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THE IMPACT OF ACCESS TO BOOKS
ON THE READING MOTIVATION AND ACHIEVEMENT
OF URBAN ELEMENTARY STUDENTS

by

LEE-ANNE TRIMBLE SPALDING
B.S. University of Central Florida, 1994
M. Ed. University of Central Florida, 1998

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Education
in the College of Education
at the University of Central Florida
Orlando, Florida

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Major Professor: Michael Hynes
Michelle Kelley

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ABSTRACT

The focus of this research was to study the association that reading motivation and reading achievement have with increased access to books provided by the non-profit program Book Trust, could have on urban elementary students, specifically second graders being educated in a large school district in Central Florida. Teacher data collection sheets, the Motivation to Read Profile (MRP): Reading Survey and the Florida Assessment for Instruction in Reading (FAIR) were used to measure the aforementioned associations. Findings revealed that increased access to books in these elementary schools did not have a statistically significant impact on reading motivation or reading achievement scores. In addition, teachers' demographic data, such as age, number of years teaching or highest degree held, did not impact their student reading achievement.

This dissertation is dedicated to my immediate family members who in so many ways have contributed to my success along this journey. To my parents, Eric G. Trimble, Jr. and Maureen M. Trimble you always told me to be the best I can be and that I could accomplish anything through hard work and determination. I have always believed this about myself but would not have done so had you not believed in me first. Thank you! Unconditional support and love is something to be cherished and something that I continue to strive to pass on to my own children. So to my husband, Brett Spalding and two amazing sons, Graham and Gavin Spalding, you three are the core of my life. No matter how much I enjoy my passion for teaching others, it is the love I have for the three of you that means the very most to me. A great deal of work has been involved in this dissertation; I know that I could not have completed this without your support. I hope to have modeled for you, my sons, all that my parents instilled in me; with clear eyes and a full heart, you can achieve anything you set your mind to!

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Problem Statement

The education of children of color and children of the poor in urban schools has received a great deal of attention over the last two decades. This attention has been cast in numerous directions. Two distinct influences on the education of urban students are presented consistently in the literature; societal influences on urban students' academic performance and school related influences that either inhibit or increase the academic performance of students in urban educational settings (Delpit, 2006). School related influences are the focus of this research. The enormity of the problem is clear; students living in urban settings experiencing the effects of living in poverty often times lack some or all of the primary needs of any human being; food and shelter specifically. Knowing this, it is commonly noted that low socioeconomic children enter formal schooling with academic deficits. Being cognizant of the fact that it is a struggle for families to meet fundamental needs in some urban environments, academic needs of the child prior to formal schooling are often not met or are significantly less than that of their suburban counterparts (Jensen, 2009). Jensen described these students as experiencing a cognitive lag as well as enduring health and safety issues. Once these children do enter formal schooling, many urban schools then lack the funds and resources to meet the important and diverse needs of these students. The provision of such resources, in particular books, is the focus of this research.

With so many issues working against them, educators of urban elementary students struggle to meet the many challenges of formal education. Fostering motivation and a love of reading in urban elementary students with children living in impoverished conditions has proven to be a difficult task. Reading achievement scores often show the ramifications of children struggling to endure the lack of fundamental resources which in turn inhibit their academic success in urban elementary schools. Reading achievement at the elementary level is measured by the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT) 2.0 (Florida Department of Education, 2005) for Grades 3-5 and the Florida Assessments for Instruction in Reading (FAIR) (Florida Center for Reading Research, 2009) instrument designed by the Florida Center for Reading Research (FCRR) for the Florida Department of Education (FDOE) to be used to assess early reading skills (K-2) and reading skills (3-12) during one particular school year (Carlson et al., 2010). The FAIR scores for second graders will be the source of achievement data for this research.

Economically disadvantaged children have persistent and significant academic deficiencies and gaps in learning. These have been shown in various studies related to the life, health and school experiences of these children. Specifically related to literacy, Neuman and Celano (2001) noted that poor children were less likely to be read to than children from more affluent environments. Van Slyck (1995) noted in her research that individuals from poorer communities have to rely on public institutions whose egalitarian mission is to ensure books are free to all. According to Neuman and Celano (2001) economically disadvantaged children's limited access to print could negatively affect the frequency with which they interact with books and their familiarity with book language.

Limited resources are known to be powerful constraints on a proposed activity (Wilson, 1987); in this case reading books. Without access to print and the experience of watching others involved with literacy activities, children have less opportunity to imitate the actions associated with literacy like reading and writing and are less motivated to do so (Neuman & Celano, 2001). Knowing that economically disadvantaged children need access to literacy resources, some organizations and non-profits have sought to provide such access to books. Examples of these programs include but are not limited to: Books Aloud, Book Trust, Ferst Foundation for Childhood Literacy, First Book, Imagination Library, In2Books, Reach Out and Read, and Reading is Fundamental. Specific information regarding each program will be presented in the literature review, with a focus on the non-profit, Book Trust

