyager* is not intended to be taught whole group. Rather, *Voyager Passport* lessons are designed for use with groups of no more than 5 students. This information was given to teachers during the summer school training (Appendix O). This

fidelity issue may have impacted the fidelity of the implementation which might have impacted the results.

Pattern 4: Differences in Teaching Methods

Another pattern that emerged during the cross case analyses involved the use of varying materials and teaching methods during summer school. One of the teachers I observed was using a team teaching model where during the morning she taught her class *Voyager* lessons but in the afternoon the two teachers “team taught”. I observed their team teaching model on one occasion. All of the students were gathered together for a shared reading lesson which was taught by one of the teachers to the entire group. During the lesson the other teacher and the ESOL summer school resource teacher were observing. At another site, on the first day of summer school the children were put into homogeneous classes based on their fluency level as determined by how many words they could read in one minute on a grade level passage. Although the researcher was unaware that this ability grouping structure was in place until mid-summer, the class the researcher observed at that site was made up of the highest students. This may have impacted the focus group findings since the students in that particular focus group were likely to have higher reading attitudes.

Pattern 5: Students’ Attitudes during Observations

Attitudes were rated using a Likert-type scale that emulated the scale used in the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (McKenna & Kear, 1990) and rated attitudes as enthusiastic, engaged, indifferent, withdrawn, or off-task (See Appendix R). When attitude was examined across each site the findings show that during 67 percent of the classroom observations, students were engaged or enthusiastic, 13 percent of the students

were indifferent during the observed activity. The final 20 percent were withdrawn (15 percent) or off task (5 percent) (See Figure 9).

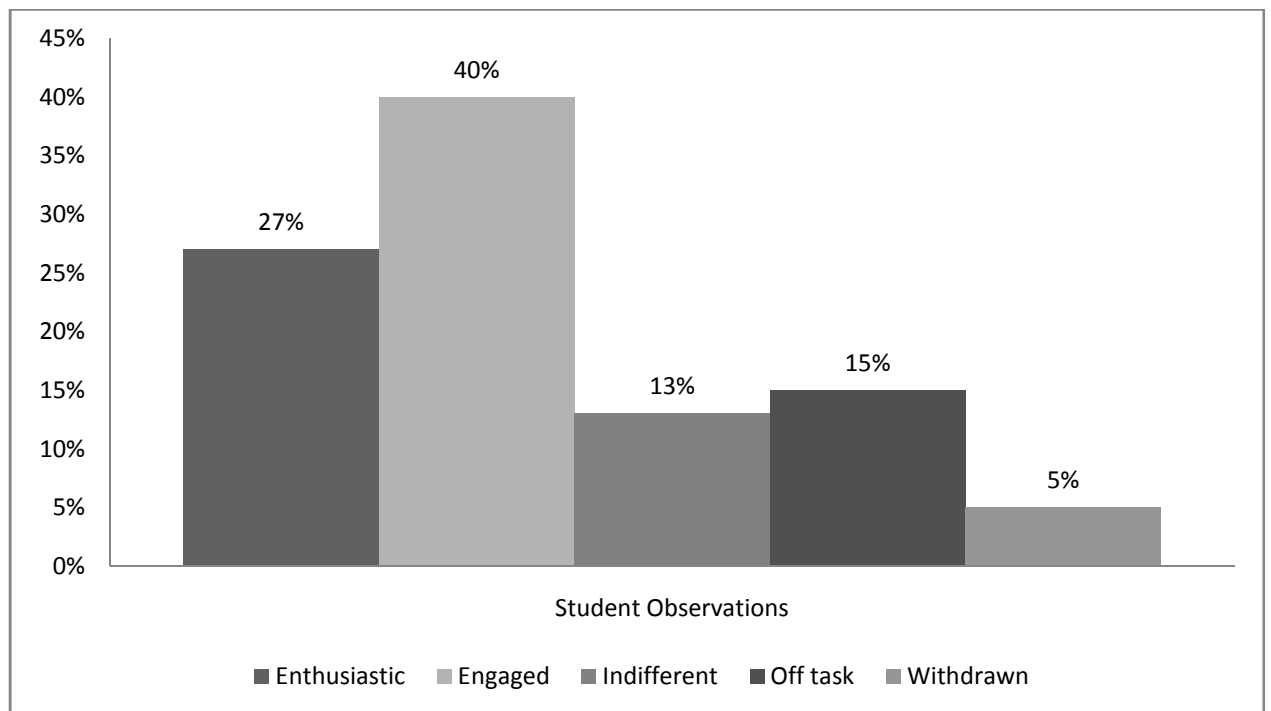


Figure 9. Summary of Attitudes of Classroom Observations of Targeted Students

Focus Groups

In an effort to achieve triangulation in the study, the final part of data collection involved direct interaction with selected struggling third-grade readers. The use of focus groups and classroom observations offered a more in-depth understanding of students' attitudes about reading than could have been obtained through a survey alone (Barbour & Kitzinger, 1999; Billson, 1994; Edmunds, 1999; Langford & McDonagh, 2003; and Morgan, 1988). The participants in the focus groups were the same students the researcher had been collecting field notes on during weekly observations of their classrooms during the six weeks of summer school.

Focus Groups were held the last week of summer school at each of the five sites. The researcher served as an observer and an outside moderator conducted the focus groups. The outside moderator was a fellow female graduate student who had been trained in qualitative methods and was accustomed to working with struggling readers. Stewart and Shamdasani (1990) advise that young children are often more comfortable with a female moderator. In order to increase data similarity across sites, the moderator used a protocol (See Appendix K). The protocol provided a framework for the discussion. The nature of the discussion was to find out what the students' attitudes about reading were following summer school (Langford & McDonagh, 2003; Johnson & Christensen, 2004). This was accomplished through asking a series of six questions.

These included:

1. Tell me about summer school. Which part of summer school do you like best?
2. Do you like reading? Why or why not?
3. What types of books do you like to read the most?
4. Does anyone read to you at home?
5. Have you noticed any changes in your feelings about reading this summer?
6. Tell me about *Voyager Passport*.

Focus groups were held in an empty classroom, conference room, media center, or empty hallway at the different research sites. Participants sat around a table, or in one case, on the floor in a circle. Focus group sessions were tape recorded by the researcher. The length of the focus groups varied, depending on how verbal the participants were.

The shortest focus group lasted 30 minutes and the longest lasted 60 minutes. The mean time was 44 minutes. Following introductions, ground rules and an initial warm-up which was a discussion on pets, the moderator began asking questions. Data were recorded by the researcher using a small tape recorder. Additionally, because recording equipment only records a limited amount of all behavior (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990) it was important to take notes and to document behavioral data as well as verbal responses. Both the researcher and the moderator took notes during the sessions.

Each focus group took on a personality of its own. Some of the groups naturally and sequentially answered one person at a time one question at a time (Dolphin n=3 and Horn n=5) while other groups (Lincoln n=5 and Franklin n=4) offered a great deal of thought provoking comments on each question. These comments often led to further discussions. Additionally, the students at Lincoln (n=5) and Franklin (n=4) “piggy backed” off one another’s responses. The questions merely served as starting points for a much deeper discussion when it came to the students from Lincoln and Franklin.

The students at Lincoln (n=5) and Franklin (n=4) displayed group cohesiveness (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). This was evidenced by the way they were influenced by each others’ responses. Research by Shaw and Shaw (1962) examined different patterns of interaction between high and low cohesive groups. Findings revealed that that high cohesive groups were more, “cooperative, friendly, and praise worthy of each others’ accomplishments” (Shaw & Shaw, 1962; Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). The group cohesiveness shown by the focus groups at Lincoln and Franklin was in direct contrast to the focus group from Dolphin (n=3).

The moderator had to probe the students at Dolphin in order to get them to respond to the questions. This included probing statements from the Focus Group protocol (Appendix S) such as, “Tell me more, I don’t quite understand, can you explain what you mean?” The students from Dolphin did not respond to each other’s comments. They displayed a flat affect during the focus group. Therefore, it is not surprising that the session at Dolphin was the shortest session. Although these findings are upsetting, they are not surprising given the small number of participants in this focus group.

Analysis of Focus Group Data

Following data collection, focus group data were transcribed by the researcher. These transcripts then formed the basis for further analysis. In regards to focus group analysis the process of analysis is the least agreed on and the least well developed. Further, an agreed on technique does not exist (Carey, 1995). It takes interpretation and insight to develop the meaning of a focus group discussion (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). In an effort to examine the meaning of the focus group discussions and its implications for research on struggling readers’ attitudes, the results of the focus group discussions were coded using semantic content analysis (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). Content analysis is defined by Krippendorff (1980) as, “a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context” (p. 21). The codes were words or brief phrases. However, it is important to understand that, “The recording or coding of individual units is not content analysis” (p. 112) (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). Stewart and Shamdasani recommend the use of “virtually any analytic tool” (p.113 when analyzing focus group data. In this study, the researcher used attribution analysis (Janis, 1965) to determine the frequency within which certain objects were mentioned. Next, the

researcher converted the frequency tables into percentages. Percentages are shown visually through pie graphs.

Inter rater reliability was accomplished by having a second rater code 20 percent of the answers to the questions to check to see if the codes were the same as those assigned by the researcher. There were two instances where there was a discrepancy. Specifically, both discrepancies involved students who gave an answer and then were probed. During the probe, they gave another answer. After collaborating, the researcher decided to accept both responses. The results of the semantic content analysis are presented below and organized by question.

What part of summer school do you like best? (n=22)

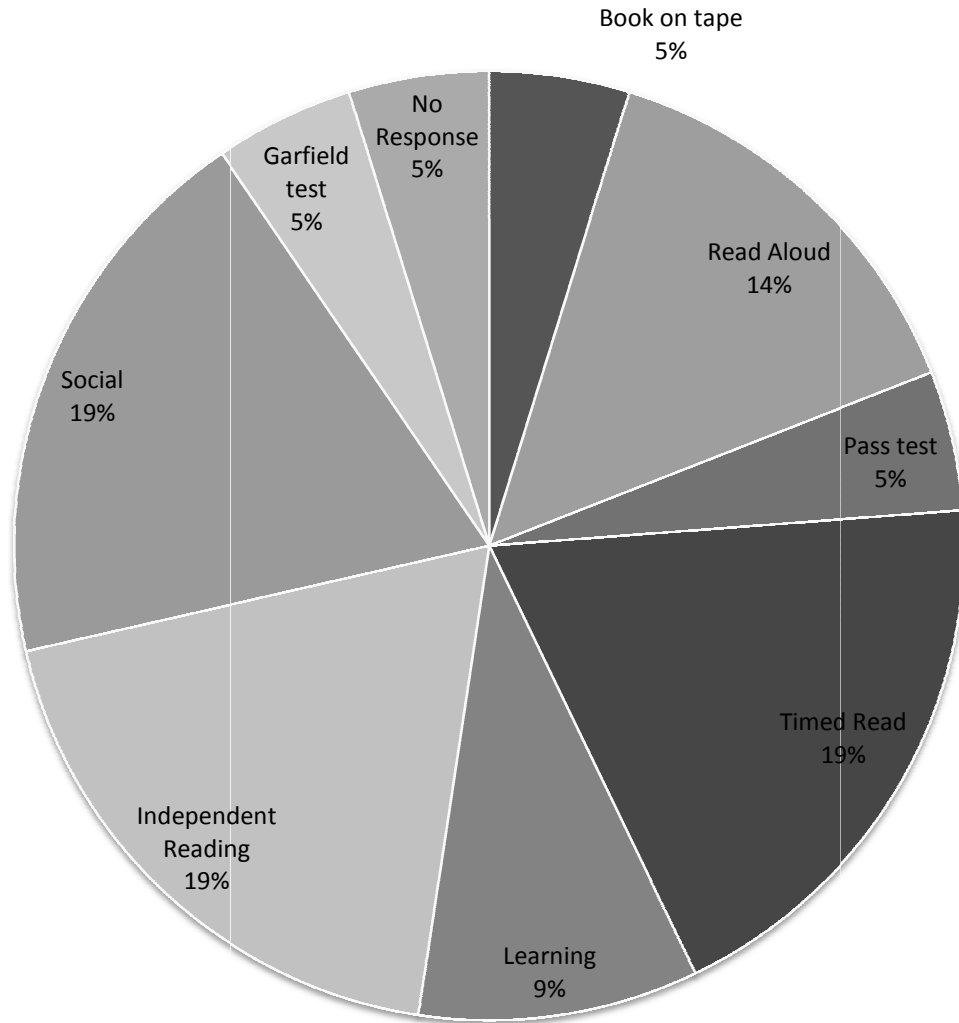


Figure 10. What part of summer school do you like best?

The focus groups began with the moderator asking the first question, “What part of summer school do you like best?” The three most frequent responses were timed reading (19 percent), independent reading (19 percent), and social aspects (19 percent). Additional students selected teacher read aloud, learning, book on tape, pass test, Garfield test, and No response (5 percent) (see Figure 10).

Some of the students offered academic responses. Four students talked about timed reading as their favorite part of summer school. When asked about her favorite part of summer school Mary replied, “The timed reading. You can read how many words in a minute. You know to beat your time”. Allan supported Mary’s response when he said, “My favorite part is the part where you get timed reading!” Daphney selected teacher read loud as her favorite part of summer school, “My teacher read us a really good book about summer camp out loud. I liked that”.

Other students’ answers revolved around learning. For instance, Rene said, “The games and teachers are all nice, you get to learn a lot, we get to learn reading”. Karyssa said, “You can learn more”. Shamika offered a mature response when she said, “Summer school is not just about recess it’s the fact that you are learning how to read, like last year I had trouble learning how to read so summer school gives me the opportunity to learn how to read”.

