

Summer Reading Setback

by

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## **Abstract**

The purpose of this project was to examine how best to prevent the phenomenon known as Summer Reading Setback. In Chapter 1, I introduce my topic, provide a rationale for the project, outline connections to the British Columbia curriculum for Language Arts (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 2016), and provide an overview of the content of the project. The literature review in Chapter 2 features a discussion of related reading theories: bottom-up, top-down, interactive, and transactional. As well, the topics addressed in the literature review include Summer Reading Setback, reading volume, reading fluency, and reading motivation. Based on the literature review, I created a professional workshop for teachers called “Summer Reading Setback,” which is included in the Appendix. In Chapter 3, I identify connections between the workshop and the theories and research I reviewed in Chapter 2. Finally, I identify some of my key learnings based on the review of the research.

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## **Chapter 1**

### **Introduction**

In this introductory chapter, I explain how I selected the topic of Summer Reading Setback for my project. I then offer some connections between the research on Summer Reading Setback and the Grade 3 British Columbia English Language Arts curriculum (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 2016). Finally, I provide a brief overview of my project.

### **My Personal Background**

When I first started teaching, one of the aspects I found most gratifying was observing the growth in my students' reading levels over the course of the year. I loved watching their confidence grow as they were able to independently read more and more difficult texts.

However, as a classroom teacher with over 10 years of experience, I also observed how many children return from their summer vacation unable to successfully read the level of text they were previously able to read confidently and independently at the end of the school year. For some of my students, this loss was as much as six PM Benchmark reading levels (Randell & Smith, 2003). As a primary teacher, I devote so much time and effort over the course of the school year helping children improve their reading skills. Therefore, it is extremely frustrating and disappointing when students return to school in September having lost some of the gains made during the previous year.

The significance of the topic of my project was revealed during my review of the literature when I learned how detrimental this phenomenon, referred to as Summer Reading Setback (Allington et al., 2010; Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2003; Kim, 2006), can be with its cumulative effects. One of the goals of my project was to learn more about the causes of Summer

Reading Setback and find applicable ways to address this problem in a classroom-based or even a school-wide setting.

Essentially Summer Reading Setback is when students return from summer vacation unable to read book levels they were previously able to read independently in June. This reading loss is most often observed among children who come from backgrounds that are referred to by researchers as socio-disadvantaged (Alexander, Entwisle, & Olson, 2007; Allington et al., 2010; Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2003; Jesson, McNaughton, & Kolose, 2014; Kim, 2006). Summer Reading Setback has two major implications. First, although the gap starts out small, the differences can potentially grow to result in huge discrepancies between children who are socio-economically advantaged and disadvantaged (Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2003; Cahill, Horvath, McGill-Franzen & Allington, 2013; Johnston, Riley, Ryan, & Kelly-Vance, 2015; Kim & White, 2011; Schacter, 2003). Although socioeconomic status is not the only factor associated with Summer Reading Setback, it is one of the more predominant contributing factors. Secondly, teachers find it necessary to spend time reviewing lost skills instead of teaching new curriculum at the beginning of the year (Alexander et al., 2007; Johnston et al., 2015).

Through my experience with reading instruction, I knew that in order for students to maintain reading achievement, they need to read more (Allington, 2014; Samuels & Farstrup, 2006). I also knew that in order for me to motivate my students to increase their reading volume, I needed to learn more about motivation of reading (Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2013; Cahill et al., 2013). As I was conducting my research, I realized that reading fluency and reading volume are very interconnected (Rasinski, 2012, 2014) and that it would be important for me to gain a better understanding of reading fluency in order to help my students more efficiently. By researching reading volume, reading motivation and fluency, I wanted to enlighten my own

teaching practices while simultaneously learning about strategies for alleviating Summer Reading Setback.

### **Curriculum Connections**

The Kindergarten to Grade 7 English Language Arts curriculum in British Columbia was updated in 2015 with an emphasis on big ideas, curricular competencies, content, and core competencies (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 2016). Ideally, revisions to the curriculum would lead to the delivery of pedagogy that engages and personalizes learning for students.

For the topic of Summer Reading Setback, I looked specifically at the Grade 3 English Language Arts curriculum and focused on some key curricular competencies (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 2016). I identified those competencies that pertain to reading achievement – developing reading strategies and making meaning.

*Using oral, written, visual, and digital texts, students are expected to individually and collaboratively to be able to:*

Comprehend and connect (reading, listening, viewing)

- Read fluently at grade level
- Use sources of information and prior knowledge to make meaning
- Make connections between ideas from a variety of sources and prior knowledge to build understanding
- Use developmentally appropriate reading, listening, and viewing strategies to make meaning
- Engage actively as listeners, viewers, and readers, as appropriate, to develop understanding of self, identity, and community

- Use personal experience and knowledge to connect to text and make meaning  
(British Columbia Ministry of Education, 2016, pp. 13-16)

When reviewing the curriculum, I appreciate how students' background knowledge is recognized as being fundamental to their meaning-making. Also emphasized in the curriculum is the importance of readers making meaning, the sole reason for reading. However, students also need to read texts at an appropriate difficulty level to ensure optimum understanding. Ideally, if teachers utilize specific strategies for teaching reading fluency and increasing reading volume and motivation, children will be able to better understand what they read. As described above, these topics are related to Summer Reading Setback and can help students as they strive to meet curricular goals.

### **Project Overview**

In this chapter, I outlined my reasons for choosing the topic of Summer Reading Setback for my project, and explained the importance of alleviating Summer Reading Setback. I also noted the topics I researched that are related to achieving several curricular learning outcomes in reading.

In Chapter 2, I describe the theoretical frameworks of bottom-up, top-down, interactive (Tracey & Morrow, 2017), and transactional theory (Rosenblatt, 1986) of reading that guided the design of the PowerPoint presentation I created as part of my project. I also provide a review of the literature on some aspects of reading including reading volume, reading fluency, and reading motivation. These topics are paramount to preventing Summer Reading Setback as they are associated with children's reading achievement.

In Chapter 3, I outline a presentation I created to help teachers better understand Summer Reading Setback and offer ways to help support readers who experience this reading

loss phenomenon. The presentation is based on the research findings and literature discussed in Chapter 2.

## Chapter 2

### Literature Review

The literature review begins with a discussion of four theoretical frameworks of reading that are relevant to Summer Reading Setback: bottom-up, top-down, interactive, and transactional. I then discuss possible causes of and potential ways to alleviate Summer Reading Setback. Finally, I examine the research on volume of reading, fluency, and motivation of reading, and discuss how these topics are related to Summer Reading Setback.

#### Theoretical Frameworks of Reading

##### **Bottom-up.**

In general, from 1910 to the 1950s, the teaching of reading exhibited practices that reflected beliefs associated with a bottom-up theory (Tracey & Morrow, 2017). Bottom-up theory is grounded in behaviourism, which has two underlying assumptions: behaviour is the response to stimuli, and external stimuli can be manipulated to improve the original behaviour. Basically, a behavioural approach breaks down complex reading skills into smaller, simpler tasks (“bottom” of the process) that are explicitly taught until mastered at which point students will move sequentially on to higher, more difficult tasks until they reach the “top” of cognitive processing skills. People who believe in the bottom-up theory of reading view reading as a “behavior composed of isolated skills, each of which could be reinforced to increase student achievement” (Tracey & Morrow, 2017, p. 40). Teachers who embrace a bottom-up theory often engage in teaching where they focus much more on graphophonic information, and explicitly teach isolated lessons on phonics, vocabulary, and literal comprehension. The emphasis is more on the individual skills and the assumption is that once children are able to complete these skills, comprehension will occur (Tracey & Morrow, 2017). However, research has shown that children need more than decontextualized lessons on individual skills; many other factors need to be

considered for a child to become an avid, motivated reader (Allington, 2013; Gambrell, 2011; Rasinski, 2014).

### **Top-down.**

Conversely, top-down reading theory is grounded in cognitive theory and gained popularity in the 1960s and 1970s. Cognitive theory emphasizes the importance of the background knowledge children bring to reading to make meaning of texts. According to one top-down theory on reading, readers constantly use their knowledge to make predictions and hypotheses about what they are reading. They compare what they are reading to their knowledge and then make adjustments to their predictions accordingly (Tracey & Morrow, 2017). Lessons are much more focused on semantic and syntactic information and these processes are highlighted in context so ideally, children can comprehend what they are reading with more ease. The tenets of this theory are in opposition to research findings that have revealed how concentrating on the automaticity of word recognition can greatly help students' reading fluency and comprehension (Lagerge & Samuels, 1974; Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; Kuhn et al., 2006; Rasinski, 2012).

### **Interactive.**

In the late 1970s, Rumelhart introduced the first nonlinear model of reading known as the interactive theory of reading. He believed that information processing could not be explained by either the linear models of bottom-up or top-down, and stated that reading involves a synthesis of information happening simultaneously (Tracey & Morrow, 2017). Rumelhart believed that:

The simultaneous processing of syntactic information (referring to word order within sentences), semantic information (related to message construction), orthographic information (related to visual input), and lexical information (referring to word

knowledge) allows for higher-level and lower-level processes to simultaneously interact on the visual input. (Tracey & Morrow, 2017, p. 203)

Reading pedagogy that reflects the adoption of an interactive theoretical stance would include the explicit teaching of both bottom-up skills (e.g., sight words, sound/letter correspondence, word families) and top-down strategies (e.g., context clues) to help children identify unfamiliar words. In the 1990s, guided reading became a very popular form of instruction that was situated in the interactive theory of reading. This approach to reading instruction can afford students with strategies to decode and comprehend text simultaneously, which is consistent with the tenets of interactive theory (Tracey & Morrow, 2017).