Significance of the Research

Reading has and will continue to be a primary focus of study in elementary classrooms. Creating proficient readers at the elementary level is vital to the acquisition of knowledge in all areas of the curriculum and in society at large. Given the multifaceted issue of educating children of color and the poor in urban settings, the solutions are neither clear nor easy. Therefore, the purpose of this dissertation was to study the association that reading motivation and reading achievement had with increased access to books provided by the non-profit program, Book Trust, to elementary children experiencing the effects of poverty. In support of the forthcoming study, research related to reading motivation, reading achievement and the issue of a lack of access to books in

urban educational settings was studied. The impact on reading achievement as measured by a standardized assessment when access was and was not provided was also examined. After a thorough review of the literature there were numerous theories of motivation that provided foundational support, yet only four specifically applied to this study. Therefore, the entire literature review for this research encompassed the following: (a) social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997); (b) schema theory (Anderson, 2010); (c) attributional theory of achievement motivation (Weiner, 1985); (d) sociocognitive reading theory (Ruddell, 2010; Ruddell & Unrau, 1994); (e) self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and (f) expectancy-value theory (Eccles, 1983). The final four noted theories played a significant role in undergirding this study. Consequently, the following constructs or concepts were also explored as they all play a role in the reading motivation and achievement of urban elementary students: poverty, educating urban elementary students, reading comprehension, assessing reading achievement, motivation to read, limited access to reading materials and non-profit organizations providing access to books. The following research questions were posed so as to obtain valuable information in regard to the impact that access to books had on the reading motivation and achievement of elementary students living in impoverished conditions and attending urban Title I schools.

Research Questions

- 1a. Will second grade students' in urban Title I schools participating in the Book Trust program have different Motivation to Read Profile: Reading Survey

scores than students who are not participating in Book Trust after accounting for differences in schools?

- 1b. Will males and females differ in their Motivation to Read Profile: Reading Survey scores after accounting for differences in schools?
- 1c. Will gender moderate the relationship between Book Trust participation and motivation to read as measured by the Motivation to Read Profile: Reading Survey after accounting for differences in schools?
- 2a. Will second graders participating in the Book Trust program have higher FAIR Reading Comprehension scores than students not participating in Book Trust after accounting for differences in schools, teachers and gender of students?
- 2b. What factors in the way teachers are implementing the Book Trust Program are contributing to higher FAIR Reading Comprehension scores?

Operational Definitions

The following operational definitions are provided as a basis for how these terms are being used throughout this research.

Extrinsic motivation: externally oriented motivation that may include the provision of tangible or intangible rewards (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Malloy, Marinak & Gambrell, 2010).

Florida Assessments for Instruction in Reading (FAIR): a set of brief individually administered literacy tests designed to assess early reading skills (for K-2) and reading skills (for 3-12) in the state of Florida (Carlson et al., 2010).

Intrinsic motivation: self-generated interest in an activity: (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Malloy et al., 2010).

Literacy: engaging in meaning construction using reading, writing, and oral language in a classroom environment (Ruddell, 2010).

Motivation: characteristics of individuals (goals, competence-related beliefs and needs) that influence their achievement and activities (Guthrie, Wigfield, Metsala & Cox, 2010).

Motivation to Read Profile: an instrument employed to measure the reading motivation in young children (Gambrell & Others, 1996; Applegate & Applegate, 2010; Marinak & Gambrell, 2010).

Non-profit organizations: organizations that rely on donations and in-kind business partnerships to fund their efforts.

Poverty: the extent to which an individual does without resources (Payne, 2005).

Urban poverty: populations living in metropolitan areas of 50,000 or more dealing with chronic and debilitating conditions that result from various acute stressors that ultimately effect “the mind, body, and soul” (Jensen, 2009, p. 6).

Reading comprehension: constructing meaning with oral and written text (Duke & Carlisle, 2011).

Reading motivation: development of conditions that promote the intention to read (Mathewson, 2010).

Self-efficacy: the belief and confidence in one's self to accomplish meaningful tasks that inevitably produce desired outcomes in academic settings (Brozo & Flynt, 2008).

Urban: populations living in metropolitan areas of 50,000 or more (Jensen, 2009).

Design Restrictions of this Study

Previous researchers selected 15 eligible schools based on the low-socioeconomic status of the student population. Specific selection criteria are discussed in detail in the Methods section. Of the 15 eligible schools, nine participated in the Book Trust program and in the study. Three schools were included in the study but did not participate in the Book Trust program. The remaining three schools did not participate in Book Trust or the study. Schools self-selected into study participation and research conditions; this is a quasi-experiment that may have limited internal and external validity. It is not clear why school administrators chose not to participate in Book Trust or the study; it is possible that unobserved factors may impact the Motivation to Read Profile Reading Survey and FAIR scores.

Using a quasi-experimental design weakens the ability to make causal inferences. Although the idea of a direct causal relationship between putting books in the hands of impoverished children, like the books that Book trust provides and an increase in

achievement is one of great appeal, the fact is that simply providing the resources alone is not likely to accomplish this (McGill & Franzen, 2003). McQuillan (1998) supported this notion and was quick to point out that a real solution to the literacy crisis is not simply the provision of reading materials.

“Teaching is much more than physical resources, and no progress can be made without qualified and sensitive teachers” (McQuillan, 1998, p. 86). Although teacher data collection sheets (Appendices A & B) provided the researcher with demographic information about individual teachers and the reading program being used in their school the questions were limited. Additional insight into teacher factors like teaching methods used, teacher disposition, student reactions to the teaching methods employed and/or teacher’s dispositions could have provided a wealth of information these factors were not studied beyond self-report measures. Directly observing teacher implementation of the Book Trust program would have provided a clearer measure of program implementation and may have provided an opportunity to observe extraneous factors that could have impacted the results. Being aware of the limitations involved due to the aforementioned factors, statistical adjustments were used to account for differences in schools, teachers, and students, as well as treatment conditions. While attempting to account for individual differences in these levels, the covariates included in the statistical adjustments were based on easily accessible data.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In this study, the researcher sought to explore elementary students' reading motivation and achievement in urban settings and how these may be impacted by access to books. Therefore, the topics explored in depth include: poverty, urban education, reading comprehension, reading achievement, reading assessment, reading motivation and access to books. Specifically the research was focused on second graders. The use of current material (Hart, 1998) was of particular importance, as much research has been completed in these areas of interest over the last two decades.

