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Improving Student Content Knowledge in Inclusive Social Studies Classrooms Using Technology-Based Cognitive Organizers: A Systematic Replication

Richard T. Boon[1]
The University of Georgia
Mack D. Burke
Texas A&M University
Cecil Fore, III
The University of Georgia
Shanna Hagan-Burke
Texas A&M University

The purpose of this study was to conduct a systematic replication of a previous study (Boon, Burke, Fore, & Spencer, 2006) on the effects of computer-generated cognitive organizers using Inspiration 6 software versus a traditional textbook instruction format on students' ability to comprehend social studies content information in high school inclusive social studies classes. A major goal was to strengthen the results of the previous study by using its control group as the treatment group and its treatment group as the control group in the current study. After ensuring that no carry-over effects from the previous study existed, the groups were "flipped," and using a quasi-experimental pretest-posttest group design, 26 tenth-grade students in general education and 18 students with mild disabilities received instruction using a computerized cognitive organizer or traditional textbook instruction format. Dependent measures included a 45-item open-ended production pre-/posttest of declarative social studies knowledge to assess the effectiveness of the intervention. Results showed that students in the computerized cognitive organizer condition significantly outperformed students in the traditional textbook instruction condition.

Key Words: Cognitive Organizers, Technology, Social Studies Instruction, Inclusion, Special Education

Recent mandates like No Child Left Behind and the provisions of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) have focused on access to the general curriculum for students with disabilities, scientifically based practices, and a general call for accountability in education. As a result,

1. Please address correspondence to Richard T. Boon, The University of Georgia, Department of Special Education, 537 Aderhold Hall, Athens, GA 30602-7153. Email: rboon@uga.edu

schools are having to reexamine their instructional practices, especially at the secondary level (Carnine, & Granzin, 2001).

The curricular demands for a student with mild disabilities in secondary content-area classes are great (Deshler et al., 2001). Students with disabilities are more likely than their peers to read below grade level, have difficulties processing information from expository texts, and may not have sufficient compensatory skills (Mastropieri, Scruggs, Spencer, & Fontana, 2003). Further, extracting meaning from text, understanding the organizational structure of a text, and identifying main ideas, themes, and corresponding details from textbooks is likely to be difficult for students with mild disabilities (Jitendra, Hoppes, & Xin, 2000). In addition, most secondary-level social studies textbooks are written at reading levels that exceed those of most students with disabilities (Mastropieri, Scruggs, & Graetz, 2003). Even if their reading level matches that of the text, many students with mild disabilities do not have the necessary background knowledge skills and/or the strategies to comprehend content-area information (Lederer, 2000). Clearly, accessing the general curriculum and performing at a high level in social studies is difficult for many students with disabilities.

The textbook continues to be the primary method of conveying content-area information to students in social studies classrooms (Harniss, Dickson, Kinder, & Hollenbeck, 2001). Research on the study of social studies textbooks has revealed several concerns with regard to student learning (Paxton, 1999). In particular, social studies textbooks are not constructed to build background knowledge of important concepts and historical events (Beck, McKeown, & Gromoll, 1989), they often lack clarity and inadequately explain significant events and relationships (Beck & McKeown, 1988), and they cover too much information, sacrificing depth for breadth of coverage (Woodward, 1987). Furthermore, many of the photographs and illustrations used do not relate to the material covered or have an instructional purpose (Tyson-Bernstein & Woodward, 1986).

Research has provided some promising practices to facilitate learning in secondary content-area classrooms. Previous research has demonstrated the effectiveness of cognitive organizers (Crank & Bulgren, 1993; Hudson, Lignugaris-Kraft, & Miller, 1993; Kim, Vaughn, Wanzek, & Wei, 2004), content enhancements (Gersten, Fuchs, Williams, & Baker, 2001; Mastropieri, Scruggs, Bakken, & Whedon, 1996; Talbott, Llyoyd, & Tankersely, 1994), computerized study guides (Higgins, Boone, & Lovitt, 1996), project-based learning activities (Ferretti, MacArthur, & Okolo, 2001), and computerized map tutorials (Gleason, Carnine, & Vala, 1991).

More recently, a growing body of research has used Inspiration software (Inspiration Software, Inc., 2000) to design interventions. The software enables the user to design and construct visual displays to organize content. Moreover, it allows for content material to be integrated with graphics and formatted as an outline.