Other students enjoyed the social aspects summer school had to offer. For instance Daphney said, “I enjoy reading and I still go to recess. I can see my friends still and I like reading to my friends.” Lucy interjected and said, “Yeah, I get to meet new people and I can find new books and I can go to the library and get them. I like to go the

public library. I like the mall library too (She was referring to the bookstore) and you get to buy the books there”.

Other students’ answers reflected the real reason they were at summer school, to pass the Stanford 10 test. An interesting conversation about how focused the children were on the Stanford 10 test evolved when this question was asked to the students at Lincoln Elementary. Carl stated, “Well my friends said that summer school was prison but I say it’s not because you get to learn and you get to pass the test on July 13th”. Sydney added, “You know what’s funny is that is that the test is on July 13th and a lot of people say that’s a bad luck day”. Shamika then said, “Friday the 13th is only bad luck in the nighttime. We are taking the test in the morning”. Then they all said, “Yeah, it will be OK in the morning.” This conversation reveals the pressure that some of the children were feeling to pass the alternative test at the end of summer school. The students all knew that the only way they could be promoted to fourth grade was to pass the test.

**Do you like reading? Why or Why not?
(n= 22)**

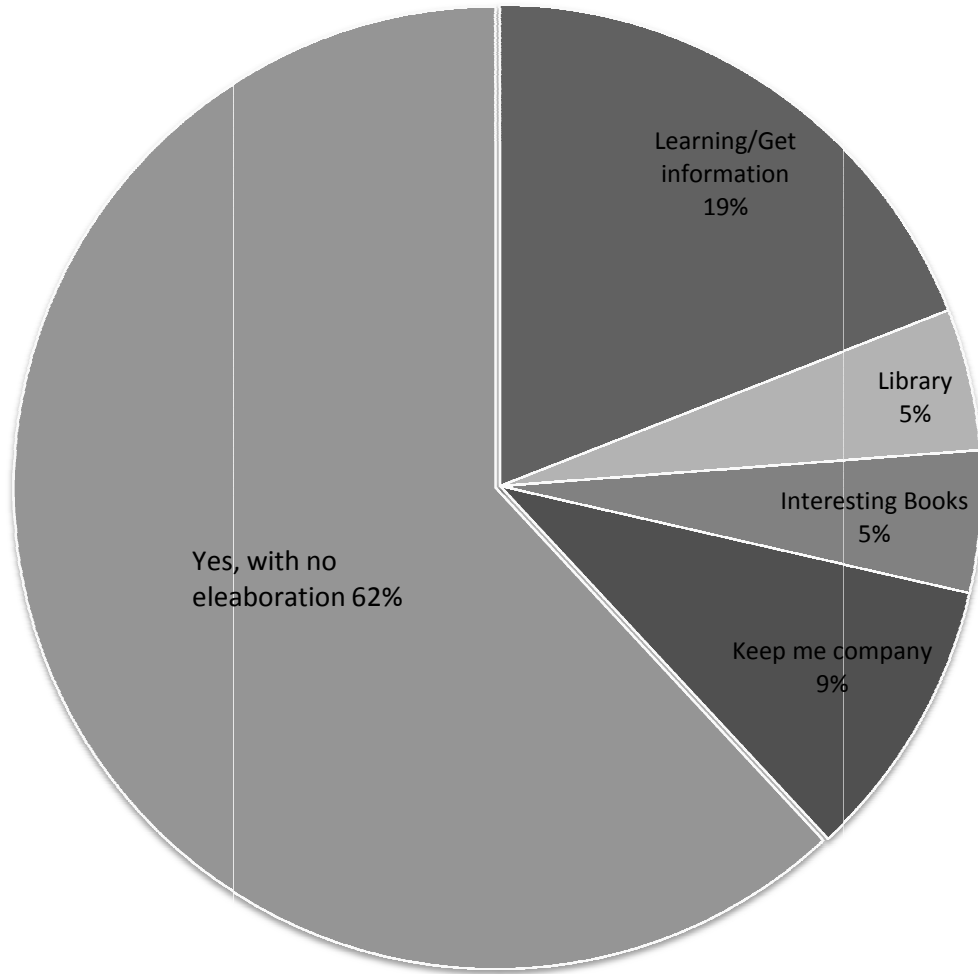


Figure 11

Do you like reading? Why or why not?

The second question asked students “Do you like reading? Why or why not?” Twenty students responded “Yes, they liked reading.” Only two students stated “No, they did not like reading”. However, although an initial yes/no answer did not appear to be hard for the children, many of them had a very hard time elaborating as to why they like or did not like reading. In fact, of the students who responded yes, 13 provided no elaboration.

Four students stated learning and getting information as the reason they liked to read. Rene said, “I like to read because you can learn about stuff and you can also learn about people and about things”. Carl said, “It gives you more information and you can learn better.”

Other students cited books as the reason they liked to read. Two students stated that books kept them company when they were alone. One of them, Juan elaborated, “Reading keeps me company because it’s the only thing I can do at home because I have no brothers or sisters”. Another student, Rene stated that she liked to read at night because she had a hard time sleeping. She said, “I get bored because I don’t sleep very much and I can read”. Shamika said, “I like reading because now I can relate to books. Last year I read the same book over and over and over and I got caught just in that one book”.

Some students said that although they liked reading, sometimes it kept them from other activities. Daphney said, “I love reading but sometimes I just want to watch TV and my Mom says Daphney did you read? Turn that TV off and go read now!” Lucy said, “I like to read but sometimes I just don’t want to read. Like I want to go outside and play with my friends”.

The two students who responded no when asked if they liked to read had differing reasons as to why they did not like to read. Terrance replied, “Well, I like reading a little. It’s just-I don’t like to read because I run out of breath”. When asked if he like to read Jesus replied, “Not really because it depends on what I’m reading. Like, if it’s boring. Here we read interesting books, but are home, well they are boring”.

**What types of books do you like to read?
(n=22)**

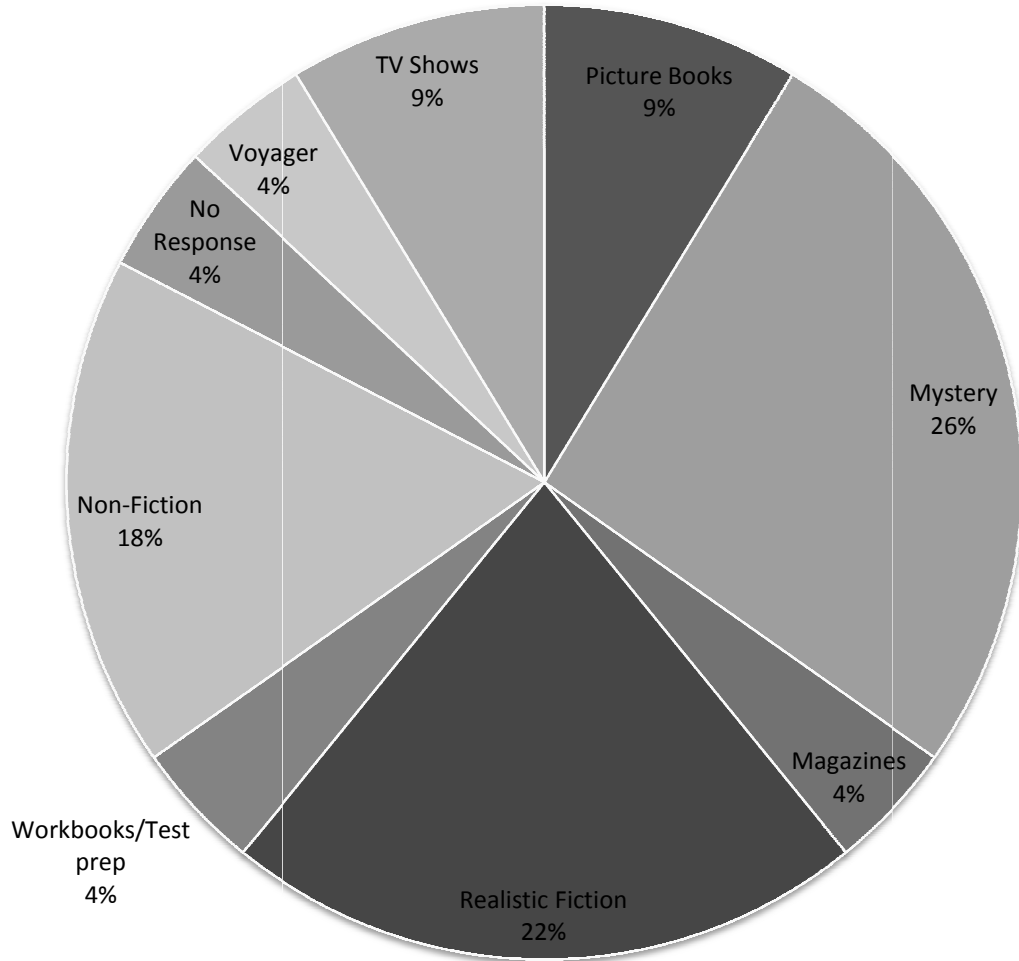


Figure 12. What types of books do you like to read?

The third question asked students what types of books they liked to read. This time 21 out of 22 students provided a response. Some of the responses offered specific authors and series that the students enjoyed reading. Realistic fiction was a favorite genre among the students. 22% of the students selected realistic fiction and continuously mentioned Junie B. Jones as a favorite series. Lucy said, “I like reading Pee Wee books and I love Harry Potter but my brother helps me read that because it’s hard. And I. I like reading just for the books”. Six students stated they liked mystery books. Many of those six specifically talked about the Magic Tree House series. Daphney said, “My teacher got me into reading The Magic Tree House Books and I also read Junie B. Jones and Judy Mooney. So I like to read all kinds of books but I have to know a lot about the book first before I’ll start reading it”.

Four students loved picture books and specifically mentioned Dr. Seuss books and other rhyming books. Pedro had a hard time verbalizing his favorite book, but with a great deal of probing was able to describe *Green Eggs and Ham*. Eric also said, “I love Dr. Seuss books. *Green Eggs and Ham* is my favorite. You can practice reading it really fast”.

Other students stated non-fiction books such as science books were their favorites. Juan said, “I like dinosaur books”. Some of the students commented about books with characters from TV such as Hanna Montana and Sponge Bob Square Pants.

Still other students loved magazines. Alyssa stated that she liked Weekly Reader magazines. When asked what her favorite books were Sydney replied, “Funny and magazines. I like magazines more than books. I like a magazine called M. It stands for Music, Movies and More. And I also read J14. It’s a magazine for all ages. Shamika

added to what Sydney was saying and said, “I like magazines better than books too. I like Nick (Nickelodeon) magazines”. Jesus agreed with the girls when he said, “I like to read magazines, like the ones with BMX magazines”.

Once again testing emerged in this question when Shamika stated that she loved the workbooks she did with her Mom to get ready for the test. When asked what types of books he liked Terrance replied, “*Voyager*”. Rene also mentioned *Voyager* books. She said, “I like the *Voyager* books also because we learn the words. And we learn a lot of things in *Voyager* books and that’s all”.

Does anyone read to you at home? (n= 22)

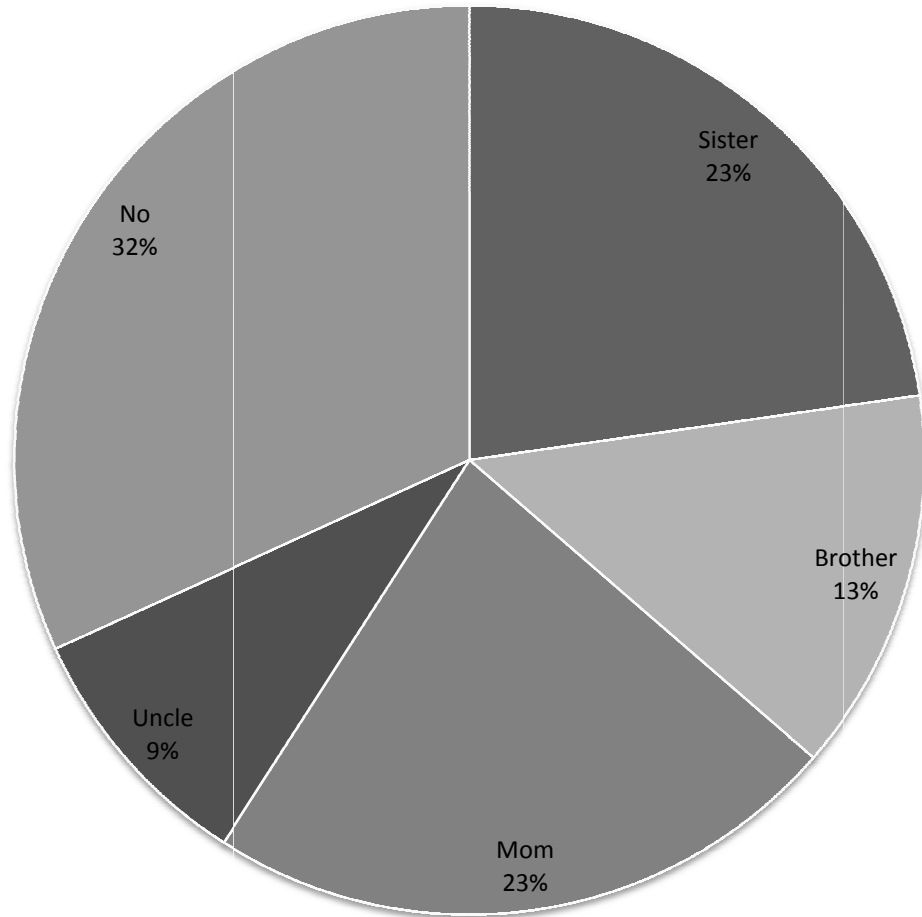


Figure 13. Does anyone read to you at home?