Poverty

Krashen (2011) believes that the main problem in the U.S. educational system is not the schools; the problem is poverty. It was reported in the non-profit Children's Defense Fund report, the State of America's Children (2010), that more than half of all of the poor children in the United States live in eight states: California, Texas, New York, Illinois, Georgia, Ohio, Michigan and Florida. The 2011 version of the State of America's Children report further noted that it is common knowledge that living in impoverished conditions not only impacts children's emotional, physical, and intellectual development, but also inevitably costs society billions of dollars in lost productivity and health care costs (Children's Defense Fund, 2011). Students in a large metropolitan Central Florida school district were the participants in this research. Knowing that

Florida is one of the states that is home to numerous poor children, previous research and information regarding poverty and educating urban youth is of primary importance to this study.

Poverty was defined by Payne (2005) as the extent to which a person does without resources. The resources referred to by Payne (2005) often thought to be solely financial, can also include emotional, mental, spiritual, physical, support systems, relationships/role models, and knowledge of hidden rules as resources for successfully functioning in society. The researcher recognizes that although all of these individual influences are beyond the scope of this research, however it is important to recognize that these factors play a role in educating urban school children. According to Payne (2005), there are many key points to recall when discussing poverty. One key point is that economic class is not easily defined. The distinctions are blurred between poverty, middle class, and wealth. The idea of poverty is relative and only exists for individuals living in these circumstances if they are aware of an alternative (Payne, 2005). The distinction between generational and situational poverty must be considered and defined in order to fully understand how the children living in these circumstances came to be. Generational poverty is defined as living in poverty for at least two generations, and situational poverty is living in poverty due to an unfortunate life-changing event such as death, disability, loss of job, or divorce (Payne, 2005). Jensen (2009) added several other specific types of poverty beyond Payne's generational and situational classifications. He included absolute, relative, urban, and rural poverty in order to expose the complex nature of poverty in the United States. He defined urban poverty, the focus of this review, as

populations of 50,000 or more living in metropolitan areas who deal with chronic and debilitating conditions that result from various acute stressors that effect “the mind, body, and soul” (Jensen, 2009, p. 6).

It has been required by law, according to the Department of Health and Human Services, that the poverty guidelines for the United States be updated annually to reflect changes in the Consumer Price Index (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2011). The federal poverty threshold in 2011 for a family of four, including two children, was \$22,350. Families were defined as poor if their income fell below this amount annually, and low-income families were defined as having an annual income of twice the federal poverty threshold; in this case, \$44,700.

This distinction is important when discussing the number of school-age children living in poverty or low-income conditions in the state of Florida. The total numbers of families in the state as of 2010 was 2,060,901 with 3,977,548 children. The percentage of children under the age of 18 defined as poor in Florida was 21%, and the percentage living in low-income conditions was 46% of the total population in the state (National Center for Children in Poverty, 2011).

Urban settings often include racial/ethnic diversity and impoverished conditions as well. *The Nation's Report Card: Trial Urban District Assessment Reading 2007* referred to urban schools as those having a high concentration of ethnic minority students (other than white) and lower-income families compared to their suburban counterparts whose socioeconomic status was known through their involvement in the National School Lunch Program (Lutkus, Grigg, & Donahue, 2007). To qualify for free or

reduced-price lunches, families must be considered low-income or living in poverty as determined by the guidelines set forth by the United States Department of Health and Human Services (Crowe, Connor, & Petscher, 2009) Families must self-disclose this information and apply for this status by completing a yearly application at the beginning of the school year. Schools participating in this research were selected due to the fact that they were identified as having above 90% free and reduced lunch rates.

In the early 1960s, Lewis coined the phrase, culture of poverty, based on his work in small Mexican communities after observing that people living in poverty shared a consistent and observable “culture” (as cited by Gorski, 2008a). Since then, numerous researchers have concluded that the culture of poverty is nothing more than a myth (Gorski, 2008b). However, this myth has prevailed for approximately 40 years and has led to stereotypes of people living in poverty that many people continue to believe to be true. Some of these stereotypes are: individuals living in poverty are unmotivated, have weak worth ethics, devalue education, are linguistically deficient, and abuse drugs/alcohol. Not only are these negative stereotypes not true for the entire population living in poverty, but some of the more optimistic ones are just as unfounded. Perhaps the greatest myth about poverty is that education is the great equalizer (Gorski, 2008a). It is common knowledge that schools in urban settings tend to lack resources in comparison to that of their counterparts in middle and upper class populated schools.

Jensen (2009) shared the mnemonic device *EACH* to assist in remembering the risk factors associated with growing up in poverty: Emotional and social challenges, Acute and Chronic stressors, cognitive lags, and Health and safety issues. Impoverished

children have to overcome a great deal of inequities in order to successfully learn in school (Gorski, 2008a). Hannaway (2005), in discussing literacy development in urban schools, noted the strong relationship between family economic status/make-up and academic achievement of students. She stated that "Teaching disadvantaged students is particularly challenging, partly because students do not come to school primed in the same way as middle-class children for classroom instruction" (p. 12).