Five studies were found that evaluated the effectiveness of Inspiration-constructed interventions. Erickson (1999) examined the effects of

handwritten versus computer-generated maps to evaluate student learning in a middle school life science class and found that students significantly improved from pre- to posttest. In a different line of research, De Simone, Schmid, and McEwen (2000) used the software as a tool to support and foster collaborative student learning in a graduate course on learning theories. The authors found that students were positive toward using the software to provide graphic representations to evaluate and increase understanding of various learning theories. Anderson-Inman, Knox-Quinn, and Horney (1996) investigated the effects of computer-based study strategies and learner characteristics with 30 students with learning disabilities (LD) from two middle schools and one high school; positive effects on students' study skills were found. Sturm and Rankin-Erickson (2002) examined the effects of concept mapping comparing a hand-drawn to a computer-generated format on the descriptive essay writings of 12 middle school students with LD. Results showed that students improved their writing skills and attitudes toward essay writing with the use of both types of mapping strategies. Investigating the effects of the software on increasing content-area learning in world history of three high school students with emotional and behavioral disorders, Blankenship, Ayres, and Langone (2005) found that each of the students showed increased retention and comprehension of the content-area information.

Finally, in a recent study, Boon, Burke, Fore, and Spencer (2006) successfully integrated what is known about effective technology-based instruction with findings on effective content enhancement strategy instruction. The researchers found significant differences and a moderate effect size using cognitive organizers to increase student performance of declarative social studies knowledge.

The purpose of the current study was to provide a systematic replication of the previous study by Boon et al. In the first Boon et al. study, the primary research question involved the relationship between cognitive organizers and traditional textbook instruction to facilitate declarative social studies knowledge. The present study attempts to strengthen and extend the findings of the previous study by providing a systematic replication using the same group of subjects to examine the effects of cognitive organizers and traditional textbook instruction.

Method

A quasi-experimental pretest-posttest group design was used to examine the effects of cognitive organizers versus traditional textbook instruction on students' ability to comprehend social studies content information. Direct and systematic replication of the results of a previous study is a legitimate and viable method of strengthening the internal validity of an intervention. The same two inclusive classrooms containing both general and special education students were taught one chapter of social studies information. However, the information and content taught in the present investigation was different than that used in Boon et al. (2006). Similar to the previous study, students in the cognitive organizer condition served as the experimental group, whereas the

students in the traditional textbook instruction condition served as the control group. Because the purpose of this study was to provide a systematic replication to strengthen the results of the previous study, the cognitive organizer intervention was implemented with the control group from the previous study. The primary danger of using the previous control group for the treatment group, and the previous treatment group for a new control group in a replication study, is the possibility of carryover effects influencing performance on new content material. To account for this threat, a pretest on the new content was given, and statistical differences and effect sizes were examined to ensure equivalence on the pretest measure and absence of carryover effects.

Setting and Participants

One general education teacher and two special education teachers who were the regularly assigned teachers for the social studies classes participated in the replication. As in the previous study, for both instructional conditions, the social studies classrooms were team taught, and both the general education teacher and special education teacher were responsible for teaching the content material. In the cognitive organizer condition, while the general education teacher lectured on the social studies information, the special education teacher completed the cognitive organizer on the overhead projector and reviewed the material with the students.

A total of 44 high school students participated in the study, including 26 tenth-grade students in general education and 18 tenth-grade students with a primary classification of learning disabled (LD) or emotionally disturbed (ED). The students with LD and ED were classified by school district criteria. The high school was located in a suburban area within a large metropolitan region in the Southeast with a total school population of 1,875 students. A description of the participants is shown in Table 1. The number of students in the control group included 12 special education and 12 general education students; the treatment group consisted of 6 special education and 14 general education students. Although there were more special education students in the control group, a chi-square test indicated no significant differences ($\chi^2 = 1.81$; $p = .179$).

Materials

Student Materials

Both conditions. The tenth-grade textbook *World History: The Human Experience* (Farah & Karls, 1999) was used again in both conditions. The same chapter was used in both the cognitive organizer condition using Inspiration 6 software and the traditional textbook instruction condition. The chapter was selected based on the teachers' yearly lesson plans. In the textbook, the chapter was divided into five sections that included timelines, illustrations, political maps, and highlighted vocabulary words. In addition, review activities consisted of practicing vocabulary highlighted in the chapter, sequencing and making predictions, and answering critical thinking and comprehension questions using a paper-and-pencil format.