When asked if anyone reads to you at home, 15 of the students replied yes and cited Mom and sister most often. Brother and uncle were also mentioned. Sydney replied, “My Mom reads me bedtime stories”. Allan said, “I’m reading a book with my Mom called, *The Dragon Slayer Academy*”. Daphney said, “Yes, my Mom used to read with me when I was a baby. But now she still reads with me but not books more homework stuff”. Rene said, “I read to myself and my sister, she’s 19 she helps me with the words. My parents can speak English and Korean”.

Thirty-two percent of the students stated that no one reads with them at home. No one sighted their father as reading to them.

Have you noticed any changes in your feelings about reading this summer? (n=22)

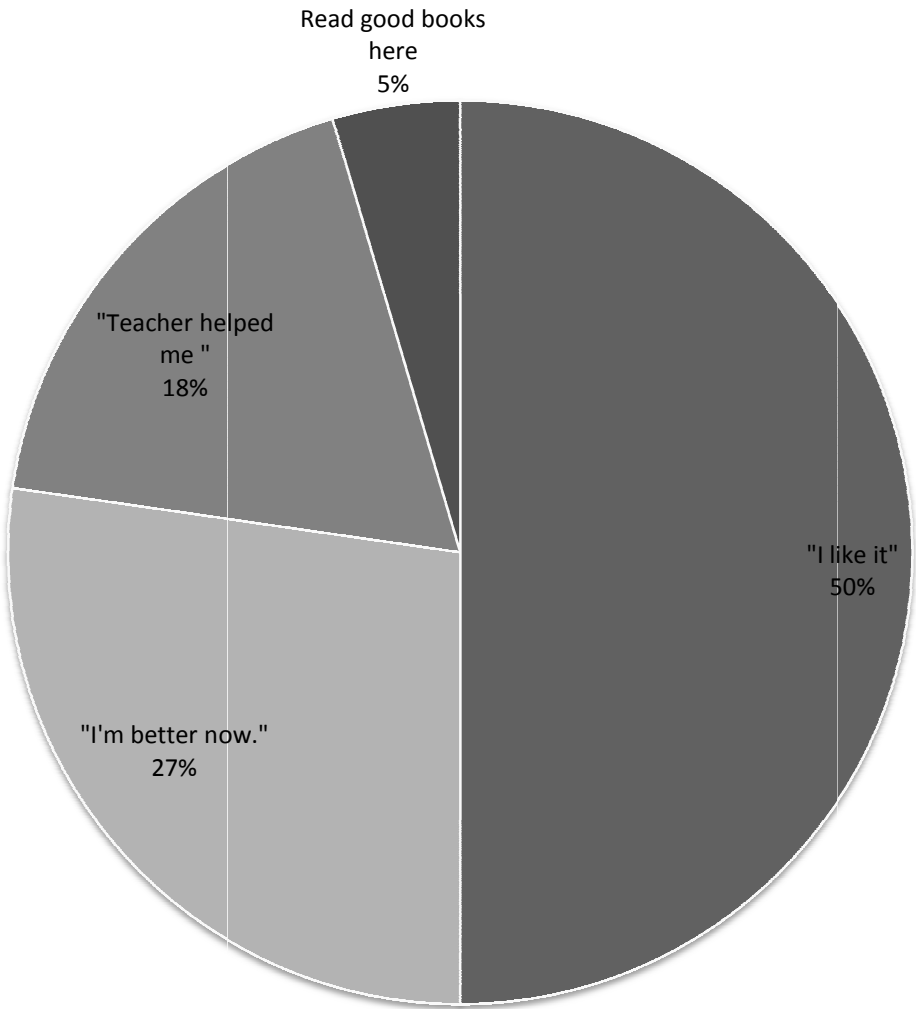


Figure 14. Have you noticed any changes in your feelings about reading?

The fifth question was the most important question asked during Focus Groups and perhaps the most difficult question for the children to answer. The children were asked, “Have you noticed any changes in your feelings about reading this summer?” When students were asked if they had noticed any changes in their feelings about reading this summer 17 students responded yes, four students responded no and one student offered no response. However, what was really interesting were the comments when the students made when asked about their changes in reading following summer school. Although the children had no trouble describing their feelings about reading, they had a difficult time determining if their feelings had changed during summer school. Overall their attitudes about reading during focus groups were very positive. In fact, 50 percent of the students responded with “I like it”.

An additional 27 percent of students felt that their reading had improved as the result of summer school. Daphney said, “Well I liked reading before but now I like it even more because of the books. Like this is my second year here, so I like know these books and I’m really good at them” (Daphney had attended summer school last year and was retained in third grade. She had used *Voyager Passport* last summer). Lucy, “Well I felt really good about it. I liked reading; I just didn’t like reading all day. Well it has changed a little over the past four or six weeks. It’s going good but well there’s still some things to work on, like my reading is faster but I still need to learn more. I know my sounds but I still need to work on the really long sentences”. Terrance added, “Yeah, those long sentences are hard”. Alyssa said, I used to not like to read, but now I know what to do”. Shamika added “Yes, my reading has gotten better. I’m getting more physical and I know the who, what, when, and where now. I should be at a fifth grade

level, but I'm not. I don't want to be at a kindergarten level". Sydney said, "I used to not even like to read magazines, but since I've been here I've been making my Mom get me magazines. I didn't like to read before, but just a little, but now my Mom lets me read about High School Musical and hairstyles".

Allan spoke about the timed reads, "It (reading attitude) changed. During May I didn't like reading that much because it was timed but she (classroom teacher during school year) doesn't tell you the whole book (reading passage read as a timed read) and you couldn't read the whole book. But here my teacher reads the whole story to me first and then I get timed". Allan was referring to the fact that during *Voyager* lessons he received during the school year he never got to hear how the passage ended because he couldn't read fast enough. In summer school even if he didn't get to the end, his teacher had already read the passage aloud, so he knew what was going to happen.

Sydney had a similar experience during the school year at a different school. She piggy backed off Allan's answer and said, "My teacher did the same thing! But in summer school when she'll time us for one minute and if you don't finish it you can go up to her and she'll tell you the rest. Today me and Allan read like 201 words in one minute. It's almost the whole book"!

An additional 18 percent credited the summer school teacher while 5 percent enjoyed the book selection at summer school. Rene said, "Yeah because when I was not in summer school I liked it, but I didn't really read that much. And then we went to summer school and my teacher helped me read a lot of new words and a lot of new books and I like it more". Allan said, "My teacher helped me to get better". Sydney offered an honest answer when she said, "I like it but I just am happy when I'll be done because I

like summer. I like to sleep in. In my class my teacher helped me. Before I would be like I don't want to read but now since she told us what to do and where to find the words I like it". Jesus said, "Before I went to summer school I didn't like to read, because I had to take the test where I have to match the questions then I don't like to read. That's what I have to do at my home school; you know read the questions on the computer".

Tell us about *Voyager Passport* (n=22)

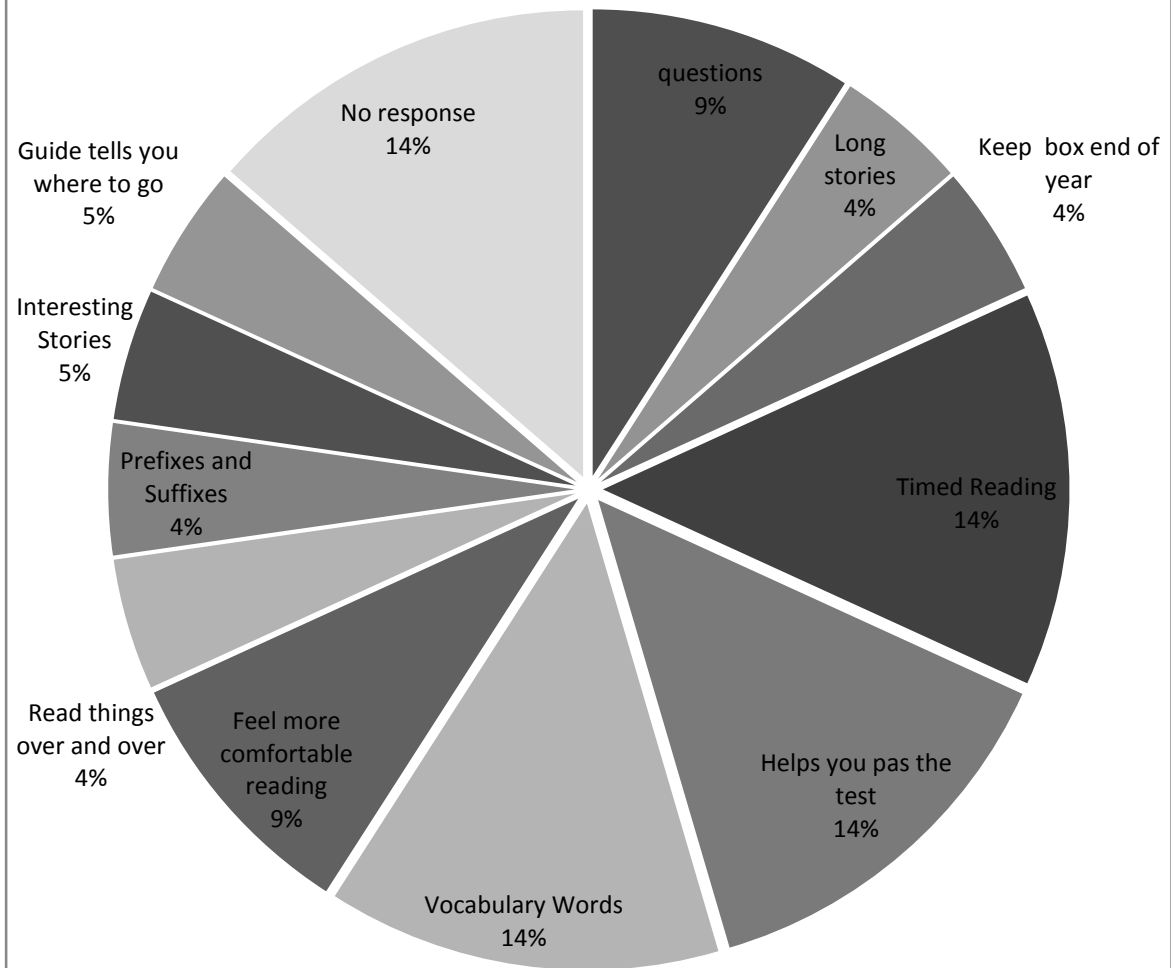


Figure 15. Tell us about *Voyager Passport*

The final question was asked to see what the children thought about *Voyager Passport*. When the children were asked to tell us about *Voyager Passport* the responses were varied. However, what was very interesting were the comments the students made during the focus groups especially in regards to *Voyager Passport*. The top three coded responses were timed reading, helps you pass the test, and vocabulary words.

When asked to tell us about *Voyager Passport* some students made factual comments describing the program such as, “To be a better reader from reading and reading and over and over you know reading!” “You answer questions.” “It’s reading long stories.” “It’s vocabulary words.” “It’s prefixes and suffixes” “The guide tells you where to go.” “It’s timed reading.” “It’s fluency”. “You read books in the Voyager and there’s a really big box and it has A, B and C. C is where you write the words. A is like sounding out words. B is to help you spell words backwards and *forward*. “Voyager is vocabulary words. You should learn the vocabulary words because they might be in the story”. “*Voyager Passport*, it’s like a book that tells you where to go. Oh that’s the guide, oops. It’s a story that you read and it helps you with the words and the suffixes and the pre-suffixes”. When you read do targeted word study you can learn to spell the words and you can learn what the words mean”.

Once again testing emerged as a theme. “It helps you pass the test.” And “It helps you get ready for the test and it lets you practice so you’ll know what to do on the test and you’ll pass it.” “You might want to read a lot before you take the reading test and you need to read the whole book in a minute to pass the test. You need to read 60 words a minute or you are not going to pass the FCAT test.”

“*Voyager* is something that you read to learn how to so that when you take the test the FCAT test you can readsome of the *Voyager* words on it”.

Other students used emotionally laden words to describe the program such as Maria who said, “I’m good at it”. Jane who responded, “*Voyager*, well it makes you more comfortable reading like if you had company.” Eriberto described *Voyager Passport* as, “It’s to be happy. To pass--you know the test”. The children all chuckled as Jesus responded, “It’s reading things over, and over, and over, and over.” Juan sat up tall and raised his hands over his head and said, “It helps you to be a faster reader, you know like the king of the world!” Carl, “I’m really good at *Voyager Passport* because I have done it before”. Allan however, had the most original answer, “You get to keep the whole box of books at the end of the year”. (The *Voyager* materials come in student boxes. A box consists of all the workbooks needed for each child. At the end of summer school the students got to keep the box and take their workbooks home.)

Summary of Focus Group Findings. The purpose of the focus groups was to gain a more in-depth understanding of children’s attitudes about reading. Following the group interviews, the researcher transcribed the tapes from the focus groups. Then the researcher read through both the transcripts and anecdotal notes that were taken by the moderator and the researcher during the interviews. Next, using the framework provided by semantic content analysis, the researcher proceeded to code the responses to the questions into words or phrases. Finally, (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990) the researcher determined the frequency that objects were mentioned and used descriptive statistics to report the findings.

When the responses to each of the questions were analyzed the following patterns emerged.

1. In regards to reading attitude, focus group findings revealed that following summer school using a scripted literacy program, 91 percent of the third-graders students liked to read. However, 59 percent of the students could not elaborate as to why they liked to read. Amongst those who did comment on why they liked to read learning was the most recurring theme.
2. When students were asked about their favorite part of summer school, academic responses were most frequent (read aloud, timed reads, independent reading and learning). Additionally, 19% of the students commented on the social aspects of summer school.
3. Third-grade summer school students like to read a variety of genres.
4. Someone reads at home to 68% of the third-graders. When asked who reads to you, students responded Mom, sister, brother and uncle. No one said their Dad read to them.
5. When asked about whether or not their feelings about reading had changed during summer school, although 79 percent said yes the most common response was “I like it.” This finding again provided evidence that third-grade summer school students liked reading. When probed during focus groups about whether or not their attitude had changed, the children had a hard time differentiating whether or not their attitude had changed, they just knew they liked to read.
6. When students were asked about *Voyager Passport* emerging themes ranged from factual themes (timed reading, prefixes and suffixes, vocabulary words, etc.) to a

myriad of emotionally laden themes (feel more comfortable reading, it helps you pass the test, I'm good at it, etc.). The top three codes that emerged were timed reading, helps you pass the test and vocabulary words.