Researchers have shown several pathways in which low income and living in impoverished conditions may affect children: home environment, quality child-care, parent-child relationships and neighborhood residence are examples of such pathways having an effect on children and learning (Jensen, 2009; Payne, 2005). Home environment, is one reason low-income children participate in fewer literacy related activities. According to Evans (2004), the longer children live in poverty "the more impoverished the home learning resources and the fewer the supportive parental behaviors" (p. 84). Societal influences like family structure, limited finances, and the level of education acquired by the child's parents have all been noted as predictors of low academic achievement in formal schooling of the urban population (Delpit, 2006).

Though not a primary focus in this review, it is vital to note that "denying the impact of poor health on learning leads to blaming teachers for circumstances completely beyond their control" (Rothstein, 2008, p. 13). Gorski (2008a) proposed systemic reform that works toward anti-poverty and anti-classism education. Rothstein noted the importance of understanding that poverty was not just an issue to be broached in the school setting but that it is a social and economic reform issue as well. Knowing this, he

suggested several ways to combat the effects of poverty on student learning that encompass both school and social/economic reform: school-based clinics should offer pediatric and dental care; low-income housing subsidy programs should be expanded; provisions should be made for higher-quality early childhood care; earned income tax credits should be increased; mixed-income housing neighborhoods should be promoted, and after-school program funding should be increased (Rothstein, p. 12). “Poverty is harmful to the physical, socioemotional, and cognitive well-being of children, youths, and their families” (Evans, 2004, p. 88). Survival is of the utmost importance in impoverished communities and for that reason, at times, learning in school is secondary. Krashen (2011) recommended protecting children from the effects of poverty by continuing to support and expand the free and reduced lunch program, providing enough school nurses, and making sure all children have access to books. He expressed the belief that dealing with poverty not only can positively impact student achievement but can improve the quality of life and personal happiness of the impoverished (Krashen, 2011).

Educating Urban Elementary Students

The effects of poverty are numerous. These effects are not isolated to the society in which the children live. They also greatly impact the education of these children. The following studies provide insight into effectively teaching urban youth and provide support for the research. Researchers have recognized that:

No two urban areas are alike, but all have large numbers of students who have distinct literacy needs. Most urban areas have high numbers of students who do not speak or read English, students who live in generational poverty, and immigrants with little or no formal education. (Lenski, Mack, & Brown, 2008, p. 62)

With increasing numbers of students living in poverty in the United States, it is vital to urban student success for teachers to identify and employ best practice teaching methods to potentially lead to improved success in literacy activities (Briggs, Perkins, & Walker-Dalhouse, 2010). It is essential for teachers to understand the urban student in many ways; not just economically but linguistically and ethnically as well in order to respond to their needs with effective instruction (Scott, Teale, Carry, Johnson, & Morgan, 2009). The use of the additional books in the classroom could aid effective instruction if the classroom teacher utilized these additional resources to better meet the needs of their diverse student population. Quality children's literature chosen by the students could expose students to a more positive side of life and the provision of these resources could also promote a more positive attitude toward education.

The vast majority of schools operate in a middle class mindset. According to Payne (2005), there are a hidden set of rules and expectations that differ from what the impoverished children experience in their home-life. In order for these children to be able to function successfully in the school environment, the hidden rules must be directly taught (Payne, 2005). This is not to say that children should forgo the skills needed to survive in their community, but they need to be taught what skills to use in the school and

ultimately in the work place. Effective instructional practice is instrumental to student success and of paramount importance to consider when teaching urban learners dealing with the effects of poverty. For example, many students in urban settings speak dialects or languages other than Standard English. Teachers need to learn how to employ instructional practices that do not denigrate students' home language yet teach them when and how to use Standard English, the accepted language of academia, business, and politics (Delpit, 1986; Lenski, et al., 2008). Teachers have been found to be one of the most important factors in aiding the in-school success of children living in poverty, but they must have an extensive knowledge base to make expert data-based decisions to successfully teach their students (Briggs et al., 2010; Fisher & Frey, 2007).

To raise the achievement of students living in poverty, Payne (2005) recommended nine powerful practices for teachers: (a) build respectful relationships; (b) make learning connected and relational; (c) "teach students to speak in the formal register" (p. 48); (d) know the resources students have available to them; (e) directly teach the hidden rules of being successful in-school; (f) implement progress monitoring/employ interventions; (g) make the abstract concrete, (h) teach questioning techniques, and (i) have communications and relationships with students' parents/guardians. Instructional practice with children in urban environments must be authentic and motivational, while also being focused and differentiated to meet individual student needs (Scott et al., 2009). Reviewing the aforementioned powerful teaching practices of impoverished students, teachers participating in the Book Trust program

could compliment their curriculum with the additional resources selected by their students and in turn, make learning more connected to that of the students' interests.

Fisher and Frey (2007) developed a literacy framework that showed great promise when utilized in urban settings. Highlighted in the framework were three components: reading, writing, and oral language. The framework also encompassed instructional practice categories of direct instruction, guided instruction, collaborative learning, independent practice with conferring, and assessment. Within this framework, the researchers noted three key factors embedded in the framework that positively impacted students in their study at one elementary school: high expectations, focused teaching, and optimization of the opportunity to learn (Fisher & Frey, 2007). Knowing that low-SES children have often been deprived of resources like books for years prior to formal schooling, it is imperative that instructional practice employed by teachers develop interests of children (Scott et al., 2009) by incorporating the arts and athletics into their education as well (Jensen, 2009). These activities have many positive outcomes, e.g., motivating students, sustaining their attention, and improving cognition (Jensen, 2009).