Table 1
Students' Demographic Data

	Instructional Conditions			
	Treatment		Control	
	n	(%)	*n*	(%)
Gender				
Male	9	(45%)	15	(62.5%)
Female	11	(55%)	9	(37.5%)
Total	20		24	
Race/Ethnicity				
Caucasian	14	(70%)	16	(66.7%)
African-American	3	(15%)	1	(4.2%)
Asian	2	(10%)	3	(12.5%)
Hispanic-American	1	(5%)	4	(16.7%)
Total	20		24	
Primary Disability Area				
LD	3	(15%)	9	(37.5%)
ED	3	(15%)	3	(12.5%)
General Education	14	(70%)	12	(50.0%)
Total	20		24	

Cognitive organizer condition. Student materials in the cognitive organizer instruction condition consisted of folders, guided outlines, disks, desktop computers, textbooks, and the Inspiration 6 software. Student folders contained a pretest, reading materials, guided outlines, and 3.5-inch disks containing templates for learning the content material.

Teacher materials included lesson plans for introducing the purpose and objective of using cognitive organizers created by the Inspiration 6 software. In addition, 3.5-inch disks containing templates of the material to be covered in the teacher presentation and the training sessions were included.

Traditional textbook instruction condition. Materials were taken from the textbook, and consisted of guided notes, worksheets, cooperative learning activities, and video presentations. Cognitive organizers and the Inspiration 6 software were not used in this condition; however, students had been exposed to the intervention in the previous Boon et al. study. (Samples of these materials are illustrated in Appendix C.) As previously mentioned, and described later in the results section, statistical significance and effect sizes were examined between both groups to make sure no differences existed at pretest.

Procedures

Both Conditions

Both instructional conditions from pre- to posttest were conducted over three weeks, and consisted of four 90-minute block periods. Lesson plans in both conditions included measures of teacher effectiveness, which consisted of a daily review, statement of the purpose, presentation of information, guided

practice, independent practice, and a formative evaluation of the social studies content-area information (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2004).

Training for the Cognitive Organizer Condition

Teacher training. The teachers participated in one 45-minute workshop on the use of Inspiration 6 software. In addition, the teachers completed daily logs that contained information on instructional practices, materials, amount of time spent on activities, and any other issues that arose pertaining to instruction.

Student training. Students met in the computer lab to be trained in the various functions of the Inspiration 6 software. They were provided a disk containing a template consisting of three major league baseball teams (Yankees, Orioles, and Mets) and five attributes (location, state, team colors, stadium, and league). Using this template, the teacher demonstrated how to insert text into the software and modeled some of the functions and features on the screen using an overhead projector from the computer. After the students independently completed the outline, the teacher demonstrated how to convert the outline into a cognitive organizer by selecting the diagram icon on the menu panel. Once the students had converted their outline into a cognitive organizer, the teacher demonstrated additional features of the software such as how to highlight text, insert images or graphics, how to change backgrounds, and other templates available in the software. Finally, after completing the template the teacher reviewed the cognitive organizer and asked students to identify the similarities and differences among the three baseball teams. For example, "What two major league baseball teams are from the same city?"

Cognitive Organizer Condition

On the first day of implementation, the students met in the general education classroom where they were introduced to the next chapter in their social studies textbook on World War II. Students were then administered a 45-item production pretest (see Appendix A for a sample). Next they received a paper-and-pencil cognitive organizer to fill in during the teacher presentation. The cognitive organizer contained the title of the chapter and seven attributes to be discussed pertaining to World War II. During the presentation, the teacher displayed and completed the identical cognitive organizer on the overhead projector. Further, throughout the presentation, the teacher reviewed the content and asked students questions regarding specific attributes of World War II. For example, students were asked, "What major factors do you think contributed to the outbreak of World War II?"

On the second day of implementation, the teacher reviewed the content material from the previous day, and continued with the remaining four sections of the chapter. Students continued to complete their paper-and-pencil cognitive organizer for each of the remaining sections of the chapter. After completing the chapter, the students met in the computer lab and inserted the content material from the paper-and-pencil cognitive organizer worksheet into the outline template of the Inspiration 6 software (see Appendix B for sample cognitive organizer). Once they had finished the electronic outline,

the students selected the diagram function and converted their outline into a cognitive organizer. Finally, they were asked to print out and view one copy of their cognitive organizer and one outline of the content material.