### **Transactional theory.**

Louise Rosenblatt (1986) viewed reading as a transactional relationship between the reader and the text. She described this relationship as follows: “Reading is a transactional process that goes on between a particular reader and a particular text at a particular time, and under particular circumstances” (Rosenblatt, 1986, p. 123). Thus, Rosenblatt respected the multifaceted nature of the reading event and recognized how in-school and out-of-school factors affect a reader’s transaction with text. Rosenblatt “adopted Dewey’s term ‘transaction’ to describe how in reading, both reader and text act upon each other, each mutually contributing to and defining a reciprocal relationship” (Pantaleo, 2013, p. 126). Rosenblatt postulated that readers can adopt two predominantly different stances to texts, efferent or aesthetic, and these stances serve to guide the reader during the reading event. The efferent stance is about making meaning, understanding, and obtaining facts that the reader takes away from the reading. The aesthetic stance, on the other hand, focuses on the transaction between the reader and text, and connecting emotionally with the text. According to Rosenblatt (1986) “every reading event falls

somewhere on a spectrum covering what I term the “predominantly efferent” and the “predominantly aesthetic” stances” (p. 124).

Rosenblatt noted how readers’ sociocultural background influenced their aesthetic stance. Every person brings her/his own cultural background and personal experiences to each reading event and therefore may interpret the text in a unique manner. Rosenblatt stated, “important as the text may be, you can’t explain these differences by simply looking at the text. The pattern of signs on the page remains the same; the difference is in the reader’s activity in relation to those signs” (Karolides, 1999, p. 163). Rosenblatt (1986) expressed concern about teachers not having a full understanding of the efferent/aesthetic continuum and therefore children not being taught to develop the habit of adopting the appropriate stance to particular readings. She also believed that many teachers encourage students to adopt an efferent stance to literature, and do not devote adequate time for aesthetic evocation, to encourage students to think critically about their own recollections and responses, and to truly experience literature for themselves.

### **Reading theories and Summer Reading Setback.**

Researchers have shown that teaching only bottom-up or top-down reading skills and strategies is not as beneficial as teaching children a repertoire of strategies (Allington, 2013; Gambrell, 2011; Kuhn et al., 2006; Rasinski, 2012; Rasinski, 2014). Findings from Allington’s research have consistently indicated that effective reading instruction occurs when students are immersed in appropriately levelled texts and taught contextualized strategies, and pedagogical practices that are reflective of the interactive theory of reading (Allington, 2014; Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2003; Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2013; Allington et al., 2010). In addition, Allington’s research has documented how volume of reading is fundamental to children improving their reading skills. Rosenblatt (1986) also believed children needed to read for

themselves in order to develop as readers and experience the pleasure of reading. As well, she emphasized that teachers needed to teach students how to effectively comprehend and appreciate text through both an efferent and aesthetic stance.

### **Summer Reading Setback**

For decades, educators have found that students come back from summer vacation unable to read book levels they were previously able to read successfully in June. This reading loss phenomenon is known as Summer Reading Setback. Researchers have found that Summer Reading Setback is most often noticed amongst socio-disadvantaged children where each summer there could be up to a three month slide in their skills (Alexander et al., 2007; Allington et al., 2010; Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2003; Jesson et al., 2014; Kim, 2006). Conversely, socio-economically advantaged children typically remain at the same level or make small gains in their reading skills over the summer.

Summer Reading Setback has two major implications. Firstly, this gap starts out small and grows over time in the elementary years to accumulate to almost a two and one-half year difference in skill level between socio-economically advantaged and disadvantaged children (Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2003; Cahill et al., 2013; Johnston et al., 2015; Kim & White, 2011; Schacter, 2003). However, achievement gains remain relatively the same during the school year for both groups, so this gap is a result of Summer Reading Setback (Graham, McNamara, & Van Lankveld, 2011; Schacter, 2003). Secondly, teachers are finding it necessary to spend valuable instructional time re-teaching lost skills in the fall, time that could be used to be teaching new concepts for educational gains (Alexander et al., 2007; Johnston et al., 2015).

Many factors can contribute to this loss for students who are from low-socioeconomic families. To begin, children who come from homes where books were made accessible from an

early age have shown to score better on initial vocabulary and comprehension tests (Fryer & Levitt, 2004). As well, with this early access to books, children have been recorded to complete three more years of education (Evans, Kelley, Sikora, & Treiman, 2010) According to Allington et al. (2010), Summer Reading Setback can be attributed to lack of reading over the summer months. One possible reason for this lack of reading practice is explained by the Faucet Theory (Allington et al., 2010). During the school year, the faucet is turned on because in most schools, students have access to books, but during the summer vacation, this faucet is turned off for many students from low socioeconomic communities who may not have access to books outside of the school setting.

Allington and McGill-Franzen (2003) identified several reasons to explain children's lack of access to books over the summer. Firstly, children who come from socioeconomically disadvantaged families may not have extra discretionary funds to buy books or other reading materials, as their income may cover only the bare necessities like food, shelter, and clothing. Therefore, these children may have little to no books or reading materials available at home to read. Secondly, if families in less affluent communities are not purchasing books, then retailers may not carry the same variety of books for purchase as compared to retailers in more affluent communities. Lastly, many children from lower socioeconomic homes often have more difficulty accessing libraries to borrow books, due to lack of parental time or ability to travel to a library.

Many districts offer summer school as a way to remediate Summer Reading Setback. However, summer school is expensive to run with the cost of space rental, materials, and hiring qualified teachers to teach the sessions. It is also viewed as punitive to readers who struggle. Furthermore, research findings have shown that not all summer school models are beneficial and yield positive results (Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2003; Kim & White, 2011).

In the next section I review some of the research that has explored different approaches to alleviate Summer Reading Setback.

### **Research on Summer Reading Setback.**

So, what can be done about Summer Reading Setback? Kim (2006) conducted a randomized field trial where he selected 552 multi-racial Grade 4 students from 10 different high-poverty schools in the mid-Atlantic area. Each student in the treatment group was mailed eight books bi-weekly over the course of the summer. All students participating in the field trial were taught comprehension strategies during the last month of school, encouraged by their teachers to read with their families over the summer, and completed baseline reading tests on silent reading and oral reading skills before the summer break began. After taking into account natural attrition, 252 students remained in the treatment group and 234 students in the control group. During the fall, the students completed a survey describing the frequency of their reading during the summer, including the assistance they received from parents/guardians with their reading. Kim used descriptive statistics (two-way analysis of variance and a series of ordinary least squares) to analyze the results. He found that students from high-poverty areas who were provided with books engaged in voluntary and oral reading with their families more often than the control group of children.

Kim (2007) conducted another study with 331 volunteer participants from Grades 1-5 from a public school that had a significant increase in its population of minority children during a 10-year span. Participating students completed The Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (ERAS) and the Stanford Achievement Test (SAT10) as a pre-test and post-test. During the post-test phase, Kim also included questions about the number of books students read during the summer, and the frequency in which they engaged in the 10 literacy activities to help determine

reading volume. Students were mailed 10 books throughout the summer. Analysis of data revealed that those students who were just learning to read did not improve, even with access to books. Kim hypothesized that students cannot just be given books of their own choosing without any guidance or instruction from teachers because, in his opinion, voluntary reading cannot and will not occur if the students choose books that are too difficult, as they will experience difficulties decoding the words, and therefore not comprehend the text. Based on the results of his 2006 and 2007 studies, Kim recommended that teachers provide guidance by giving reading and comprehension lessons in the last month of school prior to children engaging in summer reading in order to gain the most benefits from these programs.

In Kim's 2006 study, students received instruction (ideally review) about comprehension strategies during the last month of school, but in his 2007 study, he did not include this component. Although in both studies Kim provided books to low-income students to increase their reading achievement, he was disappointed with the 2007 findings as the improvements in the treatment group were not as significant as he anticipated based on his previous research. As described below, in his 2008 study with White, students received scaffolded reading lessons prior to summer break with the goal of maximizing summer reading intervention gains. Kim's use of providing students with focused lessons on reading comprehension prior to summer vacation is different from the methods used in Allington's research. As described below, Allington believes, and his research findings support his opinions, that providing children with books over the summer will improve their reading. In Allington's opinion, reading volume is the key element to reducing Summer Reading Setback, and his research has not included an instructional component prior to summer vacation. From a research methods point of view, adding lessons on reading comprehension makes the studies more complicated because not all

teachers teach in the same manner and a lack of consistency in delivery of lessons could affect the results.

Kim and White (2008) tested his ideas in another study that involved 400 students in Grades 3-5 from a suburban district in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States. The students were organized into four experimental groups: control, books only, books with oral reading scaffolding (incremental instruction), and books with oral reading and comprehension scaffolding. All participants were pre-tested in June using the Vocabulary and Comprehension sections of the Iowa Test of Basic Skills test (ITBS). The students were also given an oral reading fluency assessment using the Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS). Before participants left on summer break, they completed a 20-item Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (ERAS) which assessed their attitudes towards academic and recreational reading. Books were then chosen by a computer program from a bank of 240 book titles using two considerations: (1) the child's reading level; and (2) the child's book preferences derived from the ERAS survey. Students in the treatment groups each received one matched book for eight successive weeks throughout the summer. All students were post-tested in September upon returning to school. Analysis of covariance data by ANCOVA showed that students with oral reading and comprehension scaffolding scored significantly higher on the ITBS test than students with no scaffolding. No difference in achievement was found between the treatment group of books and the control group. Similar to Kim's (2006, 2007) conclusions from his previous studies, Kim and White concluded that children cannot be just given books, expected to read, and improvement will happen. They posited that scaffolding for oral reading and comprehension are necessary in order for children to experience significant growth.

According to Allington et al. (2010), students need to be provided easy access to self-selected books to read over the summer in order to maximize voluntary reading. In 2010, Allington et al. conducted a study where they selected Grades 1 and 2 students, who were on free or reduced-priced lunches, from 17 high-poverty elementary schools in two large Florida school districts. The purpose of this study was to explore whether providing low-income children with self-selected books over three consecutive years would positively impact voluntary summer reading and achievement. The study started with 1,082 children in the treatment group and 631 children in the control group. Any students who moved away during the study were removed from the study, so at the end of the three years, 852 students were in the treatment group and 478 students were in the control group. For three consecutive years, children in the treatment group chose 15 books from a book fair and they received 12 of those books over the summer to keep as their own. The books included at the books fair were chosen by researchers from the following four categories: pop culture, series books, culturally relevant, and curriculum relevant. The control group received no books. The researchers relied on results from the Florida Comprehension Achievement Test (FCAT), a test administered annually by teaching personnel to all students in Grades 3 through 8. Allington et al. also administered a participant survey in order to acquire information about summer reading activity, access to books, and home reading support. The researchers used descriptive statistics to determine whether reading proficiency increased after the three consecutive summers. Their findings showed that students who were given self-selected books, engaged in voluntary reading more often and their Summer Reading Setback was indeed minimized. They also found that the more economically disadvantaged students made bigger gains and they hypothesized this result was due to these students having more restricted access to books (i.e., the Faucet Theory).