In urban schools such as those participating in this research, teachers carefully navigate what is required by their administrators and school districts while attempting to provide instruction to best meet the needs of their students. According to Parsons, Metzger, Askew, and Carswell (2011), high stakes testing has caused teachers in high-poverty schools to employ repetitious instruction of isolated bits of information leaving very little time for project-based literacy instruction. In this study, the poverty-stricken schools were provided Title I status, a federally funded program that, in the state of

Florida, provided over \$500 million to aid high poverty school districts and agencies in Florida. These monies are ear marked to help provide high quality supplemental instruction and support services for educationally disadvantaged children (Florida Department of Education, n.d.). The Title I school (those in which 86% of students receive free/reduced lunch) involved in their study provided professional development opportunities for teachers in project-based literacy instruction and then sought to implement assignments that involved meaningful interactions with text with their students (Parsons et al., 2011). The administration and teachers focused on creating self-regulated learners. This form of project-based literacy instruction not only taught skills and strategies necessary for proficient reading and writing but empowered the young learners to make connections as to how this knowledge applied to their own lives as literate individuals. Teachers in the study followed the ACCESS framework. ACCESS stands for authenticity, collaboration, challenge, end product, sustained learning, and student choice. They reported more use of interdisciplinary units in a workshop format that enhanced content knowledge and language arts related skills in their Title I school. After sharing sessions where teachers presented various unit plans that they had created and implemented, team members were inspired to try new and different methods to benefit students living in low-income to impoverished conditions.

According to Berliner (2009), non-school factors like family, community and society in general can exert a powerful influence on student behavior and learning. Impoverished students frequently feel greater effects of these non-school factors than do their middle-class or wealthy counterparts (Berliner, 2009). When considering the

differences in socioeconomic status in the field of education, educators must understand the basics of poverty as it relates to educating children in urban settings. Some suggestions for closing the gap between urban students and their suburban counterparts include an increase in school resources and the recruitment of high quality teachers (Hannaway, 2005) which are both integral facets of this research.

Theoretical Underpinnings

In order to provide a theoretical foundation for this study, the following theories were explored: (a) social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997); (b) schema theory (Anderson, 2010); (c) attributional theory of achievement motivation (Weiner, 1985); (d) sociocognitive reading theory (Ruddell, 2010; Ruddell & Unrau, 1994); (e) self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, (1985) and (f) expectancy-value theory (Eccles, 1983). Specifically, the final four noted theories provided fundamental support, aiding the researcher's desire to explore the reading motivation and achievement of urban elementary students.

Prior researchers have identified the importance of urban youth observing literacy tasks (Neuman & Celano, 2001). Social cognitive theory notes that learning is observational and characterized by the student's ability to retain and reproduce learning and to motivate the learner to adopt the new knowledge (Bandura, 1997). Lack of resources in urban environments negatively impacts these observations and inhibits the child's opportunity to imitate the actions associated with literacy such as reading and writing (Neuman & Celano, 2001). Three reciprocal facets to social cognitive theory are

personal, environmental and behavioral factors (Bandura, 1997). Book Trust participants have the ability to self-select text of interest. In most cases, this selection process takes place at home and/or at school with the assistance an adult. With reciprocal facets of social cognitive theory being related to personal, environmental and behavioral factors, the connection between this theory and the program are clear. Sociocognitive reading theory, which stems from social cognitive theory, further explains negotiation and construction of meaning that occur between the educator and reading in a classroom environment.

Anderson (2010) described schema theory and made it clear that all stories, complex or simple, require schema or prior knowledge application. The applied schema is dependent upon readers' culture, specifically their age, gender, race, religion, nationality, and occupation. Schema, a term coined by F.C. Bartlett (as cited by Rosenblatt, 1994) was defined as an abstract knowledge structure; educational researchers have been quick to note the importance of knowing what prior knowledge to draw upon that will best assist in the acquisition of new knowledge (Anderson & Pearson, 1984). The self-selection of texts of interest in this study could positively affect the child's ability to connect their schema with the chosen book while also helping the elementary teacher facilitate such valuable connections for their young readers.

Deci and Ryan (1985) described the study of motivation as exploring the energization and direction of behavior; most specifically, the *why* of behavior. Their self-determination theory was based on the premise that the individual makes a personal decision or choice to act in a certain way. These researchers developed this theory to

deal with effects of external stimuli on intrinsic motivation. As it relates to this study, the books were external stimuli provided to not only enhance motivation to read but also provide the necessary resources to allow for the choice to participate in the act of reading.

Weiner's research regarding the attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion was comprised of three interrelated motivational constructs. These constructs align with previously mentioned theories that also align with researchers desire to study the impact of access to books on reading motivation and reading achievement. The constructs are: attribution, self-efficacy, and perceptions of competence (Weiner, 1985). These constructs have been defined as follows: (a) attributions are evaluations made by individuals in regard to the cause of their success or failure after completing a task; (b) self-efficacy, as described by Bandura (1986), are people's judgments about their capabilities to complete tasks to attain a certain performance; and finally, (c) perceptions of competence are just that: beliefs as to how individuals are able and seek proficiency to complete specific tasks (Weiner, 1985).