On the last day of implementation, students were paired and assigned to study the cognitive organizer and outline for 10–15 minutes. The teacher monitored the time for cooperative study. Next, the teacher reviewed the content and asked questions related to the cognitive organizer and content material covered in the chapter. For example, "Who were the two major powers at the conclusion of World War II?" The teacher then allowed students to independently review their cognitive organizers and outline for 10 minutes. After the review, the students were administered a 45-item production posttest, which was identical to the pretest measures.

Traditional Textbook Instruction Condition

The traditional textbook instruction condition consisted of a teacher presentation, teacher questioning, oral reading, silent reading, cooperative learning activities, video presentations, and a guided reading worksheet. During the first day of implementation, students were introduced to the chapter in their social studies textbook on World War II. Then they were administered a pretest consisting of a 45-item production test, identical to the one used in the cognitive organizer instructional condition. Next, the teacher lectured on the content material and presented the students with probing questions to stimulate their critical thinking and comprehension skills. For example, "What countries were involved in World War II?" "How did Hitler take over most of Europe, and what was the response of Great Britain and the United States to German expansion?" "How did the Soviet Union and the United States enter World War II?" "How did the tide of war turn in favor of the Allies during 1942 and 1943?" "How did new technology affect the conduct and outcome of World War II?" The students subsequently read specific sections orally from the textbook and discussed the various attributes of each country. Upon completion of the oral reading and lecture, the students read silently and completed a guided reading worksheet. The guided reading activity consisted of a 10-question fill-in-the blank response worksheet to reinforce vocabulary, important people, places and events in the chapter (see Appendix C for sample guided notes). On the second day of implementation, the students completed the readings and guided reading worksheet. Then, they participated in a cooperative learning activity to reinforce vocabulary and their understanding of the reading and the historical significance of the chapter.

On the third day of implementation, the students watched a video on World War II entitled *United States History: World War II.* During the video presentation, students were asked to list 15 facts pertaining to the factors and events that led to World War II. Throughout the video, the teacher discussed the key concepts and highlighted important facts and details for the students to record in their notes. Students then completed the section review questions at the conclusion of the chapter. Review questions consisted of reinforcement of key vocabulary, identifying important people, and critical thinking and comprehension questions.

On the last day of implementation, the students completed the review questions, and the teacher provided a 10–15 minute summary of the chapter and highlighted the most important information from each of the five sections. Students had an opportunity to study independently for 10 minutes. During this time, the students reread the chapter silently, reviewed the guided reading worksheet, fact sheet, or review questions at the end of the chapter. Finally, students were administered a posttest identical to the pretest to assess their knowledge of the content material.

Scoring Procedures

One method of scoring was used on all pre-/posttest measures. Points from 0 to 2 were awarded for each item. A score of 0 was represented as no credit, a score of 1 was given for partial credit, and a score of 2 was assigned for full credit. To monitor the reliability of scoring, reliability checks were conducted independently by the researcher and a graduate student familiar with the study. All tests were scored separately by the researcher and the same graduate student, and any discrepancies in scoring were discussed and assessed to obtain 100% agreement.

Data Analysis

Data were scored and entered into SPSS for analysis. Analyses were conducted to examine significant differences and effect sizes between the computerized cognitive organizer and the control condition. A mixed-effect, repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was selected as a parsimonious approach to examine the effects of using the computerized cognitive organizers on the dependent measures (Keppel, 1982). The group variable was entered into the model for the between-subjects variable, and time was entered as the within-subjects variable.

As mentioned in the results section, a group-by-time interaction was found. Using conventional ANOVA logic, if the intervention has an effect, the effect of the treatment will be represented by a group-by-time interaction (Keppel, 1982). Analyses of the simple effects were conducted after the interaction was revealed. An analysis of simple effects generally consists of running four analyses of variances. Two between-subjects ANOVAs were then conducted. One between-subjects ANOVA was conducted at pretest and another at posttest. Two repeated-measures ANOVAs were then conducted: One from pretest to posttest for the treatment group, another from pretest to posttest for the control group. For each ANOVA, an eta squared was reported from the SPSS output for the effect size. In addition to the eta squared, Cohen's *d* was calculated for the pooled scores across both treatment and control groups at pretest, at posttest, and from pre- to posttest. Once the overall effect size was calculated, the scores were examined according to special education and general education students, respectively.