7. An additional theme that emerged during focus group questions revolved around testing. Students talked openly about the FCAT and The Stanford 10 Test. They spoke of the importance of passing the alternative test on the last day of summer school in order to go to fourth grade.

Triangulation of Findings

During this mixed-method study, various methods of data collection provided different advantages and disadvantages. Triangulation is the use of several different research methodologies to research the same phenomenon. In this study, triangulation was achieved through quantitative data from The Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (McKenna & Kear, 1990) and qualitative data gathered from both Focus Groups and field notes collected during classroom observations. Cohen and Manion (1986) define triangulation as an “attempt to map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behavior by studying it from more than one standpoint” (p. 254).

Finding #1: Although the reading attitudes of some third-grade struggling readers varied in summer school, a scripted summer school literacy program did not appear to have an effect on the reading attitudes of all third-graders.

The purpose of this mixed-method study was to determine if a scripted summer school literacy program would impact third-graders attitudes about reading. In this

mixed-method study survey data were used to determine students' academic, recreational and total attitude about reading both before and after summer school. When total reading attitude from the ERAS survey (McKenna and Kear, 1990) was examined, third-grade students had mean attitudes on both the pre-test ($M = 58.09$) and the post-test (58.05) that would be considered average and were slightly above an "indifferent" attitude score. A score of 50 is considered indicative of a child who has an "indifferent" attitude about reading whereas a score of 0 would be the lowest score and a score of 80 would be the highest score. Although the change in attitudes varied across the different school sites, these results confirm that although some of the students' attitudes changed, an overall conclusion cannot be made stating that the students' attitudes changed as a result of summer school using a scripted reading program. These results are supported by the results of an independent measures t -test that showed no significant findings in regards to the change in students' recreational [$t(90) = -.036, p = .55$], academic [$t(90) = .32, p = .61$], and total reading attitude [$t(90) = -.03, p = .98$] following summer school.

When the focus group findings were analyzed for a change in reading attitudes, once again although some of the students felt their attitudes had changed, the majority of the students could not elaborate as to whether or not their attitude had changed. When students were asked during focus groups whether or not their feelings about reading had changed during summer school, although 79 percent said yes, the most common response was "I like it." When probed during focus groups about whether or not their attitude had changed, many of the children had a hard time differentiating whether or not their attitude

had changed, they just knew they liked to read. However, the focus group responses varied based on the school site.

Students from two of the school sites (Franklin and Lincoln) expressed that their reading had improved following summer school. Students at Lincoln expressed that their reading had changed following summer school. This was evidenced by comments made during focus groups. Sydney said, “Yes, I like it, before I didn’t. I didn’t like to read at all before summer school but now I like to read a little bit and now I like to read magazines, with High School Musical and hair stuff”. Shamika’s comment offers further support, “Yes, before I was like reading is boring...now I know who, what, when, where, and how and I think that’s why it’s changed me”. Allan agreed, “It changed, in third-grade I didn’t like reading all that much”. Carl added additional support with this statement, “Yes, I always get a 100 on reading. Now I get four right and I used to only get two right. I’m really good at *Voyager Passport* because I did it last year too”. The students at Horn also provided positive responses that indeed their reading had changed. Mark said, “Yes, I read much faster now. I used to read like 60 words per minute, but now I read to the end of the story before the timer goes off”. Alex said, “I like to read more now.”

Further support for this finding on the inconsistency in the change in reading attitudes is indicated in the results of the classroom observations which revealed that although during 67 percent of the classroom observations the third-grade students appeared engaged or enthusiastic, during 33 percent of the observations the students appeared indifferent or off-task (see Table 20).

Finding # 2: Many of the third-graders liked the academic aspects of summer school

When the results of the ERAS were analyzed using a Factorial ANOVA, the initial results revealed a statistically significant difference in relationship to the difference in academic reading attitude following summer school based on school site [$F(4, 90) = 2.87, p = .03$]. However, when a follow up Tukey test was conducted it was concluded that although there was a difference in the academic attitudes of third-graders based on school site, the difference could not be pinpointed to a particular site.

The focus group findings support this finding that many of the third-graders liked the academic aspects of summer school. During focus groups when students were asked what their favorite part of summer school was, the majority of answers were academic reasons: read aloud (3), timed read (4), independent reading (4), book on tape (1), and learning (2) were some of the responses. Four of the students focused their discussion on timed reading as their favorite part of summer school. When asked about her favorite part of summer school Mary said, “The timed reading. You can read how many words in a minute. You know, to beat your time”. Juan agreed with Mary when he said, “Fluency, the one minute read..to see if I could reach the end before one minute”. Other students enjoyed independent reading. Eric said, “Reading, because you can read silently”. Alex also said, “Silent Reading.” Alyssa said she liked summer school, “Because you learn more”. Other students liked it when the teacher read aloud. When asked about her favorite part of summer school, Daisy said, “When the teacher reads aloud to me”. Yasmin agreed when she said, “ I like it when Mr. Rowley reads aloud to me”.

These findings offer further support for the results of the Factorial ANOVA which showed there was a significant relationship between academic reading and school site.

However, when the classroom observations were analyzed, although all of the observations were conducted during academic activities, some of the students appeared indifferent, off task or withdrawn during the actual classroom observations (see Table 20). When the academic activities were examined, the students' attitudes varied based on activity and site. Dolphin Elementary had the highest number of student observations (11) where students were withdrawn, off-task or indifferent. All of those observations were done during whole group *Voyager Passport* lessons. Both Carter and Lincoln had zero withdrawn observations, two off-task observations, and two indifferent observations. At both sites the off task observations occurred during whole group *Voyager Passport* lessons. The indifferent observations were conducted during *Voyager* whole group lessons, partner reading and workbook observations.

Finding #3: Third-grade students attending summer school were focused on standardized testing.

Another finding from the study concerned the student's focus on standardized testing. This finding was especially evident during focus groups. An interesting conversation about how focused the children were on the Stanford 10 test evolved when the students at Lincoln Elementary were asked "What part of summer school do you like best"? Carl stated, "Well my friends said that summer school was prison but I say it's not because you get to learn and you get to pass the test on July 13th". Sydney added, "You know what's funny is that is that the test is on July 13th and a lot of people say that's a bad luck day". Shamika then said, "Friday the 13th is only bad luck in the nighttime. We

are taking the test in the morning”. Then they all said, “Yeah, it will be OK in the morning.” This conversation revealed the pressure that some of the children were feeling to pass the alternative test at the end of summer school. The students all knew that the only way they could be promoted to fourth grade was to pass the test. Testing also emerged during focus groups when the students were asked, “What types of books do you like to read?” This time Shamika talked about how much she enjoyed the workbooks she did with her Mom to get ready for the test. When students were asked to tell us about *Voyager Passport* once again testing emerged as a theme. The following comments offer support for this finding:

- “It helps you pass the test.”
- It’s to be happy to pass the reading test”
- “It helps you get ready for the test and it lets you practice so you’ll know what to do on the test and you’ll pass it.”
- “You might want to read a lot before you take the reading test and you need to read the whole book in a minute or you are not going to pass the FCAT test.”
- “*Voyager* is something you read to learn how to (read) so when you take the FCAT test you can read some of the *Voyager* words on it.”
- “*Voyager* helps you to practice to know what to do on the test so you can pass it and know it all”

The focus on the test was also evident during classroom observations. During the classroom observations the teachers were focused on the Stanford Test and talked openly about the test. For instance, during one whole group lesson Mrs. Fields said, “Boys and

girls I cannot believe how your reading fluency has improved. You are going to be so ready to take the Stanford!” During another observation Mr. Rowlie said to Yasmin, “ If you read like that when you take the Stanford Test you will blow them away!” When observing a lesson in Mrs. Smith’s classroom she was explaining how important reading speed was when taking the Stanford Test. “If you aren’t reading 100 words a minute, when you go to take the Stanford Test, you won’t get through the stories”.

Finally, when the results of the ERAS survey were analyzed, one of the academic questions asked the students, “How do you feel when you take a reading test?” When this question was examined by itself the results of the pre-test revealed a mean score of [$M=2.42, SD = 1.19$] for the pre-test and [$M=3.49, SD = 6.63$] for the post-test. However, on a cautionary note, this change score represents a small change in just one question out of 20 and is not necessarily statistically significant. Thus, when examining this question in isolation, although it appears that the students’ attitudes toward taking a reading test changed as a result of summer school using scripted literacy, it warrants further tests to determine if this finding is statistically significant.

McKenna’s Model of Reading Attitude

When considering attitudinal change it is important to refer back to McKenna’s (1994) model of reading attitude. McKenna’s model examines three principal factors influencing attitudinal change: (a) beliefs about the outcomes of reading in light of the judged desirability of those outcomes; (b) beliefs about the expectations of others in light of one’s motivation to conform to those expectations; and (c) the outcomes of specific incidents of reading (McKenna et al., 1995). Simply stated, the McKenna model supports

the notion that, “An individual’s attitude toward reading will develop over time principally as the result of three factors: normative beliefs, beliefs about the outcomes of reading and specific reading experiences” (p. 939).

Normative Beliefs

Themes obtained from focus groups support McKenna’s model (1994) of reading attitude. McKenna’s Model specifies that normative beliefs play an important role in the development of attitudes. Specifically, the model predicts, “If a child’s cultural environment encourages, models, and reinforces reading, more positive attitudes should result” (p. 941). The themes that emerged from the focus groups indicated that the children did have positive feelings about reading. In fact at the end of summer school 91percent of the students stated that they liked to read. When students were asked about their favorite parts of summer school academic responses were most common.

Additionally, when the results of the focus groups, ERAS, and classroom observations are all combined it is also of interest that overall the third-graders’ attitudes were average to begin with ($M = 58.09$). This finding is confirmed by the results of the classroom observations which revealed that during 67 percent of the classroom observations, the third–grade students appeared engaged or enthusiastic. However, of the 91 students who had permission to participate in the study, only 10 had an initial low attitude. It is important to note that 73percent of the third-graders attending summer school did not have permission to participate in the study. Research supports a lack of parental involvement with many struggling readers (Jimerson & Kaufman, 2003). Thus, it is possible that the students who participated in the study came from families where there

was parental involvement. Further support for this finding is shown from the results of the focus groups that revealed that someone read at home to 68 percent of the children.

Third-graders liked the academic aspects of summer school. This finding was supported by the results a Factorial ANOVA that examined the relationship between academic attitude and school site. The initial results revealed a statistically significant difference in relationship to the difference in academic reading attitude following summer school based on school site. However, when a follow up Tukey test was conducted it was concluded that although there was a difference in the academic attitudes of third graders based on school site, the difference could not be pinpointed to a particular site.

Instructional Approach

Although McKenna (1994) postulates that certain instructional approaches might harbor successful experiences, which would in turn lead to more positive beliefs about the outcomes of reading and contribute to attitude indirectly; previous research fails to support the notion that instructional approaches can influence reading attitude. McKenna, Stratton, Grindler and Jenkins (1995) reported no difference in the attitudes of one to five students taught using a whole language approach as compared with their peers who received reading instruction from a basal reader. Although the findings from the qualitative portion of the study did not show an increase in mean scores from pre-test to post-test, the themes that emerged from the qualitative portion of the study revealed that the students had a positive experience in summer school. During Focus Groups the students were asked, "Tell me about *Voyager Passport*". Although none of the themes

that emerged from this question describing *Voyager Passport* were negative, some evoked factual themes (*Voyager Passport* is vocabulary words.) while others evoked emotionally laden themes (It makes you more comfortable reading.)

Gender

In regards to gender, the findings do not support previous research. Although previous studies have found that male students generally possess a more negative attitude towards reading than female students, this study found no significance in gender in regards to struggling readers' attitudes about reading (McKenna et al., 1995). Perhaps if a larger sample was used these findings would have been different.

Testing

An additional theme that emerged from the focus group findings was that the students believed they were prepared to take the alternative assessment at the end of summer school. This was evidenced by comments the students made during focus groups. For instance when students were asked about *Voyager Passport* some of the responses were, "It helps you get ready for the test and it lets you practice so you'll know what to do on the test and you'll pass it".

Age and Reading Attitude

McKenna's model also predicts that as children get older and they have more options available to them during their leisure time, that their attitude towards reading will worsen (Anderson, Tollefson & Gilbert, 1985; Martin, 1984). Some of the focus group responses offered support this theory. For instance, when students were asked if their attitude about reading had changed during summer school, two students offered their

perspectives. Daphney said, “I love reading, but sometimes I just want to watch T.V. and my Mom says Daphney did you read? Turn off that TV and go read now!” Lucy said, “I like to read but sometimes I just don’t want to read. Like I want to go outside and play with my friends.” Sydney said, “I like it but just am happy when I’ll be done because I like summer. I like to sleep in.” These statements made by third-graders also offer support for research that shows struggling readers’ attitudes about reading decline as they get older (Ishikawa, 1985; Ross & Fletcher, 1989). Research supports that as students get older they become more involved in extracurricular activities and social obligations and show less interest in reading during free time (McKenna et al., 1995).