Concurring with Weiner on the subject of self-efficacy, the expectancy-value model of motivation (Eccles, 1983) proposed three motivational facets: (a) expectancy or efficacy, the beliefs one holds regarding the ability to perform a task; (b) value, the beliefs one holds as to the importance of a task; and affective or one's emotional response to a task; in this case reading (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990). Self-efficacy was of particular importance in this research as this facet of the aforementioned theories provided foundational support for the creation of the Motivation to Read Profile which measured self-concept and value for reading (Gambrell, 1996). The author has drawn

extensively upon this prior research that demonstrates that self-efficacy and task value are major determiners of engagement and motivation in reading tasks (Harp, 2006).

Reading Comprehension

Low socioeconomic students attending schools in urban environments are more likely to have difficulty learning to read than students from higher socioeconomic status (Lenski et al., 2008). Though there are many critical skills needed for reading success, e.g., phonological awareness, phonics, fluency, and vocabulary (Marinak & Gambrell, 2010); the purpose of reading is comprehension or making meaning from text (Center for the Improvement of Early Reading Achievement [CIERA], 2001). Reading comprehension is an active and complex cognitive process (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000). As early as 2002, The RAND Study Group identified three subdivisions related to reading comprehension: the reader, the text and the activity. Duke and Carlisle (2011) referred to comprehension as a quintessential growth construct, defining it as constructing meaning with oral and written text. Comprehension is not finite but is continually ongoing in a reader's lifetime and is consistently affected by many other factors. "Constructing meaning is to interpret what an author has said by bringing one's "capacities, abilities, knowledge, and experiences" to bear on what he or she is reading." (Shanahan et al., 2010, p. 5).

In the late 1970s, Durkin sought to study comprehension instruction taking place in classrooms, specifically in the content area of social studies.. Durkin (1978-79) concluded that little to no comprehension instruction took place in the classrooms that

were observed. The time allotted to teach social studies if provided at all, lacked any instruction in content area reading. For the most part, teachers were identified as assignment givers rather than instructors (Durkin, 1978-79). This type of interrogation teaching method does little to enhance comprehension, as a language-rich environment is necessary to develop a deep knowledge (Duke & Carlisle, 2011). The way in which a teacher reads to her students, engaging them in discussion about the text rather than simply reading aloud, can have a positive effect on comprehension development (Duke & Carlisle, 2011). Literacy and reading take place in the sociocultural context of the classroom. “One of the nation’s highest priorities should be to define the instructional practices that generate long-term improvements in learners’ comprehension capacities and thus promote learning across content areas” (Snow, 2002, p. xvi).

CIERA (2001) provided a list of 10 research based principles that constituted effective instruction of reading comprehension. Table 1 displays the 10 principles along with various components of the principles. The table also lists other researchers whose work is supportive of either the principles or components.

Brown, Palinscar and Armbruster (2010) noted that the ideal teacher models comprehension and fosters and monitors activities by activating relevant knowledge and questioning basic assumptions. For success, the schema of the student is recognized and brought to bear on the reading task. Some of the activities cited by Brown et al. are: clarifying the purpose for reading, activating prior knowledge, facilitating the main focus of the reading toward main content, evaluation of content, and progress monitoring of comprehension and making inferences which include predictions and conclusions.

Readers derive meaning from text when they engage in intentional, problem solving thinking processes and actively relate ideas presented in the reading to their own knowledge and experiences (Pressley, 2000). However, comprehension cannot take place until the act of reading occurs. Thus, although comprehension is deemed the most critical factor in reading success, the motivation to engage in the act of reading is also critical in overall student achievement.

Table 1

Research Based Principles of Effective Reading Comprehension Instruction

Principles and Components	Researchers
1. <i>Purposeful and explicit teaching</i> Explicitly teach decoding skills	Pressley, 2000
2. <i>Classroom interactions that support the understanding of specific texts</i> Elaborative interrogations Intentional and thoughtful interaction	Pressley, 2000 NICHD, 2000
3. <i>Instruction before children are reading conventionally</i>	
4. <i>Teaching the skills and strategies used by expert readers</i> Dominant reader strategies include the structure and list strategies Readers must select important information for deeper encoding Transfer of learning is vital	Meyer & Poon, 2011
5. <i>Careful analysis of text to determine its appropriateness for particular students and strategy instruction</i>	
6. <i>Knowledge, vocabulary, and advanced language development</i> Teaching vocabulary directly and indirectly and word knowledge Vocabulary instruction appropriate for age and ability of readers	Pressley, 2000 NICHD, 2000
7. <i>Instruction pervading all genres and subjects</i> Teaching in the context of specific academic areas may be effective More research is needed as to demands of academic or disciplinary text	NICHD, 2000 Moje, Stockdill, Kim, & Kim, 2011
8. <i>Instruction that actively engages students in text and motivates them to use strategies and skill</i> The nature of instruction (participatory approach) plays a large part in comprehension Teach active comprehension strategies: predicting, questioning, visualizing, summarizing, and analyzing text Direct instruction regarding vocabulary development that actively engages students Engage in intentional, problem-solving thinking processes to aid comprehension.	Moje et al., 2011) Pressley, 2000 NICHD, 2000 NICHD, 2000

Principles and Components	Researchers
9. <i>Assessments that inform instruction and monitor student progress</i> Encourage self-monitoring and self-correction to aid comprehension	Pressley, 2000
10. <i>Continuous learning on the part of the teacher</i> Extensive formal instruction in the teaching of reading comprehension strategies is necessary	NICHHD, 2000
The direct explanation approach and the transactional strategy instruction approach are examples of instructional repertoires that could benefit teacher instruction	NICHHD, 2000
Reciprocal teaching and collaborative strategic reading are two more teaching methods that enhance comprehension	Duke & Pearson, 2002
Teacher knowledge and beliefs are critical to effective literacy instruction in the classroom	Ruddell, 2010

Note. NICHHD = National Institute of Child Health and Human Development.