Results

The means and standard deviations for the groups on the pre- and posttest measures are presented in Table 2. In order to determine group equivalence, a one-way between-subjects ANOVA was conducted on the 45-item

open-ended pretest for students in both the cognitive organizer and the traditional textbook instruction conditions. Results indicated no significant differences between the students on the social studies declarative knowledge at pretest for content, $F(1, 42) = .010$, $p = .921$, ($\eta^2 = .000$). Table 2 provides an overview of the descriptive statistics for the cognitive organizer and the traditional textbook instruction conditions. As illustrated, students in the cognitive organizer condition had a mean pretest of 8.45 ($SD = 6.117$), whereas the mean pretest score for the students in the traditional textbook instruction condition was 8.25 ($SD = 6.974$). After students received the computerized cognitive organizer intervention, students in the experimental condition had a mean posttest score of 41.70 ($SD = 9.114$), whereas the students in the control condition had a mean posttest score of 21.29 ($SD = 10.796$).

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for Declarative Social Studies Knowledge

Dependent Measure	Time/Group	*M*	*SD*	Improvement Score
Declarative	Pretest – Treatment	8.45	6.117	
	Posttest – Treatment	41.70	9.114	+33.25
	Pretest – Control	8.25	6.974	
	Posttest – Control	21.29	10.796	+13.04

Social Studies Declarative Content Knowledge

A 2 (cognitive organizer/traditional textbook instruction) x 2 (pretest/posttest) repeated-measures ANOVA was performed to examine the differences between the pre- and posttest scores for the two instructional conditions. The cognitive organizer treatment group and the traditional textbook instruction control group were used as the between-subjects variable, whereas pre-/posttest was used as the within-subjects variable. Table 3 provides the results of the analysis for social studies declarative knowledge.

Results indicated a statically significant main effect for pre-/posttest on content knowledge, $F(1, 42) = 401.621$, $p < .01$; and for group, $F(1, 42) = 19.994$, $p < .01$. A significant interaction emerged between pre-/post and group, $F(1, 42) = 76.537$, $p < .01$. Simple effects were examined using between-subjects ANOVAs at pre- and posttest. Results indicated no significant differences between the groups at pretest, $F(1, 42) = .010$, $p = .921$ ($\eta^2 = .000$). However, a significant difference was revealed at posttest, $F(1, 42) = 44.805$, $p < .01$, with a large effect size ($\eta^2 = .516$). Finally, repeated-measures ANOVAs were conducted to examine the simple effects of time from pre- to posttest for the treatment and control groups. For the treatment group, a significant difference between the means at pretest to posttest were observed, $F(1, 19) = 411.171$, $p < .01$, with a large effect size ($\eta^2 = .956$). The control group also demonstrated a significant difference from pre- to posttest measures, $F(1, 23) = 65.980$, $p < .01$, with a large effect size ($\eta^2 = .742$)

Table 4 provides the results of Cohen's *d* for the overall scores, special education students, and general education students. The overall effect size calculations

for Cohen's *d* were similar to the η^2. Pretest effects were small ($d = .03$) but posttest differences were large ($d = 2.04$). Pre- to posttest growth was larger for the treatment group ($d = 4.28$) than for the control group ($d = 1.43$). When examining only the special education students, large posttest differences were observed ($d = 3.45$) in addition to growth for the treatment group from pretest to posttest ($d = 4.98$). The general education students also had large effect sizes at posttest ($d = 4.03$) and growth for the treatment group ($d = 4.03$).