Kim and Quinn (2013) conducted a meta-analysis where they synthesized 41 classroom- and home-based summer reading interventions that included children from Kindergarten to Grade 8. They hypothesized that the use of classroom and home-based interventions would improve students' achievement in reading outcomes, especially for children from low-income families. Classroom-based interventions consisted mainly of teacher-directed instructional activities where the teacher was trying to improve areas of student weakness. They defined home-based interventions as those designed to maximize child-initiated book reading, whether independently or with family members. Home-based interventions also often included researchers trying to best match students' reading levels with appropriate books, including teacher scaffolded lessons before summer vacation, and encouraging parental involvement. Kim and Quinn used the following five main criteria for their selection of studies for the meta-analysis: (a) the research was conducted in the United States or Canada; (b) the researchers measured the effects on reading achievement; (c) empirical information was sufficient to compute an effect size; (d) participants were in Grades Kindergarten to 8; and (e) an experimental or quasi-experimental design was used to compare performance. Kim and Quinn included five different categories in their coding procedures: (a) major independent variables; (b) research-based instruction and other program moderator variables; (c) methodological moderator variables; (d) participant characteristic moderator variables; and (e) student reading outcomes.

Kim and Quinn (2013) used a variety of different ways to measure and code the research studies. They used dichotomous measures to code whether or not a study included research-based instruction, and used ordinal measures to code how many research-based instructional measures were included in each study. Kim and Quinn also coded for program characteristics: class size, number of program hours per day, total program hours, instructor type, and whether

instructors were trained prior to a program. They used dichotomous codes for study design, determined by whether a study was considered experimental or nonexperimental. Study quality codes, which were based on the What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) standards, fell into one of the following three categories: did not meet WWC standards, met WWC standards with reservations, or met WWC standards without reservations.

The participant characteristic mainly focused on whether or not students were considered low-income status. A study was considered for students of low-income status if it was designed specifically for low-income students. Researchers reported the number of students who were eligible for free and reduce price lunches (FRL), or if more than 50% of the sample was considered low-income. Kim and Quinn (2013) also included a category for mixed-income status for studies where less than 50% of the sample was considered low-income. Finally, they included a category for unreported status for studies that made no mention of income status.

Kim and Quinn (2013) classified student outcomes into five separate coding categories: total reading achievement, reading comprehension total (which included outcomes from standardized tests as well as other reading skills), reading comprehension only (derived from outcomes based on children reading connected texts and answering multiple choice questions), fluency and decoding combined, and reading vocabulary. The analysis completed by Kim and Quinn (2013) revealed that classroom and home interventions had a positive effect on reading achievement, especially for decoding abilities. However, most studies were for a single summer and the effects on reading vocabulary were marginal at best. Kim and Quinn postulated that children require opportunities and access to connected text for several summers in order for reading vocabulary to be impacted. More specifically, the researchers found that research-based instructional practices yielded better results (over 70% better in total reading achievement,

reading comprehension total, and reading comprehension only) than non-research-based practices. The findings also revealed that interventions proved to be most beneficial to children from low-income families and did not seem to significantly affect mixed-income samples for either reading comprehension total outcomes or reading comprehension only outcomes.

Kim and Quinn (2013) found their meta-analysis lead to more questions that needed to be answered about summer reading programs. For example, they suggested that if researchers wanted to improve vocabulary outcomes over the summer months, then explicit, teacher-directed instruction should be offered to children during the school year, prior to students leaving for summer break. They also found that utilizing research-based instructional practices yielded the largest gains in reading comprehension. Kim and Quinn cited studies of classroom interventions during the school year that helped guide instructional practices to improve classroom-based interventions during the summer. They hypothesized that by conducting more research that directly measured teacher-student interactions, teachers' instructional practices, and their emotional support for learning, then researchers and teachers alike would be able to observe more improvements in reading achievement during the summer.

The review of the literature on Summer Reading Setback revealed that at-risk students are more likely to read voluntarily over the summer if books are easily accessible or provided to them. Moreover, for these students to acquire the maximum gain from summer reading, the books need to be within students' independent reading level to avoid reader frustration. Finally, children need to have choice in the books they read, and this element of choice helps to increase voluntary reading. Furthermore, students need to receive research-based comprehension instruction during the school year. Finally, according to Kim's research, it is also beneficial to review key comprehension strategies with students prior to summer break.

## **Factors Connected to Summer Reading Setback**

### **Volume of reading.**

As discussed above, research findings on Summer Reading Setback have revealed how volume of reading is fundamental to improving students' reading proficiency (Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2003; Allington et al., 2010; Kim, 2006; Kim & Quinn, 2013). Brenner and Hiebert (2010) define volume of reading as

the amount of reading practice experienced by students over a given time period. Reading volume can encompass a number of aspects of reading experiences, the number of words, pages, or books that students read; estimates of print exposure; and also measures of time spent reading connected texts. (pp. 348-349)

Allington (2014) stated that in order to achieve volume of reading, teachers need to foster not only fluent reading, but also reading for meaning. Comprehension and fluency will facilitate student appreciation of what they are reading and therefore they will be more likely to read voluntarily. Until the 1970's, research focused mostly on reading fluency but according to Allington (2014), a paper published by Dahl and Samuels in 1977 reported the benefits of repeated reading for fluency, accuracy, and comprehension compared to drills focused solely on word recognition. The findings revealed that isolated word identification and decoding activities did not develop reading fluency and comprehension. Research findings (Allington, 2014; Samuels & Farstrup, 2006) have also indicated that readers who struggle have deficits in their reading volume and exposure to print, resulting in significant difficulties recognizing words automatically. In order to catch up to their achieving peers, these students need to significantly increase the time their eyes are on text.

Logan (1988) predicted that when students' reading volume is increased, their reading fluency will also improve. Logan coined "instance theory" to explain this relationship. Three main assumptions underlie the theory. The first assumption is that merely paying attention to words will automatically commit them to memory (encoding), and whether they are remembered poorly or well will depend on the conditions while committing to reading these words. The second assumption is attention to words will enable retrieval from memory automatically. Retrieval and encoding are linked through attention; the same attention will trigger encoding or trigger retrieval. The third assumption of the theory is that every encounter with words is encoded, stored, and retrieved separately. Instance theory underlies children's ability to increase their repertoire of sight words. Every time a child successfully reads a word, an "instance" has occurred. Increasing children's volume of reading will allow for more instances to occur and in turn, increase their sight word knowledge, and speed of retrieval of these words. By increasing their sight word knowledge, children are able to read more fluently as they do not have to put as much effort into decoding words. Therefore, it is very important that students read texts with a high level of accuracy (Allington, 2014).

Shany and Biemiller (1995) conducted a study with 29 Grades 3 and 4 students comparing those children who received extra reading practice with those who did not receive extra practice. Students were organized into three groups: some read with a teacher for 30 minutes, some read with an audio-taped recording of the text for 30 minutes, and others received no assistance. The goal for both the teacher-assisted group and the audio-assisted group was to keep the child reading and not focused on the mechanics of reading itself. Statistical analysis of the data indicated that both treatment groups gained in comprehension, speed, and accuracy but the control group did not experience these same gains. Shany and Biemiller concluded that these

gains were the result of extra reading practice experienced by the treatment groups. Interestingly, the audio-assisted group scored significantly better in listening comprehension.

Foorman et al. (2006) also conducted a study that involved reading volume that included 1,285 participants in Grades 1 and 2 from 107 different classes from Houston, Texas and Washington. The researchers were exploring the factors that positively impacted students' gains in reading. The 17 participating schools used four different reading programs: Reading Mastery, Success for All, Open Court, and Houghton Mifflin. Lessons taught by the teachers were tape-recorded by an observer, and coded for the instructional format and content of lessons. The researchers analyzed the data using ANOVA. The researchers administered a standardized reading and spelling test in October and again in May. Using statistical and descriptive analysis, Foorman et al. concluded that the main component necessary in effective reading instruction was time allocated to eyes-on-text reading. They found that reading volume resulted in positive differences in outcomes including word recognition, decoding, and reading comprehension.

Sparks, Patton, and Murdoch (2014) conducted research, which replicated a 10-year longitudinal study, to examine the effects of print exposure on reading achievement. The study included 54 mid-western American students who were administered reading, spelling, vocabulary, IQ, and listening comprehension tests in Grade 1, and followed until Grade 10. At the end of Grade 10, students were tested again for IQ, reading comprehension, language ability, general knowledge, and exposure to print for comparison to their Grade 1 assessments. In order to test for print exposure, the researchers administered The Author Recognition Test (ART) and the Magazine Recognition Test (MRT). For both tests, students are given names of popular and unpopular authors and magazine titles and asked to choose the names they were familiar with. In order to measure general knowledge, Sparks et al. also administered The Cultural Knowledge

Checklist (CKC) to measure the students' general cultural knowledge, and a multicultural checklist which created a combined score (CKT) measuring general knowledge. Sparks et al. used fixed order and hierarchical multiple regression to analyze their data. They found that early reading skills in Grade 1 were a strong predictor of Grade 10 reading and language skills and declarative knowledge. They also found that print exposure substantially predicted the CKT measure of general knowledge, even when IQ was taken into consideration. Sparks et al. hypothesized from their results that volume of reading is more important than cognitive ability for developing declarative knowledge.