Reading Achievement and Assessment

Under the umbrella of academic achievement, reading achievement has been a priority in formal education (Guthrie et al., 2009). Societal influences such as family structure, limited resources leading to limited experiences, and the level of education acquired by a child's parents have all been noted as predictors of low academic achievement of the urban population in formal schooling (Delpit, 2006). Gender, according to researchers, makes a difference in reading achievement of students as well (Marinak & Gambrell, 2010). Boys have been noted as underachieving in reading, and motivation has mediated the difference between female and male achievement scores. Gender issues related to motivation to read require further investigation to provide information as to effective instruction for boys and girls (Marinak & Gambrell, 2010). Though as recently as 2007, the Education Alliance report stated that there was a crisis in terms of the literacy achievement of boys in the U.S., the report also acknowledged that

“not all experts and researchers agree that there is a crisis related to the reading achievement of boys” (p. 8).

Despite copious research on best practice methods for teaching reading, common barometers of educational achievements such as the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) have shown only minor fluctuations in reading achievement since the 1980s (McQuillan, 1998). Therefore, reading achievement of engaged students in the United States has remained stable. However, children who live below the poverty threshold have test scores that are substantially lower than children living in conditions above the poverty threshold (Duncan & Brooks-Gunn, 2000). In the state of Florida, the Florida Assessments for Instruction in Reading (FAIR) is an instrument that has been widely used in Grades K-12 since 2009 (Florida Center for Reading Research, 2009).

Motivation Related to Reading

“Motivation deserves our attention for its contribution to learning,” (Malloy et al., 2010, p. 1). Gambrell (1996) stated that motivation is what makes the difference between superficial learning and long-term internalized learning. With a strong theoretical foundation in social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997) and expectancy-value theory (Eccles, 1983), motivation to read has been identified as the prime component of engagement in the reading process. Motivated readers are those students who often or always choose to participate in literacy tasks. Unmotivated readers are students who consistently avoid these tasks (Malloy et al., 2010).

Motivation as it relates to reading is the provision of both energy and direction to the reading process, as referenced by particular motives: self-actualizing motive, achievement motive and curiosity motive (Mathewson, 2010). Mathewson's 2010 Model of Attitude Influence upon Reading and Learning to Read is a revised version of the 1976 and 1985 models. It delineates how feelings, action readiness, and evaluative beliefs influence intention to read and inevitably reading. In 2011, Gambrell cited seven vital "rules of engagement" (Gambrell, p. 172) to enable motivation to read. One of those rules was that students are more motivated to read when they have access to a wide range of reading materials. In noting the importance of cultivating engaged and motivated readers, Gambrell reinforced that highly motivated students who see reading as desirable become better readers.

Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) also explored children's motivation for reading and how it affects reading volume and variety of texts. These researchers noted that fourth and fifth grade children with higher intrinsic motivation read more often and with more breadth than their counterparts with lower intrinsic motivation to read. They also discovered that fourth-grade students read significantly more (as measured in minutes per day outside of school via parent-signed reading log) than fifth graders participating in the research study. The main finding was that reading motivation was multifaceted. Children who reported that they were truly motivated to read tended to increase their reading volume in the present and future.

Wentzel and Wigfield (1998) reviewed the literature related to academic and social motivation. They identified four main constructs related to academic motivation:

(a) competence related beliefs, (b) control beliefs, (c) subjective task values, and (d) achievement goal orientation. Concerning the first construct of competence related beliefs, the authors suggested three sub-constructs: students' ability beliefs, their expectancy for success, and their self-efficacy. According to Malloy et al. (2010), students tend to engage in activities where they feel more competent rather than tasks they feel they are lacking skills. Weiner had used the second construct in 1985 in his attribution model of motivation. The third construct identified by Wentzel and Wigfield (1998), children's subjective task values, was divided into three components: interest value, attainment value and utility value, all similar to extrinsic motivation. Finally, the fourth construct of achievement goal orientation was defined using two key terms; mastery goals and performance/ego goals (Ames, 1992; Wentzel & Wigfield, 1998). Ames (1992) referred to mastery goals, also known as learning goals, as the desire to master a particular skill. In contrast, students with performance goals tend to be more concerned with how well they read in comparison to their peers (Ames, 1992; Malloy et al., 2010).

Guthrie et al. (2010) reaffirmed the notion that the more one reads, the better he or she becomes at reading and comprehending what is read. Prior research by Stanovich (1986), laid the foundation for Guthrie's research with his term, the Matthew Effect. This term, coined by Stanovich as he applied it to reading, simply means that the more an individual struggles to read at the start of the reading process, the less exposure to print that student has compared to the more skilled reader. Hence the catch phrase, "the rich get richer, and the poor get poorer," is used to describe the significantly larger number of

words higher achieving students encountered than their lower achieving counterparts. Guthrie, et al. (2010) stated that children read for both extrinsic and intrinsic reasons regardless of the controversy noted in much of the literature directed at the use of extrinsic rewards. Intrinsic motivation is self-generated interest in an activity and extrinsic motivation is externally oriented and may include the provision of tangible or intangible rewards (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Malloy et al., 2010). For example, verbally praising a child could be considered an intangible, extrinsic reward (Hilden & Jones, 2011). The use of some extrinsic rewards not only undermines intrinsic motivation to read but cheapens the value and love of learning (Williams, Hedrick & Tuschinski, 2008). Reading motivation, according to these educational researchers (Guthrie et al., 2010), encompasses several aspects of intrinsic motivation such as curiosity, involvement, and challenge in addition to extrinsic motivation aspects like recognition and competition. Ruddell and Unrau (2010) described the critical factors in reading motivation as being self-development, instructional orientation, and task-engagement resources. Additional researchers concurred and even added additional factors that should be promoted in classroom environments to aid intrinsic motivation. For example, allowing students more choice and control over educational decisions, planning for social interaction during activities embedded in novel learning experiences, and providing for a positive learning environment where feedback was consistent, success attainable and real-world knowledge honored were all motivating factors for students (Williams et al., 2008).