Table 3
Results of Repeated-Measures ANOVA and Effect Sizes for Declarative Social Studies Knowledge

	F	*df*	*p*	η^2
Pre-/post (main effect)	401.621	1, 42	.000	.905
Group (main effect)	19.994	1, 42	.000	.323
Pre-/Post*Group (interaction)	76.537	1, 42	.000	.646
Simple Effects at Pretest	.010	1, 42	.921	.000
Simple Effects at Posttest	44.805	1, 42	.000	.516
Simple Effects for Treatment from Pre-/Post	411.171	1, 19	.000	.956
Simple Effects for Control from Pre-/Post	65.980	1, 23	.000	.742

Table 4
Cohen's d for Overall Special Education and General Education Students

Cohen's d	Overall	Special Education	General Education
Pretest	.03	.94	.41
Posttest	2.04	3.45	1.40
Pre-/Post Treatment	4.28	4.98	4.03
Pre-/Post Control	1.43	1.40	1.82

Discussion

This study investigated the use of cognitive organizers compared to traditional textbook instruction to increase content-area learning in inclusive social studies classrooms. Results clearly substantiated and strengthened results from Boon et al. (2006). As in the previous study, students in the cognitive organizer condition outperformed students in the traditional textbook instruction condition from pretest to posttest and at posttest. Moreover, effect sizes for both general education and special education students were large, indicating that implementation of the computer-generated cognitive organizers was equally effective for both groups.

This study strengthened the findings of the previous study by implementing the intervention with the control group from Boon et al. (2006) and using the treatment group from the previous study as the control group. The case may be made that it is unlikely that the previous study's findings were due to individual differences, teacher differences, or chance factors. Findings

of the present study not only corroborate the Boon et al. study (2006), but extend previous research on the impact of cognitive organizers to improve academic achievement for students with disabilities (Boyle, 1996; Boyle & Weishaar, 1997; DiCecco & Gleason, 2002).

A number of limitations must be considered when interpreting the findings of this investigation. The population included only two inclusive secondary social studies classes in one high school; therefore, the results may not be representative of all inclusive secondary classrooms. Similarly, all participants were in tenth grade; consequently, the results need to be replicated with a broader range of students. Moreover, although this study was conducted in inclusive classrooms, the small sample size did not allow for a separate analysis, so students with disabilities were included in the group analysis with students without disabilities. However, despite the relatively small sample size, statistically significant differences and moderate effect sizes were found between the cognitive organizer and the traditional textbook instruction conditions. Finally, the study did not include measures of treatment fidelity; however, the lesson plans in both conditions, computer-generated cognitive organizers and traditional textbook instruction, included the teacher effectiveness variables (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2004), as described previously. In short, future research will need to be conducted on a larger scale, including enough inclusive classrooms to perform a separate analysis of students with and without disabilities.

In summary, the results of this investigation and the previous Boon et al. study indicate that the use of computerized cognitive organizers has the potential to significantly increase content-area learning and achievement in inclusive social studies classrooms for both students with and without disabilities. However, future research is warranted to replicate and extend the use of computerized cognitive organizers with the integration of Inspiration software across a variety of age groups, grade levels, disability categories, content areas, and instructional settings.

Richard T. Boon, Ph.D., *is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Communication Sciences & Special Education at the University of Georgia. His research interests include cognitive strategy instruction, interventions for inclusive classroom settings, and the use of technology for students with mild disabilities.* ***Mack D. Burke, Ph.D.,*** *is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Educational Psychology at Texas A&M University. His research interests focus on school-based problem solving and reading methods for at-risk students.* ***Cecil Fore, III, Ph.D.,*** *is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Communication Sciences & Special Education at the University of Georgia. His research interests include alternative assessments, inclusion, and instructional methods for minority learners.* ***Shanna Hagan-Burke, Ph.D.,*** *is an Associate Professor in the Department of Educational Psychology at Texas A&M University. Her research interests focus on behavioral and instructional methods for teaching at-risk students.*

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APPENDIX

Appendix A: Sample Pretest

Chapter 31 World War II (PRETEST or POSTTEST)

ID# _____ Date _____ School _____ Period _____

1. Who was the leader of Japan during World War II?
2. What countries did Germany conquer?
3. What was the significance of December 7, 1941?
4. What was the government of Italy during World War II?
5. What happened at the Battle of Britain?
6. Who invaded Poland in September 1939?
7. Who was the leader of Great Britain during World War II?
8. What country did Italy conquer?
9. What country dropped the atomic bomb on Hiroshima and Nagasaki?
10. What was the Rome-Berlin Axis?
11. What was the government of Germany during World War II?
12. Who was the leader of Italy during World War II?