Organization of Remaining Chapter

The final chapter contains five sections. The first section provides a summary of the study. The second section describes limitations, implications and conclusions derived from the research findings. The third section discusses the recommendations for practice based on the study limitations, implications and conclusions. The fourth section offers recommendations for future research. The fifth section offers closing thoughts.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Overview of Chapter

The purpose of this mixed-method study was to determine if summer school using a scripted literacy program (*Voyager Passport*) would impact retained third-grade struggling readers' attitudes about reading. This chapter contains five sections. The first section provides a summary of the study. The second section describes limitations, implications and conclusions derived from the research findings. The third section discusses the recommendations for practice based on the study's limitations, implications, and conclusions. The fourth section offers recommendations for future research. The fifth section offers closing thoughts.

Summary of the Study

Retained third-grade students in the state of Florida are encouraged to attend a district summer reading camp where they receive intensive reading instruction using a research-based reading intervention program. Following six weeks of summer school the students are given an alternative reading test. If they pass the test, they receive a "good cause" exemption and are promoted to fourth grade. In the district where this study was conducted the research-based intervention used during the summer of 2007 was *Voyager Passport* a program that utilizes a scripted literacy format. This mixed-method study explored and examined the effect of a scripted literacy program on the reading attitudes of third-grade struggling readers.

Research Questions

The intent of this study was to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the effect of a scripted literacy program on the reading attitudes of elementary school struggling readers?
2. What do elementary school struggling readers perceive to be the effect of a scripted summer school literacy program on their attitudes toward reading?

Quantitative Findings

The study lasted six weeks and was conducted at five different school sites in a school district on the west coast of Florida where summer school was held during the summer of 2007. Because students were selected based on their participation in summer school, the sample was a convenience sample. During the quantitative portion of the study students (n=91) were given the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (ERAS) (McKenna & Kear, 1990). Complete data were collected from 91 students at five different summer school sites. The ERAS survey, which was administered by the classroom teacher the first day of summer school and the last week of summer school, provided raw scores for academic, recreational, and total reading attitude.

Following data collection the results of the ERAS surveys were analyzed using descriptive statistics and a dependent measures *t*-test as well. Additionally, in an effort to assess the tenability of a chance explanation, the researcher conducted three 2x2 factorial ANOVAs which examined gender, school site, and the interaction between gender and school site.

Descriptive Statistics

First, the researcher analyzed the distribution of attitude scores separately for recreational, academic and total reading attitude using descriptive statistics. The difference in mean scores did not show enough variation to be of practical importance. In regards to total attitude scores, the students had a mean score of 58.09 on the pre-test and a mean score of 58.05 on the posttest. A total score of 50 would reflect a score that was directly in the middle and could be interpreted as an indifferent score, thus scores of 58.09 and 58.05 would represent average attitudes.

Dependent Measures t-test

When a dependent measures *t*-test was conducted to examine the difference in academic, recreational and total attitude scores from pre-test to post-test, the findings were not statistically significant in regards to recreational attitude [$t(90) = -.036, p = .55$], academic attitude [$t(90) = .32, p = .61$], and total attitude [$t(90) = -.03, p = .98$].

Factorial ANOVA's

Next, in an effort to determine if attitudes differed amongst gender and school site, the researcher conducted three separate 2x2 Factorial ANOVAs (recreational attitude, academic attitude and total reading attitude) with alphas set at .05 for each effect. The results of the Factorial ANOVAs indicated that the changes in recreational attitude and total reading attitude were not statistically significant with any of the subgroups. The only statistically significant findings related to academic attitude and school site [$F(4, 90) = 2.87, p = .03$]. However, a Tukey follow up test revealed that

although there was a difference in academic attitude between the school sites, the variation could not be pinpointed to particular sites.

Qualitative Findings

McQuire (1989) speculated that the tri-component view of attitude could be measured more effectively through the use of open-ended responses. Therefore, questions asked during focus groups were open ended. These open ended responses revealed much more information about struggling readers' attitudes about reading than the quantitative findings. To answer the qualitative question, a nested sample of the quantitative population was selected (n=22). To complete triangulation, the qualitative portion of the study relied on both field notes gathered during classroom observations and focus groups. Five focus groups were conducted, one at each summer school site the last week of summer school. The purpose of the focus groups was to "get inside the heads" (Langford & McDonagh, 2003; Johnson & Christensen, 2004) of struggling readers to determine what elementary school struggling readers perceived to be the effect of a scripted summer school literacy program on their attitudes toward reading. During focus groups the students were asked a series of six questions about reading, summer school and *Voyager*

Following data collection, focus group findings were transcribed by the researcher. These transcripts then formed the basis for further analysis. When the responses to each of the questions were analyzed the following patterns emerged. In regards to reading attitude, focus group findings revealed that following summer school using a scripted literacy program, 91 percent of the third-grade students liked to read. However, 59 percent of the students could not elaborate as to why they liked to read. Amongst those who did comment on why they liked to read, learning was

the most recurring theme. When students were asked about their favorite part of summer school, academic responses were most frequent. Third-grade summer school students like to read a variety of genres. Someone reads at home to 68 percent of the third-graders. When asked about whether or not their feelings about reading had changed during summer school, although 79 percent said yes, the children had a hard time differentiating whether or not their attitude had changed; they just knew they liked to read. When students were asked about *Voyager Passport*, emerging themes ranged from factual themes to a myriad of emotionally laden themes. The top three codes that emerged were timed reading, helps you pass the test and vocabulary words. An additional theme that emerged during focus group questions revolved around testing. Students talked openly about the Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test (FCAT) and The Stanford 10 Test. They spoke of the importance of passing the alternative test on the last day of summer school in order to go to fourth grade.

In addition to the five focus groups, the researcher conducted classroom observations (n=113) with each of the focus group participants. The intent of the classroom observations was to offer support for the focus group findings. During the 22 visits 113 student observations were conducted. Results of the student observations supported the focus group findings and revealed that 67 percent of the students were engaged or enthusiastic during classroom observations. An indifferent attitude was observed 13 percent of the time and students were off task or withdrawn 20 percent of the time. In regards to activities observed during classroom observations, the researcher observed children engaged in: 37 *Voyager* small group lessons, 10 *Voyager* timed-reads,

36 *Voyager* whole group lessons, 5 literacy center activities, 5 independent reading, 1 shared reading lesson, 7 partner reads, 4 teacher read alouds, and 8 workbook pages.

Limitations, Conclusions and Implications

There were numerous limitations that arose during this study. The first limitation arose because the researcher was actually a third-grade teacher in the targeted district; numerous problems arose as a result. First, because the district saw it as a conflict of interest for the researcher to conduct the fidelity checks herself, the fidelity checks were conducted by the assistant principals, reading coaches, and district office personnel. Additionally, the researcher was unable to modify the fidelity measure. Next, prior to summer school during a meeting with the Director of Elementary Education, a request was made by the district that in order to impact the least amount of classrooms, for the researcher to limit participants for the focus groups to one class at each summer school site. There were direct implications from this decision. The researcher had intended on using a nested portion from the quantitative population in the qualitative portion of the study. Specifically, the researcher had intended on focus group participants consisting of two students with high initial attitudes (61-80), two students with average initial attitudes (41-60), and two students with low attitudes (0-40). An additional complication arose because there were only 10 students with an initial low attitude with permission to participate in the study. When the researcher was limited to only using one classroom at each site, it became impossible to find a classroom that met the initial selection criteria. Further, by limiting the focus group participants to just one classroom at each site the study may not have captured an accurate representation of the summer school students.

Another limitation involved the participants themselves. During the Spring of 2007 approximately 547 children in the targeted district qualified to attend summer school based on their FCAT score. It is interesting to note, that among those 547 students, only 61 percent of the students (336) actually attended summer school on the first day. Additionally, of the initial 336 students, only 115 students had permission to participate in the study. Furthermore, complete data were collected on just 91 students (27 %) attending summer school. Therefore, in the end the actual students who participated in the study were students whose families signed the necessary paperwork to enroll them in summer school, made sure that they attended summer school, and made sure they were present for the alternative assessment the last day of summer school.

This meant that the 91 participants of this study came from families who were more involved in their education and may not have been an accurate representation of the population of struggling readers. This factor likely contributed to the findings and helps to explain the fact that overall the third-graders attitudes did not change following summer school.

An additional limitation involved the researchers own view of scripted literacy programs. Throughout this study the researcher used reflexivity to monitor any biases toward scripted literacy. Reflexivity was one way the researcher was able to explore the ways in which her involvement with literacy influenced her research. Because the researcher was also a third-grade teacher in the targeted district, she was mandated to use *Voyager Passport* as a remediation tool with her own struggling readers. As the researcher analyzed the findings of the study, and reflected on her own knowledge of

what methods have been proven effective when working with struggling readers, it became difficult for the researcher to continue to use the intervention tool.

Additionally, another limitation occurred when the researcher was reporting the findings of the fidelity measure. Because the researcher worked in the district where the study was conducted, at times it was difficult for the researcher to provide the reader with all of the findings, which were often controversial. This was especially true in the lack of fidelity in the implementation of *Voyager Passport* that the researcher reports on during summer school.

Recommendations for Practice

The results of this study, coupled with the understandings provided in existing research, leads to some recommendations for teachers and district administrators. As discussed in the review of literature, although under *Reading First*, scripted literacy programs are being used as interventions to assist the struggling reader, not everyone supports scripted literacy in the classroom. Richard Allington (2002) summarizes his view on scripted literacy with this statement, “A veritable trove of scientific research tells us that effective teaching is not standardized and cannot be scripted” (p. 28).

A student’s reading attitude plays a key role in whether or not he or she becomes a competent reader (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985; Mathewson, 1994; McKenna, 1994). Children who like reading tend to read more, and this develops their reading ability. There are two main goals involved in the teaching or reading: instill in students the necessary skills to read effectively and to develop a sense of enjoyment toward reading (Sainsbury, 2004). Ultimately, this study hoped to answer the question, “Does our instructional method teach reading at the expense of enjoyment?”

Based on the qualitative findings, when McKenna's model of reading attitudes is applied to the study, upon first glance one would expect attitudinal change. However, the quantitative portion of the study did not show a change in the reading attitude of third-grade struggling readers as a result of a scripted literacy program (*Voyager Passport*). Rather, the results of the quantitative portion of the study revealed that third-grade students' attitudes about reading following summer school using a scripted literacy program remained average.

There are possible explanations as to why there were no significant findings in regards to attitudinal change. The first explanation concerns the fidelity of the implementation.

Fidelity of Implementation

One possible reason that the students' attitudes did not change is related to the fidelity of implementation. In regards to educational research, if there is a high rate of fidelity in the implementation of a program, then the administration and staff can rule out this variable in regards to student achievement. Fidelity of implementation is the actual presentation of instruction the way it was intended to be delivered (Gresham et al., 2000). Specifically, it is the adherence to the intervention protocol in comparison with the original program design (Mihalic, 2002; Mowbray et al., 2002). A number of factors from this study question the fidelity of the implementation of *Voyager Passport*.

Lack of norming data. Although *Voyager Passport* is one of 101 supplemental intervention reading programs that have been reviewed by the Florida Center for Reading Research (FCRR), and reviewed under Reading First, *Voyager Passport* lacks any norming data on their fidelity measure on either the *Voyager* website, or on the Florida

Center for Reading Research website (FCRR). After contacting *Voyager Expanded Learning Systems* directly the researcher was told that the company had no norming data on the fidelity measure. Additionally, the researcher contacted the district where the study was conducted. The researcher was told that the district did not have any norming data on the fidelity measure as well. Because there is no norming data on the fidelity measure, it is impossible to know if the fidelity measure actually measured what it was designed to assess.

Group size. When the researcher observed in the summer school classrooms, during 32 percent of the observations summer school teachers were implementing *Voyager Passport* whole group. *Voyager* is not intended to be taught whole group. Rather, *Voyager Passport* lessons are designed for use with groups of no more than 5 students. This information was given to teachers during the summer school training (Appendix O). This finding may have impacted the fidelity of the implementation.

Prior exposure to program. Another caution in the fidelity of the implementation concerns the way *Voyager Passport* was implemented with at risk third-grade struggling readers. In the targeted district *Voyager Passport* is currently being used as a supplemental reading program with students who are below grade level in reading. Some of the students who attended summer school had already used the program during the regular school year, for others it was their first encounter with *Voyager Passport*. When used during the school year students receive 4 lessons a week in addition to the 90 minute daily reading block. Some of the students who received *Voyager Passport* remediation during the school year at their home school received the same exact instruction during summer school using the same curriculum. Additionally, there were some students who

had attended summer school last year and used *Voyager Passport*, were retained in third grade and received *Voyager Passport* as an intervention during the school year and were receiving *Voyager Passport* for a third time.

Sample

Because only 27 percent of the summer school students participated in the study, and given the fact that only 10 percent of them had an initial low attitude as measured by the ERAS (McKenna & Kear, 1990), it's possible that the struggling readers who did not have permission to participate in the study were the students with low reading attitudes. This means that the sample was not representative of the population.

Length of Intervention

An additional reason why the students' attitudes did not change may relate to the length of intervention. Specifically, it may be that the length of the intervention (six weeks) was not enough time to measure change.

Supplementing of Curriculum

In addition, during interviews with classroom teachers the researcher learned that four out of five teachers spotlighted during classroom observations did not feel *Voyager Passport* could stand alone and were supplementing the program.

Measurement of fidelity is especially crucial with studies that seek to provide evidence for the effectiveness of an intervention (Mowbray et al., 2002). Additionally, in regards to educational research, if there is a high rate of fidelity in the implementation of a program, then the administration and staff can rule out this variable in regards to student achievement. Developing measures of fidelity, validating them, and using them can be intensive and costly. However, the other option is to recommend programs that are

either not effective, or are only effective if implemented in a particular way (Borrelli, et al., 2005).

Although *Voyager Passport* claims to “exceed research-based recommendations” recently, the Federal What Works Clearinghouse reviewed commercial reading programs (2007). The review found that none of the commercial reading programs on the market had sufficiently rigorous studies to be included in the review by the Clearinghouse. Further, when *Voyager Universal Literacy System* was reviewed, results revealed that *Voyager Universal Literacy System* had a positive effect on alphabetics, and negative effects on reading comprehension.