Allington (2013) has written extensively about the importance of reading volume. Through his research and own field trial studies, he identified three reasons why children continue to struggle with reading. First, readers need to be reading text with an appropriate difficulty level. However, most often readers who struggle are reading texts that are far too difficult for them to engage with, comprehend adequately, and read with at a high accuracy rate. Second, readers who struggle are often not given enough uninterrupted time to read and increase their volume of reading. Third, readers who struggle are often given worksheets to do after minimal time spent actually reading. Allington (2014) makes two main suggestions for improving volume of reading in the classroom: create a reading time that is free of interruptions, and ensure students have access to high-interest books they can read with high accuracy. When students are interested, motivated, and able to read accurately, successfully, and uninterrupted, they will be more likely to increase their volume of reading.

### **Reading fluency.**

Closely linked to volume of reading is reading fluency because increasing volume of reading is only beneficial when the child is able to read text fluently and comprehend what s/he

is reading. According to Rasinski (2012, 2014), a scholar who has conducted extensive research on fluency, this aspect of reading is fundamental to children's comprehension of text. "Fluency is a bridge from word recognition accuracy to text comprehension" (Rasinski, 2012, p. 517).

Rasinski (2014) states that fluency is comprised of two components: automaticity in word recognition, and the appropriate use of prosodic features such as stress, pitch, and appropriate text phrasing. Fluency is required for students to be able to spend less time concentrating on decoding unfamiliar words and more time concentrating on comprehending what they are reading (Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; Kuhn et al., 2006; Laberge & Samuels, 1974).

When students are able to read words quickly without having to work to decode words, they free up brain space and cognitive energy for comprehension (Kuhn & Stahl, 2003). Reading automaticity can be developed by students building up their sight word vocabularies through wide and deep (or repeated) reading (Rasinski, 2012). Sight words are defined as:

Words that readers have read accurately several times. Readers recognize the words by remembering how they were read previously. The term 'sight' indicates that sight of the word triggers that word in memory, including information about its spelling, pronunciation and meaning. (Ehri, 1995, p. 117).

Kuhn et al. (2006) conducted a study to compare two different instructional approaches for improving reading fluency. The study, which was 30 weeks in duration, included 349 Grade 2 students from 24 classes in three different suburban schools (two intervention and one control) in New Jersey, and five different urban schools (four intervention and one control) in Georgia. The schools in New Jersey were comprised of students from extremely diverse language backgrounds, and predominantly working-class families, with approximately 40% of the students receiving free and reduced rate lunches. The Georgian schools had a much higher rate of students

coming from low socioeconomic status families with 50% to 90% of students receiving free and reduced rate lunches. Students in four of the Georgian schools were predominately African American and the student population of the fifth school was more ethnically diverse. All classes in the intervention schools were randomly assigned into two treatment groups. One group received the fluency-oriented reading instruction (FORI) method, which involved scaffolding and repeated reading of one story or text over a week span. The second group received a wide-reading approach, which involved scaffolding reading lessons, but included three different texts over a week span. Lastly, a control group of students participated in more traditional reading activities such as shared reading, guided reading, and round-robin reading. Kuhn et al. administered three different pre- and post-tests: Test of Word Reading Efficiency (TOWRE) to test word recognition; the Gray Oral Reading Test (GORT-4) to measure students' ability to read connected text orally; and the Wechsler Individual Achievement Test (WIAT) reading comprehension test to evaluate students' comprehension. According to Kuhn et al., statistical analysis of data revealed that both the FORI and wide-reading approaches resulted in positive student growth in both word reading efficiency and reading comprehension compared to the control groups. These findings confirmed their hypotheses that wide reading and repetitive reading would benefit both comprehension and word recognition. They concluded that an important component of fluency reading instructional practices include significant time engaged in worthwhile oral reading such as choral reading, echo reading, and partner reading.

Young, Mohr, and Rasinski (2015) also conducted a study on reading fluency where they combined the repeated readings method (Samuels, 1997) and Neurological Impress Method (NIM) to create the Reading Together intervention. NIM is when:

The teacher and student sit side by side, each with a copy of the same text. The teacher and student engage in a form of choral reading with the teacher reading slightly ahead of the student, essentially having the student “chase” the teacher’s reading. The teacher reads with appropriate expression and intonation into the ear of the student, literally leading the reader to smoother, faster oral reading. (Young et al., 2015, p. 68)

They recruited and trained 16 volunteers to work with 30 Grades 3 to 5 students from a single school in the southern United States. Students within these grades, who did not pass the reading benchmark test, were individually selected by the principal and instructional specialist to participate. The study also included 30 control students. By the end of the research, 52 students participated in the study due to families relocating or student truancy. The tutors chose text several levels higher than the students’ independent reading level and used the NIM method (as described above). Afterwards, the students were instructed to reread the passage independently. The size of the section read each time was dependent on the success of the students’ repeated readings. If successful, students would continue sections of similar size, but if they experienced difficulties, then tutors would reduce the size of the section read.

Young et al. (2015) utilized a reading assessment software tool called iStation to pre- and post-test the participants. The iStation assessment tests phonemic awareness, letter knowledge, alphabetic decoding, vocabulary, spelling, and comprehension. The researchers measured fluency progress by using levelled passages from the Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills - Oral Reading Fluency (DIBELS-ORF), and scoring the number of correct words read from the passage within a minute. Analysis of data revealed that the Reading Together intervention resulted in significant improvements in students’ oral reading performance including expression, volume, smoothness, phrasing, rate, and pace while reading. However, less

significant improvements were found with respect to scores measured by iStation, although improvements were still noted. According to the researchers, the Reading Together intervention would be feasible to implement as a larger-scale, multi-grade intervention because once teachers are trained, the intervention is easy to implement, requires only a short period of time (4 weeks), and yields positive results quickly. Young et al. believe further research is necessary to see if the same positive results could be replicated in other research contexts and if these positive gains are maintained over time.

Rasinski and his colleagues have conducted multiple studies on reading fluency with both elementary and middle school students (Rasinski, 2012, 2014; Rasinski, Rikli & Johnston, 2009; Young et al., 2015). Overall, the findings from these studies have revealed that accurate word recognition, automaticity, comprehension, and attitude toward reading have been shown to improve with fluency practice. Rasinski et al. (2009) stated that improving reading fluency, whether through prosody or automaticity is strongly associated with increased reading comprehension. Their studies have also revealed that emphasis on speed of reading can actually be detrimental to comprehension, whereas repeated reading for practice will help in developing automaticity.

### **Reading motivation.**

Researchers have documented how children's reading motivation is connected to volume of reading (Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2013; Cahill et al., 2013). Reading motivation can be defined as an "individual's personal goals, values, and beliefs with regard to the topics, processes, and outcomes of reading" (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000, p. 405). Motivation is a complex concept. Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) identified 11 dimensions of motivation, which can be categorized into three different categories (Wigfield, Gladstone & Turci, 2016). The first

category is based on the following confidence and efficacy constructs: *self-efficacy*, the belief that one can be successful at reading; *challenge*, the willingness to take on difficult text; and *work avoidance*, when a child has low self-efficacy and avoids challenging reading activities (Baker & Wigfield, 1999). The second category includes the goals children have for reading. Within this category, the dimensions can be grouped into two different kinds of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic reading motivation refers to interest in and about reading for one's own sake, and includes two dimensions: *curiosity*, one's desire to read about a particular topic of interest; and *involvement*, the joy one gleans from reading. Extrinsic reading motivation refers to interest or willingness to read for a reward or grade. Three dimensions are considered extrinsic motivators: *recognition*, the pleasure in receiving recognition for success in reading; reading for *grades*, the desire to be positively evaluated by the teacher; and *competition*, the desire to outperform others in reading. The third category, social interaction, includes the following two aspects: *social reasons* “through the process of constructing and sharing meanings gained from reading with others” and *compliance*, which refers to engagement in “reading to meet the expectations of others” (Baker & Wigfield, 1999, p. 455). Overall, research findings indicate that intrinsic reading motivation realizes reading achievement more than extrinsic reading motivation.

Marinak and Gambrell (2008) conducted a study where they investigated the relationship between type and choice of reward for reading and its effects on intrinsic motivation. The study included 75 Grade 3 students from three large mid-Atlantic suburban schools. Administration of the Motivation to Read Profile (MRP) six weeks prior to the study revealed no significant differences in reading motivation among or within the experiment groups. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the following five gender-balanced treatment groups: book/choice

reward (student chose a book), book/no choice reward (randomly assigned a book), token/choice reward (student selected token), token/no choice reward (randomly assigned token), and the control group (no reward/no choice). The researchers used books a level below grade level books and not yet released by publishers to ensure students had not previously read them. Reward books included choice of fiction and non-fiction titles, and token rewards included items such as Nerf balls, Pez dispensers, friendship bracelets, and keychains.

The study design had two phases (Marinak & Gambrell, 2008). In the first phase, students were asked to participate in a book selection activity where they engaged in reading and recommended books for the school library. Their reward for this activity was dependent on their treatment group. During the second phase of the study, students were given a choice during free-choice activity time; they could read a book, play a math game, or do a jigsaw puzzle. Researchers paid particular attention to the children's choices to see if their reward (book/token/no reward) affected the child's activity decision. Three measures for intrinsic motivation were considered: first activity selected (reading, jigsaw puzzle, math game), number of seconds spent reading, and number of words read. Since students were allowed to choose and change their activities at will during free-choice time, the researchers viewed any seconds spent reading and words read as a good indicator of intrinsic motivation. The researchers used one-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD multiple comparisons to analyze the seconds spent reading and number of words read.

Analysis of the data by Marinak and Gambrell (2008) showed that students in the book/choice, book/no choice, and no book/no choice groups chose reading as a first activity more than students in token/choice and token/no choice groups. Also, students in the book/choice, book/no choice, and no book/no choice groups spent significantly more time

reading and therefore read more words than those students in the token/choice and token/no choice groups. Marinak and Gambrell discussed three conclusions from their study. First, they found that students who were given a book as a reward (proximal reward) or received no reward were more motivated to read than students who received a token as a reward (less proximal reward). Second, they stated that less proximal rewards such as tokens prove to undermine intrinsic motivation to read. Lastly, their findings revealed that being given a choice of book or token did not enhance nor undermine the children's reading motivation.