13. What two countries were satisfied with the peace settlements after World War I?
14. What countries did Japan conquer?
15. Who were the two major powers at the conclusion of World War II?
16. What was the Marshall Plan?
17. What was the government of Russia during World War II?
18. What was the Holocaust?
19. What was the significance of D-Day?
20. Who was the leader of Russia during World War II?
21. What was the significance of the Battle of Midway?
22. What countries did Russia conquer?
23. What was the government of Great Britain and the United States?
24. Who was the leader of Germany during World War II?
25. What was the significance of the Lend-Lease Act?
26. Who wrote the book *Mein Kampf* (My Struggle)?
27. Who is Charles de Gaulle and what country is he from?
28. What is the importance of the city of Dachau?
29. Where was the largest ghetto located in Poland?
30. Who was the commander of the Afrika Korps?
31. Who is General George Patton?
32. Where did Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin meet in February 1945?
33. How many million people fought in World War II?
34. How many United States troops perished in World War II?

Define the following terms:

35. Collective security
36. Sanctions
37. Appeasement
38. Blitzkrieg
39. Blitz
40. Cash-and-carry policy
41. Scorched-earth-policy
42. Genocide
43. Kamikazes
44. Partisan
45. Ghettos

Appendix C: Sample Guided Notes

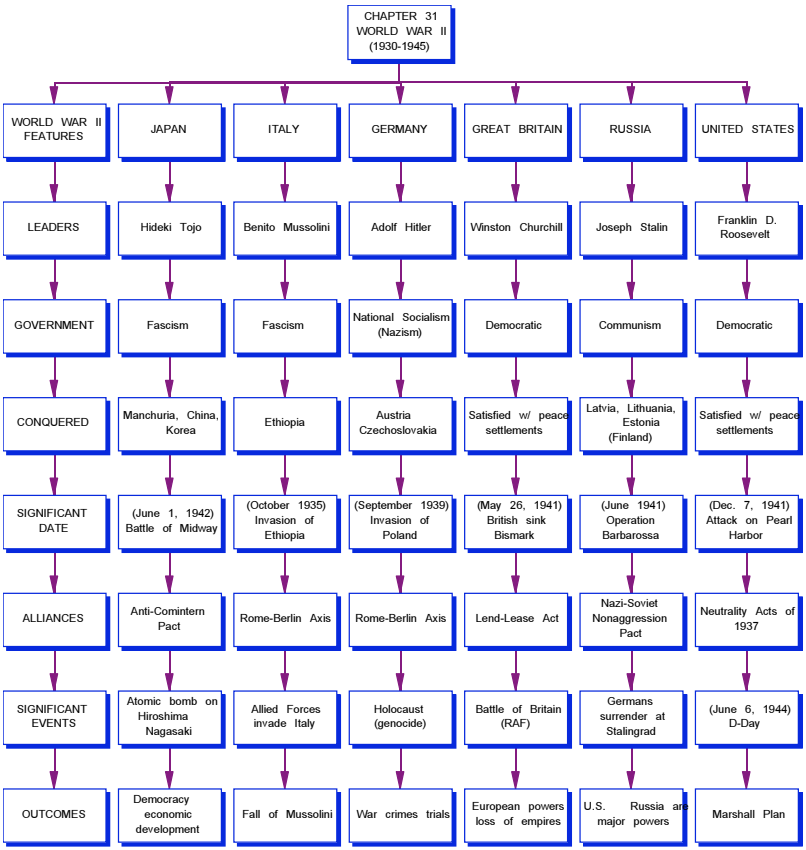
Guided Reading Activity 31–1

The Path to War

As you read Section 1, complete the sentences below.

1. _____, _____, and _____ were unsatisfied with the peace settlement following World War I.
2. In 1931 _____ was the first nation to reveal its territorial ambitions by invading _____ and renaming it _____.
3. Italian dictator _____ thought a colony in _____ would enhance Italy's image as a world power.
4. In July 1936, when civil war broke out in Spain, the conservative Spanish _____ led by Francisco Franco fought the _____, or Spanish _____, for control of the country.
5. In October 1936, Mussolini and _____ signed an agreement called the _____Axis.

Appendix B: Sample Cognitive Organizer



Appendix C: Sample Guided Notes Continued

6. The joining of Austria to Germany was known as _____.
7. After annexing Austria, Germany turned its attentions to _____, where ethnic Germans lived in a region known as the _____.
8. British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain thought a policy of _____ would stabilize Europe. The _____ Conference decided the fate of Czechoslovakia, which was soon invaded by Hitler.
9. On August 23, 1939, the Soviet Union and Germany signed the _____ Pact.
10. On September 1, 1939, Hitler sent his armies into _____, sparking World War II.