Implications

National Level. Implications from this study can be made at the national, state and local level. First, under No Child Left Behind Legislation, the federal government has made a commitment that every child will be on grade level in reading and math by the year 2014. The purpose of Reading First is, “to ensure that all children in America learn to read well by the end of third-grade” (Guidance for the Reading First program, 2002). At the national level reading programs are reviewed under Reading First to determine if they are based on scientifically based reading research. The Reading First initiative provides states, districts, and schools with funding to implement instruction based on scientifically based reading research in grades K-3.

Voyager Passport is one of the programs that Reading First promotes as being based on scientifically based reading research. Yet, when the What Works Clearinghouse (2007) reviewed *Voyager Universal Learning Systems* the program was found to have potentially positive effects on alphabetic and potentially negative effects on

comprehension. If politicians are going to continue to make decisions about the remediation tools used by classroom teachers to assist struggling readers, there is a dire need for more independent research on these programs.

Local Level. During the 2007-2008 school year the district expanded the use of *Voyager Passport* as an intervention to all schools for use with first through fifth grade struggling readers. If the district continues to use *Voyager Passport* as an intervention during the regular school year and during summer school it would be more beneficial for the students to use two different curriculums. *Voyager Passport* now offers a summer school curriculum.

Additionally, although *Voyager Passport* is one of 101 supplemental intervention reading programs that have been reviewed by the Florida Center for Reading Research (FCRR), and reviewed under Reading First, *Voyager Passport* lacks any norming data on their fidelity measure. Because there is no norming data on the fidelity measure, it is impossible to know if the fidelity measure actually measures what it was designed to assess. If the district continues to use *Voyager Passport* it will be important for the district to examine the fidelity of the implementation during summer school 2006 in regards to supplemental materials and class size during *Voyager* small group lessons. Additionally, it may be beneficial for the district to gather norming data on the fidelity measure.

Recommendations for Future Research

As much as this study answers some questions about third-grade struggling readers' attitudes about reading, it also leads to new questions. Previous research shows that reading attitude plays an important role on both the level of ability attained by a

given student and through its influence on reading engagement and practice (McKenna et al., 1995; McKenna & Kear, 1990). Likewise a poor reading attitude may contribute to aliteracy, a condition when fluent readers choose not to read when other options exist (McKenna et al., 1995).

One recommendation concerns the need for further research on the number of students who qualified but did not attend summer school. Under *Reading First* summer school is optional and provided free of charge to retained third-graders, yet of the 547 students who qualified to attend summer school, only 336 elected to attend summer school. An additional 50 students did not complete summer school. Thus, only 285 students actually completed summer school and took the alternative test the last day. Perhaps there is a need for research on ways to increase summer school attendance.

This finding on the challenge of encouraging and sustaining students' participation in summer school supports previous findings on summer school (Borman & Dowling, 2006). During the implementation of The Teach Baltimore program approximately 50 percent of the students assigned to the program did not attend the program consistently and with enough regularity to make a difference (Borman & Dowling, 2006). Findings from a meta-analysis (Cooper et al., 1996) on 93 studies of summer school achievement revealed that children who were middle class benefitted from summer school more than those who were disadvantaged.

This may be due to the fact that poor attendance in summer school may be a symptom of an uninvolved family. This offers further support for the "faucet theory", which has shown that the summer slide is particularly harmful to students from low socio-economic status (Cooper et al., 1996; Heynes, 1978; Downey et al.; 2004). Not

only is there an achievement gap for students as a result of summer school, but this gap tends to be greater among the “have-nots” than among the “haves”. Although this research study supports these findings, it also points to the need for further research that explores how to encourage and sustain students’ attendance in summer school.

Research on struggling readers has shown that retained students often come from homes with that lack parental involvement. Because 73 percent of the students did not have permission to participate in the study, further research is needed that explores why so many children lacked permission to participate in the study.

During the Pilot Study on the ERAS (McKenna & Kear, 1990) with a group of third-grade retained students, the return rate for permission to participate in the study was much higher. A total of 26 students enrolled in two third grade retention classes were asked to participate in the study. During the actual Pilot Study, 62 percent of the students had permission to participate in the study. Complete data were collected from 58 percent of the participants. The fact that the researcher worked at the school where the Pilot Study was conducted and knew many of the students may have contributed to the higher return rate. During the actual study if the parents of the summer school students had known the researcher they may have been more likely to allow their children to participate in the study.

There clearly is a need for additional studies that explore the impact different instructional methods have on children’s attitudes about reading. These studies could offer support for alternatives to scripted literacy programs as ways to assist struggling readers. This is especially important when working with struggling third-grade readers since findings have shown that as children grow older their attitude about reading

declines. This decline in the attitudes of children as they age supports the importance of early intervention and assisting struggling readers at an early age (McKenna et al., 1995).

During this mixed-method study, focus groups helped the researcher to capture “the voice” of the struggling reader. There is a need for further research that captures “the voice” of the struggling reader (Langford & McDonagh, 2003; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). During this study comments were made during focus groups by the students not just about *Voyager Passport* but about the pressure they felt in regards to the FCAT and Stanford 10 Test. There is a need for future research that explores young children’s feelings and attitudes about standardized testing. Additionally, since during the present study group cohesiveness appeared to play a big role in students’ responses during focus groups, there is an additional need for future research on cohesiveness during focus groups with children. Previous studies have shown that focus groups with high levels of cohesiveness were more, “cooperative, friendly, and praise worthy of each others’ accomplishments” (Shaw & Shaw, 1962; Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). However, much of this research is outdated.

Closing Thoughts

Although politicians make decisions on what’s best for struggling readers, it is the classroom teacher’s responsibility to implement the curriculum. In today’s age of accountability the classroom teacher is responsible for taking the primary role in regards to accelerating the reading growth of elementary school struggling readers (& Allington & Walmsley 1995).

As the researcher observed in summer school classrooms and reflected on her knowledge of what’s best for struggling readers, it seemed that the importance of the

classroom teacher should have been considered when examining the attitudes of struggling readers. There was a difference not just in the “appearance of the fidelity” of the implementation of *Voyager Passport* in the different classrooms, but in the classroom environment. Overall, following summer school using *Voyager Passport* the children knew a lot about *Voyager Passport* and they felt they were ready to take the alternative test. Based on comments made during Focus Groups, it appeared that many of the children’s confidence in their reading ability had improved. Many of the children gave the credit for being ready for the test to their teachers.

Using scripted literacy goes against what reading theorists and reading researchers have proven to be successful (Clay, 1991; Allington, 1998, 2002; Slavin & Madden, 2001; Dolan, & Wasik, 1996; Duffy, 2001) Programs such as Reading Recovery and Success for All have been proven to show growth with struggling readers. In New Zealand 99 percent of the children in ten educational districts where Reading Recovery was fully implemented were reading at or above grade level. However, Reading Recovery requires time, money and commitment. Success for All includes both tutoring and family support services in its comprehensive school restructuring program (Slavin & Madden, 2001). Duffy (2001) found success using a balanced approach to literacy instruction in summer school. She promotes using a balanced approach to literacy instruction as opposed to a program-driven approach:

“Rather than purchasing fixed, commercial reading programs and training teachers to use these programs, perhaps a better investment of school district’s time and resources would help teachers understand how principles of balance,

acceleration, and responsive teaching can be utilized in multiple, purposeful ways in classrooms with struggling readers” (p. 92).

Under *Reading First* school districts are being placed in awkward situations. The *Reading First* initiative provides states, districts, and schools with funding to implement scientifically based reading instruction (SBRR) in kindergarten through third grade. To meet the needs of struggling readers under *Reading First* many schools have adopted supplemental programs such as *Voyager Passport*. However, the approved materials are not necessarily based on reading research which has led to a great deal of controversy surrounding *Reading First*.

As a third-grade teacher, I know first-hand what it’s like to tell a child they must repeat the third-grade. As a third-grade teacher, I have a responsibility to teach each of my children. As a third-grade teacher I know what it’s like to be forced to use scripted literacy as a remediation tool with struggling readers. As a third-grade teacher who has just spent the last year researching scripted literacy and conducting this study, I must admit I have biases towards the use of scripted literacy as an intervention tool with struggling readers. However, when curriculum decisions are dictated by politicians, teachers and districts are caught in the middle. I am caught in the middle. Although I am a Ph.D. candidate completing her dissertation in curriculum and instruction with a focus on reading, as a third-grade teacher I am being mandated to use *Voyager Passport* with my third-grade struggling readers four times a week in addition to the 90 minute reading block.

The use of *Voyager Passport* in summer school did not lower struggling readers’ attitudes about reading. However, their attitudes did not increase either. As an advocate

for struggling readers, struggling readers deserve instruction that is individualized not scripted. As an advocate for struggling readers, struggling readers deserve to be talked to authentically, not read a script. As an advocate for struggling readers, struggling readers have to right to responsive teaching. As an advocate for teachers, teachers deserve to be trusted not trapped in scripted literacy. As a third grade teacher I do believe that educators have the will and the ability to teach all children, including struggling readers to read. If I don't believe in educators who will?

In 2001, President Bush enacted the No Child Left Behind Act. At that time he called the legislation, "The cornerstone of my administration" (retrieved 12-06-2006 from www.ed.gov). Now, as the legislation approaches reauthorization, it appears that in its quest to leave no child behind, Bush's "cornerstone" has backed states and school districts into corners regarding how best to help struggling readers.

Ultimately, in the state of Florida school districts are penalized for "failing" report cards. However, it is the children who make pay the ultimate price. A total of three meta-analyses containing 700 analyses of achievement, from more than 80 studies published from 1925 to 2006 fail to support the use of retention as an early intervention to enhance academic achievement (Jimerson & Kaufman, 2003; Jimerson, 2001; Holmes, 1989; Silbergliitt et al., 2006). Although the goal of No Child Left Behind is for every child to read on grade level by the end of third-grade, countless students continue to be left behind as retained students. During this small study in a small school district on the west coast of Florida, of the 547 students who qualified for summer school, 336 third-grade students attended summer school. Of the 336 students who attended summer school on the first day, 285 students completed summer school.

Of the 285 students who completed summer school, 83 students (29%) passed the alternative test at the end of summer school. The remaining students were left behind.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: The Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (ERAS)

Elementary Reading Attitude Survey

















School _____ Grade _____ Name _____

Please circle the picture that describes how you feel when you read a book.

1.	How do you feel when you read a book on a rainy Saturday?				
2.	How do you feel when you read a book in school during free time?				
3.	How do you feel about reading for fun at home?				
4.	How do you feel about getting a book for a present?				

















Appendix A: (Continued)

Please circle the picture that describes how you feel when you read a book.

5.	How do you feel about spending free time reading a book?				
6.	How do you feel about starting a new book?				
7.	How do you feel about reading during summer vacation?				
8.	How do you feel about reading instead of playing?				

















Appendix A: (Continued)

Please circle the picture that describes how you feel when you read a book.

9.	How do you feel about going to a bookstore?				
10.	How do you feel about reading different kinds of books?				
11.	How do you feel when a teacher asks you questions about what you read?				
12.	How do you feel about reading workbook pages and worksheets?				

















Appendix A: (Continued)

Please circle the picture that describes how you feel when you read a book.

13.	How do you feel about reading in school?			
				
14.	How do you feel about reading your school books?			
				
15.	How do you feel about learning from a book?			
				
16.	How do you feel when it's time for reading in class?			
				

Appendix A: (Continued)

Please circle the picture that describes how you feel when you read a book.

17.	How do you feel about stories you read in reading class?				
18.	How do you feel when you read out loud in class?				
19.	How do you feel about using a dictionary?				
20.	How do you feel about taking a reading test?				

Appendix A: (Continued)

Elementary Reading Attitude Survey Scoring Sheet

Student Name _____

Teacher _____

Grade _____ Administration Date _____

Scoring Guide	
4 points	Happiest Garfield
3 points	Slightly smiling Garfield
2 points	Mildly upset Garfield
1 point	Very upset Garfield

Recreational reading

- 1. _____
- 2. _____
- 3. _____
- 4. _____
- 5. _____
- 6. _____
- 7. _____
- 8. _____
- 9. _____
- 10. _____

Academic reading

- 1. _____
- 2. _____
- 3. _____
- 4. _____
- 5. _____
- 6. _____
- 7. _____
- 8. _____
- 9. _____
- 10. _____

Raw Score: _____

Raw Score: _____

Full scale raw score (Recreational + Academic): _____

Percentile ranks: Recreational
..... Academic
..... Full scale

© PAWS – www.professorgarfield.org
Survey designed by Dennis J. Kear, Wichita State University

Appendix B: Informed Consent Form

The Effect of a Summer School Literacy Program on the Reading Attitudes of Elementary School Struggling Readers
Katie Fradley, Ph.D Candidate, Childhood Education Department
 College of Education, University of South Florida, (941) 708-6100 (#2234)

<p>1. My Study: This research study is to be done by Katie Fradley and is for a doctoral dissertation. You are being asked to allow your child to participate in this research study because he/she has qualified to attend reading summer school. Third graders attending summer school will be asked to participate. The study will examine how third grade student's attitude about reading changes following summer school. First, your child will be taking a brief attitude survey that asks questions about their feelings and attitudes about reading. This survey takes about 10 minutes to complete and will be administered by their summer school teacher. The survey will be administered 3 times during the summer. Your child's name will be removed from the survey and the surveys will be coded using numbers. Four to Six students from each summer school site will be selected to participate in a one time "reading focus group". This small group discussion on reading will meet just one time and will last one hour. It will take place the last week of summer school. Times will be prearranged with teachers, so your child will not miss important instruction. A report summarizing the findings in a group format will be given to the district. It is hoped that up to 300 other students will participate in this research study.</p>
<p>2. Benefits of the Study: Your child will not directly benefit. They will not be paid or receive any gifts, etc. for taking part in this study. There are no known risks. The district may benefit because teachers and administrators will learn how summer school impacts children's attitudes about reading.</p>
<p>3. Confidentiality: Information about your child, including the attitude survey and notes from the focus groups, will be kept completely confidential and in a locked file cabinet in my home. They will not be destroyed at the end of the study, but your child's name will be removed from all surveys and notes from the focus groups. The study staff/P.I. will be the only one able to see an individual student's responses. Authorized research personnel, employees of the Department of Health and Human Services and the USF Institutional Review Board and its staff, and any other individuals acting on behalf of USF, may inspect the records from this research project. Reports about the findings will not use the names of any student or the summer school that students attend. The district will receive a final report.</p>
<p>4. Voluntary: Your decision to allow your child to participate is completely voluntary. You or your child will not be paid, and his /her participation does not count for any grade at school. His /her answers will not affect his /her grades.</p>
<p>5. Instructions: Please read and sign the agreement form on the back of this page and return it to your child's teacher as soon as possible. If you have any questions, please call me, Katie Fradley at (941) 708-6100 (#2234).</p>

IRB Approval
 FWA 00001669

IRB Number: 105750

From 5/16/07

Thru 5/16/08

Please turn the page ----->

We Hope You Will Help Us With This Study!