Schaffner and Schiefele (2016) also conducted a study on reading motivation. They focused solely on the effects of reading motivation as a predictor of reading skill and comprehension. Their study included 101 girls and 122 boys in Grade 3 from seven elementary schools located in both rural and urban areas. The researchers administered an adapted version of the original Reading Motivation Questionnaire (RMQ). The revised RMQ included five dimensions (curiosity, involvement, competence, competition, and social recognition) and used only two or three items per dimension. The five dimensions were chosen to represent higher-order factors: intrinsic reading motivation (curiosity and involvement), and extrinsic reading motivation (competence, competition, and social recognition). Students were also surveyed on a three-item questionnaire to determine the number of books they had read in the last 12 months, the duration of time they usually read without taking a break, and the frequency of their reading in their spare time. Each item had a five-point scale in the form of multiple choice. Lastly, students were assessed for reading comprehension using a standardized word and sentence comprehension test called ELFE for Grades 1 through 6 (Lenhard & Scheider, 2006 as cited in Schaffner & Schiefele, 2016).

Schaffner and Schiefele (2016) assessed the students before and immediately after summer vacation. The researchers used descriptive statistics to analyze their data. They found that both intrinsic and extrinsic reading motivation significantly and positively correlated with reading amount. However, intrinsic motivation was more closely related to reading amount and showed positive correlations with all levels of reading comprehension before and after summer vacation. Extrinsic reading motivation was only positively correlated to sentence comprehension and not to any other reading comprehension measure. Schaffner and Schiefele used structural equation analyses to determine the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic reading motivation on changes in reading comprehension over summer vacation. Their findings showed that students with high intrinsic motivation demonstrated higher scores in word and sentence comprehension than students with lower intrinsic motivation. Their results showed that student intrinsic motivation before summer vacation is positively correlated with improvements in reading comprehension over summer vacation. Their results also showed how the effects of intrinsic motivation on comprehension are mediated by reading amount. Schaffner and Schiefele posited that intrinsic motivation initiates recurrent reading activities, which will then lead to improved reading comprehension. Conversely, extrinsic reading motivation did not yield positive or negative results on either word nor sentence comprehension over short periods of summer vacation.

Guthrie et al. (2007) also conducted a study investigating whether reading motivation predicted reading comprehension. They understood reading motivation to be multidimensional, so they investigated students' reading of different genres, students' motivation for reading specific books, and students' overall general reading motivation. The researchers also explored the opinions of students, interviewers, and teachers about students' motivation. Guthrie et al.

identified nine distinct reading motivation components: (a) interest, (b) perceived control, (c) self-efficacy, (d) student involvement, (e) collaboration and social interaction, (f) text type (i.e. narrative vs. informational), (g) motivation for specific texts, (h) general reading motivation, and (i) sources of information for children's motivation. The study included Grade 4 students from eight mid-Atlantic classrooms in two separate schools. Each classroom teacher was asked to choose four students: an above average reader, a below average reader, and two average readers. In total, 16 girls and 15 boys participated in a reading program called Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI) for 12 weeks.

Guthrie et al. (2007) had graduate students interview the participants during the second and eleventh week of the project by asking them open-ended questions. During the interviews, each participant was asked to bring a narrative book and an informational book of their choosing that they had read at home or at school. The interviews were audio-taped, transcribed, coded and analyzed using the analytic induction model. The researchers also administered comprehension tests as well as the Motivations for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) to the students. Students answered the questions using a 1-4 scale. The teachers were administered the Reading Engagement Index (REI), where they rated each student on eight different items using a similar 1-4 scale.

Through coding and descriptive analysis, Guthrie et al. (2007) were able to glean students' perceptions and definitions of motivation in five areas: interest, perceived control, involvement, collaboration, and self-efficacy. Students with high interest often displayed or expressed positive regard for a book, made statements of reading enjoyment and had high recall of text. A student's perceived control was measured by expressions of autonomy and feeling of independence in book choice, as well as ability to choose to read. Students' responses to self-

efficacy included having confidence and believing in oneself as a good reader as well as having knowledge about and use of reading strategies. Reading involvement was demonstrated through statements like daily or frequent reading and getting lost in a book or reading for a long time. Lastly, collaboration with others was measured by statements such as sharing or talking about books with family or friends, or borrowing a book, or making recommendations with family or friends. Guthrie et al. found that a student's motivational level helped to predict a student's growth in comprehension. A highly-motivated student showed higher comprehension growth than did a student with low motivation. However, comprehension measures did not influence their motivational growth.

Findings from the research by Marinak and Gambrell (2008) and Guthrie et al. (2007) indicated that choice of reading material can positively affect student reading motivation. "Choice has been identified as a powerful force that allows students to take ownership and responsibility for their learning" (Gambrell, 2011, p. 175). Choice can consist of giving a student five teacher-chosen books to choose from. This strategy is referred to as a 'bounded choice' because the texts being offered are narrowed and within the appropriate reading level, but the students feel like they have a choice. The feeling of autonomy can also be enhanced by teaching strategies to students for choosing appropriate reading material (Guthrie et al., 2007). As discussed in the section on successful summer reading programs, student choice in reading material resulted in increased voluntary reading. Students noted that they liked being given a choice in their reading material as they were able to choose books of interest to them (Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2003; Cahill et al., 2013).

As indicated by the above research findings, students have varying combinations of dimensional motivation. Indeed, findings from an earlier study on reading motivation by Baker

and Wigfield (1997) revealed that many students have a mixture of motivational characteristics that affect their reading engagement. Since children may respond differently to motivational strategies used in classrooms, an important step to fostering reading motivation would be for teachers to identify and understand their individual student's motivations. By determining specific dimensions that motivate individual students, teachers can then hopefully find ways to increase student intrinsic motivators to achieve the most gain over the summer months.

Gambrell (2011) offered seven motivational guidelines to help engage children in reading. Several of these guidelines align directly with the dimensions of motivation outlined by Baker and Wigfield (1999), and provide ideas about how to use these dimensions to increase motivation in the classroom. Gambrell posited that children are more motivated to read when they have access to a wide range of reading material and ample opportunities to engage in sustained reading. Motivation and achievement are higher when children are in an environment with a rich array of reading materials and are given time to read them. Gambrell also stated that children are likely to be more motivated to read if their reading material is relevant to their lives and they have opportunity to make choices about their reading. Children who have choice and see connections to their own lives in their reading tend to be more involved and engaged with comprehension. Motivation can also be increased by providing students with opportunities to interact with others about their reading within a classroom environment that reflects the value and importance of reading. These opportunities could include borrowing and sharing books, talking about books with peers, or sharing writing about books with others. Lastly, Gambrell stated that students' intrinsic motivation can be increased through experiencing successes with challenging texts because such success increases their feeling of competence and self-efficacy.

## **Recommendations for Future Research**

After examining various studies on Summer Reading Setback and the different factors that contribute to addressing this setback, I have identified some implications for further research. As many children from socioeconomically advantaged backgrounds do not demonstrate the same setback as socioeconomically disadvantaged students, further research is needed to explore how students' family background and attitudes towards reading affects Summer Reading Setback. Perhaps distributing a survey or individually interviewing families of targeted students would be beneficial to gather such information. Also, research on fluency has generally focused on how the ability to read automatically helps to increase reading comprehension and less emphasis has been placed on prosody. Although some scholars (e.g., Rasinski et al., 2009) have explored the role of prosody and its relationship to reading comprehension, further research is needed for students in intermediate grades and higher. Understanding the impact of the relationship between prosody and reading comprehension could positively improve reading instruction and ideally lessen the impact of Summer Reading Setback.

## **Summary**

In this chapter I explored some of the reading theories that have guided teaching practices throughout the decades. As discussed above, the topic of Summer Reading Setback can be situated in the interactional theory of reading and Rosenblatt's transactional theory of reading. An interactional theoretical approach to reading instruction considers both the child's background knowledge and the importance of explicitly teaching strategies. Rosenblatt's transactional theory emphasizes the importance of reader engagement and enjoyment, and experiencing reading as a pleasurable event. Ideally, reading instruction that is situated in both the interactional and transactional theory will lead to children's development of a repertoire of

strategies for word identification and comprehension, and increased intrinsic motivation for reading, which will ultimately increase their reading volume. Research has shown that summer reading programs need to foster children's motivation to read in order to increase their reading volume and have them celebrate their experiences with text.

Findings from the literature revealed that Summer Reading Setback can have detrimental effects on children, especially those from socioeconomically disadvantaged areas (Alexander et al., 2007; Allington et al., 2010; Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2003; Jesson et al., 2014; Kim, 2006). Allington (2014) believed that contextualized fluency lessons and instruction on reading for meaning will increase student comprehension. Ideally, improved comprehension and fluency will facilitate children's enjoyment of and appreciation for reading, which will more likely increase their voluntary reading. However, students need access to books. Several researchers (Allington, 2010; Kim, 2007; Kim & Quinn, 2013; Kim & White, 2008) have attempted to address Summer Reading Setback by providing books to students over summer vacation. Also, increasing children's motivation, especially their intrinsic motivation, can help to alleviate some of this loss because then they are more willing to and interested in read voluntarily.

In Chapter 3, I describe how I applied information from the literature review to create a presentation for colleagues about Summer Reading Setback.

## Chapter 3

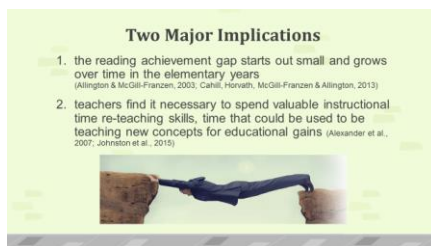
### Professional Presentation and Reflections

As a result of reviewing the literature on Summer Reading Setback, I enhanced my learning about and understanding of this important topic. I wanted to share my learning with my colleagues because this phenomenon is relevant to most teachers. Therefore, I created a Power Point presentation, “Summer Reading Setback,” designed to support other teachers in addressing this issue in their classrooms (see Appendix). My goal for the presentation is to provide teachers with opportunities to develop their understanding of the theory, research and practical strategies related to Summer Reading Setback so ideally, they can use this information to assist students and to possibly develop programs to help alleviate Summer Reading Setback. In its current form, the Power Point presentation is ambitious with respect to the amount of information I included in the slides. Although I envision conducting a one-half day workshop, I will share the presentation with a few colleagues in order to fine tune the content before presenting in a formal, professional setting.