Guided Reading Activity 31– 2

War in Europe

As you read Section 2, complete the sentences below.

1. In 1939 Germany unleashed a _____, or "lightning war," on _____ and devastated the country in a few weeks.

2. Then the fighting died down. This next period was known as the _____, or the "sit-down war." The West called it the "_____ war" and felt an all-out war could be avoided.
3. Stalin forced the Baltic republics of _____, _____ and _____ to accept Soviet military bases, and then forced _____ to surrender as well.
4. Hitler then set his sights on the Scandinavian countries of _____ and _____, which were quickly conquered.
5. The French had built a fortified border called the _____ to prevent a German invasion. Nonetheless, Germany swept into the Low Countries of _____, _____, and _____ and raced toward France.
6. The Allies had to evacuate France through the port of _____.
7. The Nazis set up a puppet government in the city of _____ in France.
8. German bombers pounded the city of London in a great _____, or series of air raids. The Royal Air Force fought back against the German _____ in the Battle of _____.
9. To aid Great Britain while maintaining U.S. neutrality, Roosevelt instituted a _____ policy so that Great Britain could buy needed supplies.
10. When Great Britain ran out of money, the United States approved a new plan called _____ to lend war equipment to those nations whose defense was deemed vital to U.S. security.

Guided Reading Activity 31– 3

A Global Conflict

As you read Section 3, complete the sentences below.

1. Hitler turned his attention on the Soviet Union. He wanted to conquer the vast Soviet _____ to provide the necessary "living space" for the Germans. He also wanted wheat from _____ and oil reserves from the _____ region.
2. By November 1941, the Germans had captured _____, begun the siege of _____ and reached the outskirts of _____.
3. Hitler had a plan to create a "_____" in Europe. He thought the Germans were a "_____", and groups such as _____ and _____ were "undesirable elements."
4. The mass destruction of the Jewish people (and others) is known as the _____.
5. _____ continued its expansion in Southeast Asia and proclaimed " _____for the _____" as a way to rid their lands of _____ rule.
6. Japan bombed the American naval base at _____ in Hawaii to destroy U. S. military power in the Pacific.
7. _____ called the December 7 attack "a date which will live in infamy."

Guided Reading Activity 31– 4

Turning Points

As you read Section 4, complete the sentences below.

1. In sinking the _____, the British put an end to German efforts to win the Battle of the _____.

2. The city of _____ was symbolic in the struggle between the Germans and the Soviets.
3. German general Erwin Rommel was known as the "_____." His army was defeated by British troops at _____ and was pushed back into Libya.
4. Allies landed in Morocco and _____, hoping to trap Rommel with their "_____" strategy.
5. The Allied invasion of Italy began in conquering the island of _____.
6. King Victor Emmanuel III had _____ arrested, and the _____ party was dissolved.
7. At the Battle of _____, the Americans ended Japanese naval superiority in the Pacific.
8. The Allies launched a "leapfrogging" campaign at _____ to begin taking back the Pacific islands.
9. Japanese pilots who volunteered for suicide missions were known as _____.

Guided Reading Activity 31– 5

Allied Victories

As you read Section 5, complete the sentences below.

1. Operation _____ was the Allied plan to land troops in France.
2. The day of attack, or _____, took place on June 6, 1944, when troops landed on the coast of _____ in France.
3. Free French forces entered the city of _____ in August 1944, ending four years of German occupation.
4. While American-led forces launched an offensive against Germans from the west, the _____ launched an offensive from the _____.
5. By October 1944, the _____ controlled most of eastern Europe.
6. The last desperate offensive by the Germans was the so-called Battle of the _____ the winter of 1944, when the Allies stopped at the Belgian city of Bastogne.
7. Italian _____, or resistance fighters, shot _____.
8. The Allied leaders met at _____, where they agreed to divide Germany and Berlin into _____ zones.
9. At the conference at _____, new tensions arose over the future of Europe.
10. Two fierce and bloody battles of the Pacific were waged on the islands of _____ and _____.
11. To bring about a Japanese surrender, the United States dropped _____ on the cities of _____ and _____.