The Effect of the FCAT Examination on the Attitudes Toward Reading of Elementary School Struggling Readers
 Katie Fradley, P.h.D Candidate, Childhood Education Department
 College of Education, University of South Florida, (941) 708-6100 #2234

IRB Approval
 FWA 00001668

IRB Number: 10SY76E

From 2-9-2007

Thru 2-8-2008

1. My Study:

You are being asked to allow your child to participate in this research study because he/she attends Rowlett Elementary School. I am asking permission for children in the third grade remediation classes to participate. There may be 30 students participating in the research study. I will compare how Third grade students attitude about reading changes following the FCAT examination. First, your child will take a brief attitude survey that asks them questions about their feelings and attitudes on reading. The survey takes about 10 minutes to complete. I will be not use your child's name on the survey, just a number. Then I will analyze the results and return after the FCAT to administer the survey one more time. Once again, this will take approximately 10 minutes. Times will be prearranged with teachers, so your child will not miss important instruction. I will give the school a report about the results for the whole group. The school report will be in group format.

2. Benefits of the Study:

Your child will not directly benefit. There are no known risks. The school may benefit because teachers and administrators will learn how the FCAT examination impacts your child's attitude about reading.

3. Confidentiality:

The attitude survey completed by your child, will be kept completely confidential and in a locked file cabinet in my home. They will not be destroyed at the end of the study, but your child's name will be removed from all surveys. I will be the only one able to see an individual student's responses. Authorized research personnel, employees of the Department of Health and Human Services and the USF Institutional Review Board and its staff, and any other individuals acting on behalf of USF, may inspect the records from this research project. Any report will talk about groups of students without the real names of any student or the school that students attend. The school will receive a final report for the group as a whole.

4. Voluntary:

Your decision to allow your child to participate is completely voluntary. You or your child will not be paid, and his /her participation does not count for any grade at school. His /her answers will not affect his /her grades.

5. Instructions:

Please read and sign the agreement form on the back of this page and return it to your child's teacher as soon as possible. I really appreciate your help in allowing your child to be part of this research study. If you have any questions, please call Katie Fradley at (941) 708-6100 (#2234). If I am not there, please leave her message, and I will return your call.

Please turn the page ----->

Appendix C: Sample Voyager Lesson

A sample third grade lesson began with the children gathered around a table. They each had a soft back reading work-book in front of them. The teacher opened the lesson by specifically teaching a prefix or suffix. Each of the vocabulary words from that lesson had a prefix or suffix in it. After a mini lesson, the teacher introduced 6 more vocabulary words that were in the passage the group was about to read. The teacher then introduced the story and read aloud the passage. Next the teacher led the group as they chorally read the paragraph.


Following the choral read the teacher led the students through a series of questions and answers about the paragraph. Next, the students read the paragraph again chorally. Then the teacher asked the students a series of comprehension questions. Then Depending the group moved on to the next activity which was a vocabulary center. The teacher then called a new group to her table and began to work with the group on the same lesson.

Later that afternoon, the teacher taught the second part of the lesson which was on fluency. Each child had their own fluency workbook, which they worked in during the lesson. During the fluency lesson, the teacher introduced a reading passage and lead the group in a choral. Then, the teacher asked the students to identify words in the text that were unfamiliar. The teacher then reviewed the words and asked one child to do an oral retelling of what the story was about.

Appendix C: Continued

Next, she asked another child to build on that retelling. Then the students partner read the passage. Finally, the lesson ended with a timed read where the students re-read the passage in a 1-minute timed reading. Once again the lesson was taught small group. This time the other students were at the computer or doing independent reading. When the teacher had finished the lesson she switched groups.

Appendix D: Voyager Passport Training Agenda

	<h2>Summer Reading Camp Professional Development</h2>	FACILITATORS: Denver Raney
		LOCATION: Freedom Elementary DATE: June 1, 2007 TIME: 8:00 – 12:00
Purpose	To provide an intensive reading remediation program for struggling readers to improve their academic skills and to be eligible for promotion to the next grade.	
	OUTCOMES: 1. Examine Instructional Day criteria and District Expectations 2. Gain knowledge for implementing Voyager Passport program with fidelity and enthusiasm 3. Explore strategies for increasing student reading fluency and comprehension	Protocols: Be fully present Maintain a sense of humor Be an active listener Take care of yourself and others Focus on the positive
	AGENDA: Welcome, Introductions, Outcomes, Agenda, BIN Instructional Day & District Expectations Research Study Voyager Break & Report to Breakout Rooms Breakout Sessions Reading Resource Teachers Meet	TIMELINE 8:00-8:10 8:10-8:30 8:30-8:45 8:45-9:15 9:15-9:30 9:30-11:45 11:45-12:00
NEXT STEPS: ACTION PLAN		
What	Implications – To Do - Notes	Timeline

Appendix E: ERAS Teacher Training Protocol

Elementary Reading Attitude Survey Group Protocol Teacher Training

Agenda for Teacher Training:

1. First provide a brief overview of the study.
 - i. Explain that the study is measuring children’s attitudes about reading.
 - ii. Ask if anyone is familiar with The Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (ERAS).
 - iii. Explain what the survey measures: “The Elementary Reading Attitude Survey provides a quick indication of students’ attitudes toward reading. It consists of 20 items and can be administered to an entire class in about 10 minutes. Each item presents a brief, simply worded statement about reading, followed by four pictures of Garfield. Each pose is designed to depict a different emotional state, ranging from very positive to very negative”.
2. Now explain to teachers how to administer the assessment.
 - i. Begin by telling students that you wish to find out how they feel about reading. Emphasize that this is not a test and there are no “right” answers. Encourage sincerity.
 - ii. Distribute the surveys and ask the students to write their names in the space at the top.

Appendix E: (Continued)

- iii. Hold up a copy so that the students can see the first page. Point to the picture of Garfield at the far left of the first item.
- iv. Ask the students to look at this same picture on their own survey form. Discuss with them the mood Garfield seems to be in. (very happy). Then move to the next picture ad again discuss Garfield's mood. In the same way move to the third and fourth pictures and talk about Garfield's moods-a little upset and very upset. It is helpful to point out the position of Garfield's mouth, especially in the middle two figures.
- v. Explain to the students that together you will read some statements about reading and that the students should think about how they feel about each statement.
- vi. Instruct the students that then they will circle the picture of Garfield that is closest to their own feelings.
- vii. Emphasize to the students that they should respond according to their own feelings not as Garfield might respond!
- viii. Read each item slowly and distinctly.
- ix. Read each item a second time while students are thinking.
- x. Remind teachers to make sure and read the item number and to remind them of page numbers when new pages are reached.

Appendix E: (Continued)

3. Explain to the teachers that I will be scoring the surveys. Ask them if they will gather the surveys up once complete and send them to the office to put them in a large envelope which has the researcher's name on the it.

Appendix F: ERAS Group Protocol

Directions for use

- Begin by telling the students that you wish to find out how they feel about reading. Emphasize that this is not a test and there are no “right” answers. Encourage sincerity.
- Distribute the surveys and ask the students to write their names in the space at the top.
- Hold up a copy so that the students can see the first page. Point to the picture of Garfield at the far left of the first item.
- Ask the students to look at this same picture on their own survey form. Discuss with them the mood Garfield seems to be in. (very happy). Then move to the next picture and again discuss Garfield’s mood (a little happy). In the same way move to the third and fourth pictures and talk about Garfield’s moods (a little upset and very upset). It is helpful to point out the position of Garfield’s mouth, especially in the middle two figures.
- Explain to the students that together you will read some statements about reading and that the students should think about how they feel about each statement.
- Instruct the students that then they will circle the picture of Garfield that is closest to their own feelings.
- Emphasize to the students that they should respond according to their own feelings not as Garfield might respond!
- Read each item slowly and distinctly.
- Read each item a second time while students are thinking.
- Remind teachers to make sure and read the item number and to remind them of page numbers when new pages are reached.
- When done turn into the front office for me to collect.

Appendix G: Informed Consent Pilot Study

We Hope You Will Help Us With This Study!

The Effect of the FCAT Examination on the Attitudes Toward Reading of Elementary School Struggling Readers
 Katie Fradley, P.h.D. Candidate, Childhood Education Department
 College of Education, University of South Florida, (941) 708-6100 #2234

IRB Approval
 FWA 00001600
 IRB Number: 10SY76E
 From 2-9-2007
 Thru 2-9-2008

1. My Study:

You are being asked to allow your child to participate in this research study because he/she attends Rowlett Elementary School. I am asking permission for children in the third grade remediation classes to participate. There may be 30 students participating in the research study. I will compare how Third grade students attitude about reading changes following the FCAT examination. First, your child will take a brief attitude survey that asks them questions about their feelings and attitudes on reading. The survey takes about 10 minutes to complete. I will be not use your child's name on the survey, just a number. Then I will analyze the results and return after the FCAT to administer the survey one more time. Once again, this will take approximately 10 minutes. Times will be prearranged with teachers, so your child will not miss important instruction. I will give the school a report about the results for the whole group. The school report will be in group format.

2. Benefits of the Study:

Your child will not directly benefit. There are no known risks. The school may benefit because teachers and administrators will learn how the FCAT examination impacts your child's attitude about reading.

3. Confidentiality:

The attitude survey completed by your child, will be kept completely confidential and in a locked file cabinet in my home. They will not be destroyed at the end of the study, but your child's name will be removed from all surveys. I will be the only one able to see an individual student's responses. Authorized research personnel, employees of the Department of Health and Human Services and the USF Institutional Review Board and its staff, and any other individuals acting on behalf of USF, may inspect the records from this research project. Any report will talk about groups of students without the real names of any student or the school that students attend. The school will receive a final report for the group as a whole.

4. Voluntary:

Your decision to allow your child to participate is completely voluntary. You or your child will not be paid, and his /her participation does not count for any grade at school. His /her answers will not affect his /her grades.

5. Instructions:

Please read and sign the agreement form on the back of this page and return it to your child's teacher as soon as possible. I really appreciate your help in allowing your child to be part of this research study. If you have any questions, please call Katie Fradley at (941) 708-6100 (#2234). If I am not there, please leave her message, and I will return your call.

Please turn the page ----->

<p>Questions and Contacts: The University of South Florida's Institutional Review Board has approved this study. If you or your child has any questions about your child's rights as a person taking part in this study, you or your child may contact a member of the Division of Research Integrity and Compliance of the University of South Florida at (813) 974-9343.</p>	<p>Agreement Form (Parent Consent):</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> I give permission for my child to be included in this study. The Effect of the FCAT Examination on the Attitudes Toward Reading of Elementary School Struggling Readers</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> I do not give my permission for my child to be included in this study.</p> <p>If you sign, it means you agree to let your child participate in the study The Effect of the FCAT Examination on the Attitudes Toward Reading of Elementary School Struggling Readers. You and your child are free to stop participating at any time, without question Please sign and return one copy and keep the other copy for your records.</p> <p>Signature of both parents is required.</p> <p>Signature of Parent: _____ (Mother) Date: _____</p> <p>Signature of Parent: _____ (Father) Date: _____</p> <p>Mother's printed name: _____</p> <p>Father's printed name: _____</p> <p>Child's Name: _____ Teacher's name: _____</p> <p>Child's Date of Birth: _____ Child's Age: 8 9 10 11 12</p>
<div style="border: 1px solid black; display: inline-block; padding: 2px;"> IRG# 10SY76E APPROVED </div>	
<div style="border: 1px solid black; display: inline-block; padding: 2px;"> USF INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD #1400016503 </div>	
<p>Agreement Form (Student Assent):</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> I understand what this study is about and I agree to participate in this study.</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> I do not wish to participate in this study.</p> <p>Signature of student: _____ Date: _____</p> <p>Signature of investigator: _____ Date: _____</p> <p>Signature of witness: _____ Date: _____</p>	

Appendix H: ERAS Pilot Study Group Protocol

Group Protocol for teachers to administer the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey

Directions for use

- Begin by telling the students that you wish to find out how they feel about reading. Emphasize that this is not a test and there are no “right” answers. Encourage sincerity.
- Distribute the surveys and ask the students to write their names in the space at the top.
- Hold up a copy so that the students can see the first page. Point to the picture of Garfield at the far left of the first item.
- Ask the students to look at this same picture on their own survey form. Discuss with them the mood Garfield seems to be in. (very happy). Then move to the next picture and again discuss Garfield’s mood (a little happy). In the same way move to the third and fourth pictures and talk about Garfield’s moods (a little upset and very upset). It is helpful to point out the position of Garfield’s mouth, especially in the middle two figures.
- Explain to the students that together you will read some statements about reading and that the students should think about how they feel about each statement.
- Instruct the students that then they will circle the picture of Garfield that is closest to their own feelings.
- Emphasize to the students that they should respond according to their own feelings not as Garfield might respond!
- Read each item slowly and distinctly.
- Read each item a second time while students are thinking.