In this chapter, I have grouped the slides in sections and organized them by topic. Following each section, I describe the different aspects of Summer Reading Setback and make connections to the research explored in Chapter 2.

#### Introduction to Summer Reading Setback: Slides 1-4

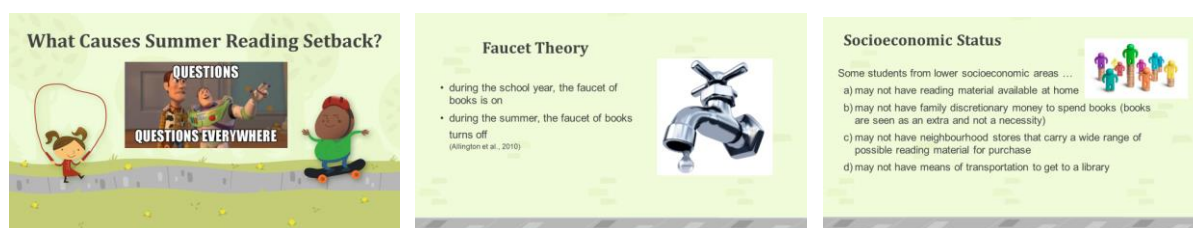




I begin my presentation by posing the question, “What is Summer Reading Setback?”

The purpose of beginning with this question is to find out the audience’s (teachers’) familiarity with/knowledge about the topic and to allow them a moment to reflect upon their own teaching experiences. Ideally, some teachers will be able to think about students they have taught that experienced Summer Reading Setback. Once I define Summer Reading Setback, I describe how it negatively impacts students’ learning over time. First, this loss accumulates over time rendering students further and further behind their classmates over the course of their elementary years. In fact, Allington and McGill-Franzen (2003) estimated this loss to accumulate to almost a two and one-half year difference over the course of a child’s elementary years. Second, this loss results in teachers spending time re-teaching concepts before they are able to begin new curriculum (Alexander et al., 2007; Johnston et al., 2015).

### Summer Reading Setback Causes: Slides 5-7




Slides 5-7 address causes of Summer Reading Setback. Teachers will have an opportunity to brainstorm potential causes of this phenomenon. According to Allington et al. (2010), one of the most predominant reasons for Summer Reading Setback is a child’s socioeconomic background. Many families of low socioeconomic backgrounds may have money

for only the basic necessities (e.g., food, clothing, housing) and purchasing reading material may be viewed as an “extra” they cannot afford (Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2013). As well, if families do not have discretionary money to spend on books, neighbourhood stores may carry less book options since people are not buying them (Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2013). Added to these issues is what Allington (2010) calls the Faucet Theory. The Faucet Theory refers to the situation where the faucet is turned on during the school year as children have access to books through classroom libraries, school libraries, and home reading programs. During the summer however, the faucet is turned off for some children as they no longer have access to these reading materials (since schools are closed).


### Strategies to Help Increase Reading: Slides 8-18

#### What is Reading Motivation? How Can Teachers Motivate Students to Read?



#### Reading Motivation


- an individual's personal goals, values, and beliefs with regard to the topic, process, and outcomes of reading
- motivation is complex and multidimensional





#### Reading Motivation

Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) categorized motivation into three different categories:

- 1. Intrinsic**
  - curiosity and involvement
- Extrinsic**
  - recognition, grades, and competition




#### Reading Motivation

- 2. Confidence and Efficacy Constructs**
  - self-efficacy, challenge, and work-avoidance
- 3. Social Interactions**
  - social reasons and compliance


#### Reading Motivation Research

- choice is important
- proximal rewards are more motivating
- less proximal extrinsic rewards can undermine intrinsic motivation
- intrinsic motivation is linked to improvements in reading comprehension, fluency, and higher volume of reading (Guthrie et al., 2007; Marzani & Gambrell, 2008; Schaffner & Schiefele, 2016)



#### Volume of Reading

- the amount of reading practice experienced by students over a given period of time
- Allington believed volume of reading and fluency were closely linked
- Instance Theory (Logan, 1988) explains how increasing reading volume will also improve fluency




### Volume of Reading Research

- increased reading volume can lead to gains in reading comprehension, reading speed, and identification of words
- time allocated to eyes on text is the most effective reading instruction
- print exposure has substantially predicted the measure of general knowledge

(Allington, 2013, 2014; Foorman et al., 2006; Shany & Bemiller, 2015; Sparks, Patton & Murdoch, 2014)


### Volume of Reading



Richard Allington, who has written much about the importance of reading volume, has identified a few reasons why children continue to struggle with reading:

- readers need to be reading text at an appropriate difficulty level
- readers who struggle are often not given enough uninterrupted time to read
- readers who struggle are often given worksheets to do after minimal time reading

### Reading Fluency



Timothy Rasinski has conducted extensive research on fluency and defines it as:


A bridge from word recognition accuracy to text comprehension

### Reading Fluency

Automaticity in Word Recognition

**AUTOMATICITY**  
is the ability to quickly & accurately identify words.

### Prosody




### Reading Fluency Research

Fluency instruction can help improve:

- word recognition accuracy
- automaticity
- comprehension
- inferencing
- attitude towards reading
- emphasis on speed is actually detrimental to comprehension

(Kuhn et al., 2006; Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; Rasinski, 2012, 2014; Young, Mohr & Rasinski, 2015)



Information on slides 8-18 features different strategies that can be used to help increase reading achievement. The topics of reading motivation, volume of reading and reading fluency are all connected to Summer Reading Setback because each is related to overall reading achievement. I define each topic before delving into specific instructional strategies related to the topic to ensure that everyone has the same understanding of the concept.

The first topic I introduce is motivation. I share that reading motivation is a complex, multidimensional construct that presents differently in all children. Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) analyzed reading motivation into three categories and identified different dimensions within each category. The first category is intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. As discussed in Chapter 2, intrinsic motivation is defined as internal motivating factors that increase a child's desire to read. Conversely, extrinsic motivation involves external factors, often provided by other people, to help increase a child's desire to read. The second category of confidence and self-efficacy constructs is defined by how children feel about their ability or inability to read. According to Wigfield and Guthrie, social, the third category of motivation, is the process and enjoyment gleaned from interacting with others about reading, and children's engagement in reading to meet the expectations of others. It is important for teachers to be aware of and understand these

motivational factors because to varying degrees, all children are motivated by these factors. Understanding the potential impact of the dimensions associated with each motivational category can assist teachers in addressing the needs of specific children.

On Slide 12, I share some key findings from research on motivation, emphasizing how intrinsic motivation is linked to higher increases in reading achievement (Guthrie et al., 2007; Marinak & Gambrell, 2008; Schaffner & Schiefele, 2016). Marinak and Gambrell (2008) conducted a study and found that if teachers offer rewards as an incentive for reading, they need to give rewards that are proximal to the desired behavior. Conversely, extrinsic rewards have been shown to undermine intrinsic motivation. Lastly, a very important contributor to increasing children's reading motivation is allowing them choice in the material they read. This choice can be a bound choice, where the teacher chooses five appropriate books that are of an independent reading level and the child selects the one s/he would like to read.

The next topic I address is reading volume, which has been shown to have a direct link to reading achievement. Allington (2014) believed reading volume and fluency were closely linked, and that comprehension and fluency will facilitate student appreciation of their reading and therefore will likely lead to more reading. Research findings have indicated that increasing reading volume will inherently increase fluency and comprehension (Allington et al., 2010), and these findings have been situated in Logan's (1988) Instance Theory. According to Instance Theory, the more instances a child encounters a word, the faster this word can be retained as a sight word. Therefore, increasing children's volume of reading will result in more encounters with words (or "instances"), which ideally will enhance their sight word knowledge. Allington (2014) believed increasing children's sight words would facilitate more fluent reading since less effort is spent on decoding words and more attention can be devoted to comprehension.

Therefore, it is very important that students read texts with a high level of accuracy (Allington, 2014).

Research findings on reading volume have revealed two main considerations with respect to effective reading instruction (Allington, 2013, 2014; Foorman et al., 2006; Shany & Biemiller, 2015). First, children need to be reading independent reading level text to make the most gains in reading comprehension. Second, children need to be given ample, uninterrupted eyes-on-text time. Interestingly and unsurprisingly, researchers have reported that print exposure substantially predicted the measure of general knowledge (Sparks et al., 2014). In other words, the more people read, the greater the potential of increasing their knowledge.

Lastly, fluency instruction is also an important component to successful reading. Timothy Rasinski (2012, 2014) defined reading fluency as a bridge between word recognition accuracy and text comprehension. Reading fluency includes two separate components: automaticity and prosody. As described in Chapter 2, automaticity is the ability to read words quickly without exerting much time or cognitive effort to do so. It is believed that if students are able to read with automaticity, then more of their brain power can be spent on comprehending what they are reading (Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; Kuhn et al., 2006; Laberge & Samuels, 1974). An important component to gaining automaticity is building up a large sight word vocabulary. As mentioned previously, sight words can be gained through increased instances of interactions with words. Prosody is the ability to read aloud using the correct volume, phrasing, pitch, stress, and timing/pacing to convey meaning. Reading with appropriate prosody helps to facilitate a more meaningful and expressive interpretation of the text and therefore can help improve overall proficiency in reading (Rasinski, 2012).

Researchers (Kuhn et al., 2006; Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; Rasinski, 2012, 2014; Young et al., 2015) have shown that repeated readings, wide reading, and different oral reading structures (e.g., choral reading, echo reading, partner reading) are all beneficial instructional strategies that can help to increase students' fluency. Some of the benefits that can be gained from targeted fluency instruction include improved word recognition accuracy, automaticity, comprehension, and attitude towards reading. An important caution about fluency instruction for teachers is not to focus solely on speed of reading. Indeed, research findings have revealed that emphasis on speed is actually detrimental to comprehension (Rasinski et al., 2009).