Appendix I: ERAS Pilot Study Scores

Pilot Study ERAS Scores

ID #	Pretest			Posttest		
	Rec.	Ac.	Full Scale	Rec.	Acad.	Full Scale
1	33	43	73	27	34	61
2	33	35	68	19	27	46
3	31	30	61	23	32	55
4	28	30	58	28	36	64
5	32	37	69	33	37	70
6	35	37	72	30	35	65
7	31	27	58	25	21	46
8	31	31	62	30	32	62
9	28	31	59	29	27	56
10	32	35	67	16	16	32
11	35	32	67	30	28	58
12	36	37	73	33	37	70
13	31	34	65	37	34	71
14	33	34	67	29	34	63
15	36	36	72	34	33	67

Appendix J: Coding Training Protocol

Protocol for Coding Training

Go over the rules for assigning units to categories (Krippendork, 1980)

1. Review where data came (The transcripts of the focus groups conducted during summer school).
2. Review specific characteristics of the coders:
 - a. The primary coder was the researcher who was a graduate student trained in qualitative methods.
 - b. The secondary coder was a fellow graduate students also trained in qualitative research. The secondary coder reviewed 20% of the transcripts to verify the accuracy.
 - i. The 20% was made up of one question at four of the five sites.
Two questions were verified from the fifth site.
 - ii. Differences were discussed and an agreement was made as to how to code the data in question.

Teach the secondary coder how to code the data.

1. Use a sample question that will not be scored by the secondary coder.
2. Review the Use cut and paste technique to identify section of the research that was relevant to the question.
3. Take the Question and review sample answers.
4. Now explain to secondary coder how the research assigned the “codes or chunks”
5. Explain to researcher that she will be working from a typology that the researcher has already established.
6. Review Sample codes.
7. Give the secondary researcher the transcripts from 20% of the questions. At this time also give her the typology the researcher had already established in regards to possible codes for each answer.

Appendix J: (Continued)

8. Discuss what will be done if there is a discrepancy amongst the two coders.
 - a. In the event of a discrepancy the two coders will discuss the specific response and come to agreement as to how to code it.
 - b. In the event that a consensus cannot be agreed on, both answers will be accepted.

Appendix K: Focus Group Protocol

Protocol for Focus Groups

Agenda

1. Introductions: Introduce the children to one another. Go around the circle and state your name and your home school.
2. Introduce self (moderator)
3. Breaking The Ice: Talk with children about pets. (Have you ever had a pet? Does anyone have a dog?)
4. Explain the purpose of the session to talk about reading
5. Explain the moderator's role (to run the session) and the observer's role (to observe and tape record).
6. Review ground rules
7. Ask questions (be sure to use clarification and probing routines as necessary).

Focus Group Ground Rules

- Remind the students to speak clearly one at a time: "It will be important for each of you to speak clearly and one at a time."
- No right or wrong answers
- Need for active participation

Clarification and Probing Routines

- Because children will agree with others to avoid standing out, it will be important to frequently ask if anyone has "other ideas" or "different opinions".

Appendix K: Continued

- Watch for gestures and facial expressions that may reveal something about the accuracy of a comment, or suggest that someone has a strong feeling about a question being asked.
- If a talker takes over the conversation, thank them for sharing and call on another student.
- Begin with voluntary responses, if some children are not participating, call on them.

Questions

1. Tell me about summer school. Which part of summer school do you like best?
2. Do you like reading? Why or why not?
3. What types of books do you like to read the most?

Appendix L: Attitude Scale for Classroom Observation

Attitude Scale Used for Classroom Observations Gathered from Field Notes

Enthusiastic	Engaged	Indifferent	Off Task	Withdrawn
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Enthusiastic

- Sitting on edge of seat
- Comments such as, “Please pick me!”
- Smiling
- Raising hand as high as possible
- On task

Engaged

- Raising Hand normally
- On task

Indifferent

- Going through the motions
- No verbal comments
- No expression

Appendix L: (Continued)

Off Task

- Playing with items in desk
- Turned around during lesson
- Frequent trips to bathroom or water fountain
- Fake reading
- Rolling around on ground during independent reading

Withdrawn

- Head down
- Jacket over Head
- No comments
- No expression

Appendix M: Example of Transcript Coding

Example of Transcript Coding

1. Use cut and paste technique to identify section of the research that was relevant to the question.
2. Question 1: Tell me about summer school. What part of summer school do you like best?
Sample answers included:
 - a. "I like recess."
 - b. "I like reading independently."
 - c. "The timed reading. You know you can beat your time."
 - d. "You can learn more."
3. After reading all of the transcribed responses the following "codes or chunks" emerged. Sample codes included:
 - a. Timed reading
 - b. Independent reading
 - c. Read aloud
 - d. Pass test
 - e. Learning
 - f. Recess
 - g. Playing with friends
 - h. Meeting new people
 - i. Games
 - j. Teachers
4. Next look at the series of words and phrases to determine which ones could be clustered together into a category. Sample categories included:
 - a. Social (recess, playing with friends, meeting new people, games)
 - b. Academic (timed reading, independent reading, read loud, teachers, pass test)
 - c. Learning (You can learn more, learning, learn how to read)
5. Now use attribution analysis (Janis, 1965) to examine the frequency of the categories.
 - a. Social: 4
 - b. Academic: 14
 - c. Learning: 2
 - d. No Response: 1

Appendix N: Permission Letter from School District



SCHOOL BOARD

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SCHOOL DISTRICT OF MANATEE COUNTY

April 23, 2007

Ms. Katie Fradley
7515 19th Avenue Drive West
Bradenton, Florida 34209

Dear Ms. Fradley,

As the Supervisor of Measurement and Data Analysis, representing the School District of Manatee County, we have agreed to participate in your research study, *The Effect of a Summer School Literacy Program on the Reading Attitudes of Elementary School Struggling Readers*, which you plan to conduct during the summer of 2007. I have reviewed your research and find it to be appropriate for implementation in summer school.

As a part of your study, Manatee County gives you permission to collect data from third-grade summer school students whose parents have given permission to participate.

The district will provide the available resources you will need to conduct your study. We will provide a place for you to conduct your focus groups at each of the summer school sites.

Although there are no known risks associated with the research, and participants can withdraw from the research study at anytime, there are adequate provisions to handle unanticipated/adverse events.

If you have further questions, or need any further assistance, please do not hesitate to contact me. Good luck with your research.

Thank you,

Carla Frazier, Supervisor
Office of Measurement & Data Analysis

Appendix O: Request Letter for Study to School District

April 22, 2007

Lynnette Edwards
Assistant Superintendent of Academics
School Board of Manatee County
215 Manatee Avenue West
Bradenton, Florida 34205

Dear Ms. Edwards,

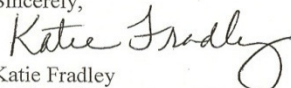
Thank you for meeting with me on Wednesday to discuss my research study for my dissertation at the University of South Florida. I really appreciate your support and interest! The title of my study is *The Effect of a Summer School Literacy Program on the Reading Attitudes of Elementary School Struggling Readers*. The purpose of the study is to examine the attitudes of third grade struggling readers attending summer school in Manatee County to determine if their attitude towards reading changes following summer school using Voyager Passport.

The study would involve me training summer school teachers in the administration of The Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (ERAS). This would take approximately 10 minutes and could be done during the summer school training day. The survey takes approximately 10 minutes and could be administered by the summer school teacher at three different intervals during the summer with students whose parents give permission. If possible I would like to send the parent permission slips home with the summer school permission letter. Following the administration of the survey, I would like to select 4-6 students from each summer school site to participate in a one hour focus group. This focus group would meet just one time the last week of summer school and would consist of a series of questions designed to stimulate a discussion on reading attitudes.

If possible, during summer school I would like to visit each classroom once a week for approximately 15 minutes to observe the students who were targeted for a focus group. These observations will not intrude in anyway on the classroom teacher. Additionally, we discussed the possibility of either the reading coaches or assistant principals conducting weekly fidelity checks on the implementation of Voyager Passport.

I am very excited about this study and the implications for Manatee County. I am happy to answer any questions, or provide additional materials and information. Thank you for your support of this research study!

Sincerely,



Katie Fradley
fradleyk@fc.manatee.k12.fl.us
(941) 795-2666

Appendix P: Summer School Day Structure

Framework for an Instructional Day		
Time	Instructional Activity Focusing on Student Needs	Materials
8:30-9:00	Whole Group – Read Aloud, Choral Reading, Shared Reading, Shared/Modeled Writing	Big Books, Summer Success, chart paper markers
9:00-10:30 (2 rotations of 45 minutes e)	2 Small Groups (45 min each, each group no more than 5 students) Group 1 - Explicit Instruction w/teacher Vocabulary/Comprehension - 30 minutes Fluency - 15 minutes Group 2 – Independent Reading or Literacy Activity	Voyager Passport – 1st lesson of the day
10:30–11:30 (3 rotations of 20-minutes each)	3 Small Groups - Guided Reading & Assessment w/teacher. Differentiated Instructional Groups for Independent Literacy Activities (technology if available) with mentors for the five areas of reading	Leveled Books, Harcourt Trophies, Big Books, Elements of Vocabulary
11:30-12:00	LUNCH	
12:00-1-30 (2 rotations of 45 minutes each)	2 Small Groups (45 min each, each group no more than 5 students) Group 1 - Explicit Instruction w/teacher Vocabulary/Comprehension - 30 minutes Fluency - 15 minutes Group 2 – Independent Reading or Literacy Activity	Voyager Passport – 2nd lesson of the day

Appendix Q: Voyager Fidelity Measure

**Voyager
Passport Summer Reading Camp
Walk-Through Fidelity Visit**

Purpose: To determine that Passport is being implemented according to the program's guidelines

Date _____ Visitor/s _____

School _____ Classroom Code _____

Grade/s _____ Number of Students in Class _____

Visit Starts _____ Visit Ends _____ Number of Students in Group _____

Adventure Number _____ Lesson Number _____

I. <i>Voyager Passport</i> Classroom Organization	Place a <input type="checkbox"/> within only one box for each item			Comments
	Clearly Evident	Somewhat Evident	Not Evident	
Voyager materials are easily accessible to students				
Small-group instruction area is designated				
2. <i>Voyager Passport</i> Instruction				
Pre-planning is evident in lesson delivery				
Teacher follows daily lesson plan provided in teacher materials				
Instruction in Comprehension & Vocabulary module (30 min) and the Fluency module (10 min) of the lesson are delivered				
Students respond chorally and individually during lesson				
Reading behaviors and expectations are evident ("Point to box A," "Put your finger under the first word," "Ready read," etc.)				

Appendix Q: (Continued)

3. <i>Voyager Passport</i> Pacing	Place a \checkmark within only one box for each item			Comments
	Clearly Evident	Somewhat Evident	Not Evident	
Instructional pacing matches suggested times (30 minutes for Comprehension/Vocabulary and 10 minutes for Fluency. Two complete lessons delivered each day.)				
The Adventure and Lesson numbers are indicated to students or posted on board.				

Appendix R: Protocol for Gathering and Analyzing Field Notes

Gathering Field Notes

1. During the initial classroom visit introduce self to the summer school teacher. Ask for a class schedule and ask the teacher to point out the targeted students.
2. Visit each classroom weekly at a different time. Schedule visits when children are in the classroom.
3. Observations should last approximately 45 minutes.
4. During the visits observe the targeted students.
5. Throughout the observations record field notes using a laptop computer.
6. Use anecdotal records to record critical incidents taking place in the classroom during the observation, as well as the specific activities the targeted children were engaged in during the observation. (Brandt, 1972).
7. These anecdotal notes contained the classroom activity as well as the targeted student's attitude during the observation.
8. Next, from the anecdotal records, provide a generalized description of the observation described in the anecdotal records (Tjora, 2006).
9. Use Attitude Scale for Classroom Observation (Appendix R) to determine attitude of child during observation.
10. Then categorize the observation and interpret the child's attitude.
11. In an effort to protect the identity of the participants, change the names of the schools, teachers and students.

Appendix R: (Continued)

Analyzing Field Notes

1. Take anecdotal records and determine the unit of analysis.
2. Develop units into emerging categories.
3. Examine anecdotal records and refer to Appendix R (Attitude Scale for Classroom Observation) to determine the child's attitude during the observation.
4. Count how many times the category was observed (Tjora, 2006).
5. Count how many times the different attitudes were observed.
6. The results were then analyzed and presented using charts and histograms.

Appendix S: Focus Group Clarification and Probing Routines

Clarification and Probing Routines

1. Because children will agree with others to avoid standing out, it will be important to frequently ask if anyone has “other ideas” or “different opinions”.
2. Watch for gestures and facial expressions that may reveal something about the accuracy of a comment, or suggest that someone has a strong feeling about a question being asked.
3. If a “talker” takes over the conversation, thank them for sharing and call on another student.
4. Begin with voluntary responses, if some children are not participating, call on them.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Katie Fradley received her Bachelor's degree in Elementary Education from Florida State University in 1990. That year she began a career as an elementary school teacher teaching third grade. During the next 18 years she taught every grade from kindergarten through fifth grade. In 1998 after becoming a Nationally Board Certified Teacher, Fradley realized she needed to further her education. During this same period, while teaching first grade, Fradley developed a fascination with struggling readers. This inspired her to pursue a Master's Degree in Reading in 2001 from The University of South Florida. The next year Fradley began taking courses towards a Ph.D. in curriculum and instruction at the University of South Florida's Tampa campus. During this time Fradley continued to teach elementary school full time, as well as working as a graduate assistant and teaching undergraduate courses on the University of South Florida's Sarasota campus.