### Theoretical Frameworks: Slides 19-26

#### How do Teacher Beliefs About Reading Affect Their Pedagogy?

#### Theoretical Frameworks of Reading

- Bottom-Up
- Top-Down
- Interactive
- Transactional

#### Bottom-Up Theory

- theory underlying teaching practices from 1910 to the 1950s (Tracey & Morrow, 2017)
- two underlying assumptions:
  - a) complex reading skills are segmented into smaller, simpler tasks, organized hierarchically
  - b) skills are typically taught in isolation, focusing more on graphophonic information
- emphasis is on individual skills and the assumption is that once children are able to complete these skills, comprehension will occur (Tracey & Morrow, 2017)
- however, children need more than decontextualized lessons on individual skills as many other factors need to be considered for children to become avid, motivated readers (Allington, 2013; Gambrell, 2011; Rasinski, 2014)

#### Top-Down Theory

- theory underlying teaching practices in 1960s and 1970s (Tracey & Morrow, 2017)
- stresses importance of child's background knowledge
- lessons are more focused on semantic and syntactic information, and comprehension
- however, scholars have noted the benefits of automaticity of word recognition, and the importance of students using all three cueing systems to identify words

#### Interactive Theory

- in the late 1970s, Rumelhart introduced the first nonlinear model of reading known as the interactive theory of reading
- readers use graphophonic, semantic, and syntactic cueing systems to make meaning (Tracey & Morrow, 2017)
- reading pedagogy situated in interactive theory reflects explicit teaching of both bottom-up and top-down strategies

#### Transactional Theory

- Rosenblatt (1986) viewed reading as a transactional relationship between the reader and the text in a particular context
- Rosenblatt stated that readers can adopt two predominant kinds of stances to texts, **effortful** or **aesthetic**
- although these stances serve to guide the reader during the reading event, the stances can fluctuate

#### Transactional Theory

- recognizes the importance of students' sociocultural background
- multiple reader, text, and contextual factors affect the stance adopted by students and their meaning-making processes
- Rosenblatt (1986) expressed concern about teachers not having a full understanding of the effortful/aesthetic continuum

#### Reading Theories and Summer Reading Setback

- teaching only bottom-up or top-down reading skills and strategies is not as beneficial as teaching children a repertoire of strategies (Allington, 2013; Gambrell, 2011; Kuhn et al., 2006; Rasinski, 2012; Rasinski, 2014)
- effective reading instruction occurs when students are immersed in appropriate levelled texts and taught contextualized strategies, and pedagogical practices are reflective of the interactive theory of reading (Allington, 2014; Allington & McGill-Francis, 2003; Allington & McGill-Francis, 2013; Allington et al., 2010)
- Rosenblatt (1986) also believed children needed to read for themselves in order to develop as readers and experience the pleasure of reading

In slides 19-26, I introduce the reading theories that underlie the previously mentioned topics. In the early to mid-1900s, teaching resources and advocated practices were based on the bottom-up theory of reading, which is a very skills-based theory, concentrating more on skills related to the graphophonic cueing system. The underlying premise of this theory is that people

can learn to read by mastering a hierarchically arranged series of skills. It was assumed that once children mastered the skills, through drill and decontextualized activities, comprehension would automatically follow. However, the tenets of bottom-up theory give very little consideration to a child's background knowledge or to the process of comprehension.

In the 1960s and 1970s, the top-down theory of reading gained popularity. The beliefs of this theory convey the importance of a child's background knowledge and lessons are more focused on semantic and syntactic information, and comprehension. The focus was more about whole language and less significance was placed on explicit skills-based instruction associated with word recognition.

In the late 1970s, Rumelhart introduced the interactive theory, the first non-linear approach to reading theory. According to the interactive theory, children learn to read by using both their background knowledge and all three cueing systems to make sense of language and reading. When teachers embrace an interactive theoretical framework, they explicitly teach both bottom-up and top-down strategies to help children identify words and comprehend text simultaneously.

Lastly, Louise Rosenblatt's (1976) transactional theory has informed the teaching of reading. Rosenblatt viewed reading as a relationship between a reader and a text and believed that within each reading transaction, readers adopt either a predominantly efferent or aesthetic stance. She wrote how the stances could fluctuate during the reading event and explained that a multitude of factors affected the particularity of any reading event (Rosenblatt, 1986). When readers adopt an efferent stance, they focus on obtaining facts that they take away from the reading. When readers adopt an aesthetic stance, the focus is on the reading transaction and their connections, interpretations, and responses to a text. Rosenblatt recognized that people's unique

backgrounds and experiences might result in different interpretations of the same text. One of Rosenblatt's main concerns with the teaching of reading was that teachers were encouraging students to adopt a predominantly efferent stance to literature. She believed it was important to teach children to think critically about their own thoughts and views about their reading in order to truly experience literature for themselves.

I included the slides on reading theories because I believe it is important for teachers to know the different teaching philosophies and understand the benefits and concerns associated with each. As well, it is important for teachers to reflect on how their own beliefs about reading influence their pedagogy. I believe practices situated in the interactive and transactional theory of reading can guide teachers to create a program to help alleviate Summer Reading Setback. These theories emphasize the importance of readers utilizing all three cueing systems, their background knowledge, and their personal transactions with the text in order to construct meaning from texts.

### Interventions for Summer Reading Setback: Slides 27-30

**What Have Researchers Found About Summer Reading Programs?**

**Summer Reading Setback Interventions**

Allington and McGill-Franzen (2003, 2013) found that children engaged in voluntary reading more often when:

- given choice in their book selection
- books were high-interest and popular titles
- books were at independent reading level
- children were allowed to keep the books
- children have easy access to books

(Allington, 2014; Allington et al., 2010)

**Summer Reading Setback Interventions**

Kim (2004, 2006, 2007) found children engaged in voluntary reading and made more gains when:

- they were provided with books (easy access)
- they received scaffolded oral reading and comprehension lessons prior to summer vacation
- they had access to connected text for several summers
- research-based instructional practices were implemented
- books were at children's independent reading levels

(Kim & White, 2008, 2011)

**Summer Reading Setback Interventions**

Kim and Quinn (2013) conducted a meta-analysis on Summer Reading Setback interventions and found:

- classroom and home interventions had positive effects on reading achievement, especially decoding abilities
- children require opportunities and access to connected text for several summers
- research-based instructional practices yielded better results than non-research-based practices
- results proved to be most beneficial for families of low SES

Slides 27-30 present findings from different studies where researchers have implemented successful summer reading programs. Studies conducted by both Allington and McGill-Franzen (2003, 2013) and Kim (2004, 2006, 2007) had some similar components. All of the successful

studies provided students with free books (that they could keep) over the course of the summer, and all the books were at the children's independent reading level. The meta-analysis completed by Kim and Quinn (2013) on summer reading setback revealed the following: research-based instructional practices yielded the most improvement in reading achievement; children required the opportunity to read connected text for several summers; and summer interventions, whether school or home-based, improved reading achievement.

### Possible Solutions for Summer Reading Setback: Slides 31-35

The image displays five presentation slides related to summer reading setback solutions:

- Slide 1:** "What Can We Do About Summer Reading Setback? OPPORTUNITIES... OPPORTUNITIES EVERYWHERE". It features illustrations of children reading and a boy on a skateboard.
- Slide 2:** "Have You Tried ...". It lists strategies:
  - sending home A-Z reading books
  - judiciously using extrinsic motivators that are connected to reading (e.g., earn a book if you read at least six books over the summer)
  - appealing to parents
  - providing reading-related activities for children to do over the summer
  - providing reading websites students can access over the summer
  - taking students to the community library in June
- Slide 3:** "Fund Raising". It includes logos for "Family Advisory Council" and "Corporate".
- Slide 4:** "Donations". It shows a cartoon of children holding signs that say "Support us?", "GIVE", "We need your help!", and "DONATE".
- Slide 5:** "Summer Reading Loss Has Lasting Effects". It features a line graph titled "Summer Reading Loss" showing a steady upward trend in reading loss over time.

Information on the final slides includes strategies I have tried in my classroom to help increase reading over the summer. As well, the content offers suggestions to teachers about potential ways they could raise money in order to fund and implement a summer reading program for their school. Lastly, I end with a slide of a graph that shows how detrimental Summer Reading Setback can be over the course of children's elementary school years if they experience summer setback every year. This graph also emphasizes how children from families with low-socioeconomic status are truly the most vulnerable students to Summer Reading Setback.

## **My Learning**

During the process of writing my literature review, a few key learnings resonated with my teaching. One of the most important ideas for me was Rosenblatt's (1986) aesthetic stance of her transactional theory. I realized that very often when I am teaching, I ask my students to read from an efferent stance. I believe encouraging children to read from an aesthetic stance would help them better appreciate what they are reading and increase their motivation to read. For example, students could keep a journal where they write about their feelings regarding their reading or connections they made to characters or topics in the books they read. As well, it is fundamental for teachers to model reading from an aesthetic stance. In addition, by creating a sense of community of readers in the classroom, students can learn to appreciate their peers' perspectives on certain books, which will ideally increase their intrinsic motivation to read these same books. However, students need time to discuss their reading with peers and it is important for teachers to teach students how to engage in such discussions as well as to schedule time for these interactions. Another way to create a community of readers can be to form reading groups based on students' shared reading interest.

Another key learning for me was the importance of developing and enhancing students' motivation for reading. I know many teachers, myself included, who have used extrinsic motivators to try to increase volume of reading, especially over the summer. I am now acutely aware of not only the detriment extrinsic motivators can have to intrinsic motivation, but also that motivation is so multifaceted that I need to develop a repertoire of motivational techniques. It would be much more beneficial for me to take the time to find out what specifically motivates individual students, like administering the Motivation to Read Profile (MRP) to my class.

Furthermore, I realize that simply allowing my students more choice in their reading selections could significantly affect their motivation to read.

Lastly, I had always felt guilty for providing time for my students to read silently. It seemed like I was not “teaching” somehow. Through my research, I realize that I am affording my students with the much needed eyes-on-text time for them to increase their reading volume. However, I am also very aware that simple reading is not enough; a truly successful reading program includes explicit teaching and scaffolding of reading strategies for students, with ample time to read with books that are of high interest and at an independent level.

Overall, completing the literature review and creating the presentation were extremely difficult but rewarding for me. I have learned so much from this experience and I am excited to apply my knowledge to my own teaching practices. As well, I am eager to share my findings with my colleagues, and hopefully collaborate with them to create a reading program to help alleviate summer reading setback for students who attend our school.

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Appendix

# Summer Reading Setback

Presented by:  
Laura Nault



## What Is Summer Reading Setback?



## What is Summer Reading Setback?

- researchers have found that many students from socio-economically disadvantaged backgrounds return from summer vacation unable to read book levels they were able to read successfully in June
- this reading loss phenomenon is known as Summer Reading Setback  
(Allington, 2010; Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2003; Kim, 2006)



## Two Major Implications

1. the reading achievement gap starts out small and grows over time in the elementary years  
(Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2003; Cahill, Horvath, McGill-Franzen & Allington, 2013)
2. teachers find it necessary to spend valuable instructional time re-teaching skills, time that could be used to be teaching new concepts for educational gains (Alexander et al., 2007; Johnston et al., 2015)



## What Causes Summer Reading Setback?



### Faucet Theory

- during the school year, the faucet of books is on
  - during the summer, the faucet of books turns off
- (Allington et al., 2010)



## Socioeconomic Status

Some students from lower socioeconomic areas ...

- a) may not have reading material available at home
- b) may not have family discretionary money to spend books (books are seen as an extra and not a necessity)
- c) may not have neighbourhood stores that carry a wide range of possible reading material for purchase
- d) may not have means of transportation to get to a library



## What is Reading Motivation? How Can Teachers Motivate Students to Read?



## Reading Motivation

- an individual's personal goals, values, and beliefs with regard to the topic, process, and outcomes of reading
- motivation is complex and multidimensional



## Reading Motivation

Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) categorized motivation into three different categories:

### 1. Intrinsic

- curiosity and involvement

### Extrinsic

- recognition, grades, and competition



## Reading Motivation

### 2. Confidence and Efficacy Constructs

- self-efficacy, challenge, and work-avoidance



### 3. Social Interactions

- social reasons and compliance



## Reading Motivation Research

- choice is important
- proximal rewards are more motivating
- less proximal extrinsic rewards can undermine intrinsic motivation
- intrinsic motivation is linked to improvements in reading comprehension, fluency, and higher volume of reading

(Guthrie et al., 2007; Marinak & Gambrell, 2008; Schaffner & Schiefele, 2016)



## Volume of Reading

- the amount of reading practice experienced by students over a given period of time
- Allington believed volume of reading and fluency were closely linked
- Instance Theory (Logan, 1988) explains how increasing reading volume will also improve fluency



## Volume of Reading Research

- increased reading volume can lead to gains in reading comprehension, reading speed, and identification of words
- time allocated to eyes on text is the most effective reading instruction
- print exposure has substantially predicted the measure of general knowledge



(Allington, 2013, 2014; Foorman et al., 2006; Shany & Biemiller, 2015; Sparks, Patton & Murdoch, 2014)

## Volume of Reading



Richard Allington, who has written much about the importance of reading volume, has identified a few reasons why children continue to struggle with reading:

1. readers need to be reading text at an appropriate difficulty level
2. readers who struggle are often not given enough uninterrupted time to read
3. readers who struggle are often given worksheets to do after minimal time reading

## Reading Fluency



Timothy Rasinski has conducted extensive research on fluency and defines it as:

A bridge from word recognition accuracy to text comprehension

## Reading Fluency

Automaticity in  
Word Recognition

**AUTOMATICITY**  
is the ability to  
*quickly & accurately*  
identify words.

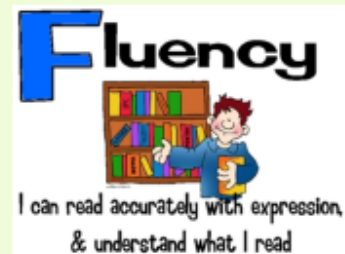
Prosody



## Reading Fluency Research

Fluency instruction can help improve:

- word recognition accuracy
- automaticity
- comprehension
- inferencing
- attitude towards reading
- emphasis on speed is actually detrimental to comprehension



(Kuhn et al., 2006; Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; Rasinski, 2012, 2014; Young, Mohr & Rasinski, 2015)

## How do Teacher Beliefs About Reading Affect Their Pedagogy?



## Theoretical Frameworks of Reading

- Bottom- Up
- Top-Down
- Interactive
- Transactional



## Bottom-Up Theory

- theory underlying teaching practices from 1910 to the 1950s (Tracey & Morrow, 2017)
- two underlying assumptions:
  - a) complex reading skills are segmented into smaller, simpler tasks, organized hierarchically
  - b) skills are typically taught in isolation, focusing more on graphophonic information
- emphasis is on individual skills and the assumption is that once children are able to complete these skills, comprehension will occur (Tracey & Morrow, 2017)
- however, children need more than decontextualized lessons on individual skills as many other factors need to be considered for children to become avid, motivated readers (Allington, 2013; Gambrell, 2011; Rasinski, 2014)



## Top-Down Theory

- theory underlying teaching practices in 1960s and 1970s (Tracey & Morrow, 2017)
- stresses importance of child's background knowledge
- lessons are more focused on semantic and syntactic information, and comprehension
- however, scholars have noted the benefits of automaticity of word recognition, and the importance of students using all three cueing systems to identify words



## Interactive Theory

- in the late 1970s, Rumelhart introduced the first nonlinear model of reading known as the interactive theory of reading
- readers use graphophonic, semantic, and syntactic cueing systems to make meaning (Tracey & Morrow, 2017)
- reading pedagogy situated in interactive theory reflects explicit teaching of both bottom-up and top-down strategies



## Transactional Theory

- Rosenblatt (1986) viewed reading as a transactional relationship between the reader and the text in a particular context
- Rosenblatt stated that readers can adopt two predominant kinds of stances to texts, **efferent** or **aesthetic**
- although these stances serve to guide the reader during the reading event, the stances can fluctuate



## Transactional Theory

- recognizes the importance of students' sociocultural background
- multiple reader, text, and contextual factors affect the stance adopted by students and their meaning-making processes
- Rosenblatt (1986) expressed concern about teachers not having a full understanding of the efferent/aesthetic continuum



## Reading Theories and Summer Reading Setback

- teaching only bottom-up or top-down reading skills and strategies is not as beneficial as teaching children a repertoire of strategies (Allington, 2013; Gambrell, 2011; Kuhn et al., 2006; Rasinski, 2012; Rasinski, 2014).
- effective reading instruction occurs when students are immersed in appropriate levelled texts and taught contextualized strategies, and pedagogical practices are reflective of the interactive theory of reading (Allington, 2014; Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2003; Allington & MsGill-Franzen, 2013; Allington et al., 2010).
- Rosenblatt (1986) also believed children needed to read for themselves in order to develop as readers and experience the pleasure of reading



## What Have Researchers Found About Summer Reading Programs?



### Summer Reading Setback Interventions



Richard Allington



Anne McGill-Franzen

Allington and McGill-Franzen (2003, 2013) found that children engaged in voluntary reading more often when:

- given choice in their book selection
- books were high-interest and popular titles
- books were at independent reading level
- children were allowed to keep the books
- children have easy access to books

(Allington, 2014; Allington et al., 2010)

## Summer Reading Setback Interventions



James Kim

Kim (2004, 2006, 2007) found children engaged in voluntary reading and made more gains when:

- they were provided with books (easy access)
- they received scaffolded oral reading and comprehension lessons prior to summer vacation
- they had access to connected text for several summers
- research-based instructional practices were implemented
- books were at children's independent reading levels

(Kim & White, 2008, 2011)

## Summer Reading Setback Interventions



James Kim



David Quinn

Kim and Quinn (2013) conducted a meta-analysis on Summer Reading Setback interventions and found:

- classroom and home interventions had positive effects on reading achievement, especially decoding abilities
- children require opportunities and access to connected text for several summers
- research-based instructional practices yielded better results than non-research-based practices
- results proved to be most beneficial for families of low SES

## What Can We Do About Summer Reading Setback?



### Have You Tried ...

- sending home A-Z reading books
- judiciously using extrinsic motivators that are connected to reading (e.g., earn a book if you read at least six books over the summer)
- appealing to parents
- providing reading-related activities for children to do over the summer
- providing reading websites students can access over the summer
- taking students to the community library in June



## Fund Raising



PAC

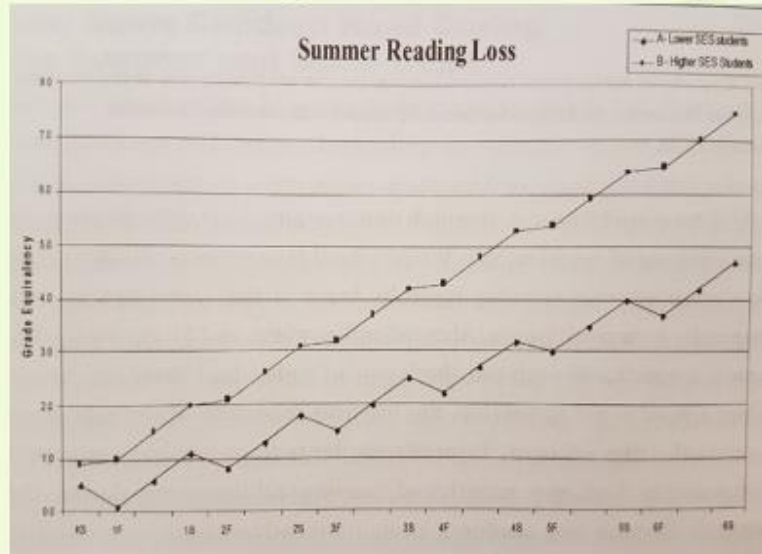


Corporate

## Donations



## Summer Reading Loss Has Lasting Effects



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