Reading engagement has been strongly correlated with reading achievement. Colker (2008) wrote that, “engagement in reading can compensate for low achievement due to socioeconomic status or parents’ education level. Children who become engaged readers can overcome the disadvantages of risk” (para. 2). Specific instructional practices were noted by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) to aid in student motivation. They were: (a) creating learning goals, (b) providing real-world interactions, (c) use of autonomy support, (d) making available and sharing interesting texts, (e) varying strategy instruction to include the use of direct instruction, (f) scaffolding and guided practice, allowing and planning for collaborative experiences, (g) providing specific and effective praise and rewards, (h) using a combination approach to evaluation, and (i) genuine teacher involvement where the educator displays compassion and sets positive and ascertainable goals for learning. The authors were quick to note that witnessing all of these instructional factors concurrently in the classroom was rare. Mathewson (2010) specifically stated that “helping students think reflectively about the interrelationships among their values, attitudes, intentions may help them to strengthen their clarity of purpose in reading” (p. 1447).

Palmer, Codling and Gambrell (1994) conducted a year-long study of motivation to read involving approximately 330 third- and fifth-grade students from 16 classrooms in two school districts. The results were indicative of research others have completed concerning reading motivation. Students reported the following factors as supporting their engagement and motivation for reading: book-rich classroom libraries, receiving books as gifts, choice in book selection, prior experience with books, books in series and

talking about books with others. A book-rich classroom allows students to discover and develop their own reading tastes while selecting books from multiple genres that include high level vocabulary, a variety of interesting topics and quality authors (Miller, 2010).

Concept-oriented reading instruction (CORI) is an intervention framework that was created by Guthrie at the University of Maryland (Guthrie, 2011; Guthrie, McRae & Klauda, 2007). Its purpose was to increase reading comprehension while simultaneously increasing motivation for reading. CORI contains a theoretical framework with five constructs that align with motivational constructs as well. These initial five constructs represent goals for instruction: relevance, choice, success, collaboration, and thematic unit. In CORI, reading outside of school is noted as an indicator of intrinsic reading motivation or what Guthrie would refer to as reading for its own sake or reading for enjoyment. Intrinsic motivation (reading engagement), according to Guthrie, must be addressed when using instructional reading programs. An engaged reader is one who is intrinsically motivated to read. Engagement supporting practices are infused into the CORI framework. Instructional components are added to the CORI framework that help to increase students motivational attributes. These motivational constructs, along with the instructional techniques employed with CORI, seek to increase the student's motivation specifically intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy, social disposition for reading, and mastery goals for reading (Guthrie, 2011; Guthrie et al., 2007).

In the vast research devoted to motivating students to read, the importance of educators and their instructional practice in the classroom cannot be denied. The teacher factor is well documented in the literature as one of the possible solutions to closing the

achievement gap, specifically in urban settings. The need for high quality educators in urban schools, though not the norm, is paramount to the motivation and achievement of the students in urban elementary classrooms. Teachers who are aware of the need for high quality classroom libraries and the importance of offering time in the school day to read and discuss books is particularly important in motivating students to read and to their reading success. McQuillan (1998) commented on the importance of teaching in solving the literacy crisis in his statement that “Teaching is much more than physical resources, and no progress can be made without qualified and sensitive teachers” (p. 86).

It is extremely important to use research-based instructional strategies to meet the needs of a diverse population of students (Bean, 2005). Can motivation among children of color and the poor be enhanced through increased access to quality books that choose and by teachers guiding them into a love for reading? “For a student to act with motivation, he or she must have a reason for that action.” (Robenstine, 1997, p. 300). Teachers have the ability to promote reading and inspire students to grow to love the interaction with text for both aesthetic and efferent reasons. Motivation increases when students feel the teacher is their ally in the pursuit of knowledge (Guthrie et al., 2006). In relation to learning to read, young children may not yet realize the importance of gaining meaning from text. Therefore, the extrinsic motivation provided by a knowledgeable teacher who aids students with access to books of their choice may actually assist students in fostering a love and motivation for reading. In her reward proximity hypothesis, Gambrell (1996) suggested that rewards that are related to the task(i.e., a

book reward for reading) are less likely to undermine an individual's intrinsic motivation (Marinak & Gambrell, 2008).

The appropriate use of incentives can lead learners to engage in reading and can lead to the internalization and integration of the value of reading. When incentives are linked to the desired behavior and can promote engagement in the desired behavior, motivation can become self-determined and foster high-quality learning. Further, appropriate incentives offered for goal-oriented, challenging reading performance can enhance intrinsic motivation to read. (Gambrell & Marinak, p. 209)

The dichotomy of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation exists in much of the educational literature related to student academic success. "Intrinsic motivation is associated with deep and internalized learning, while extrinsic learning is deemed superficial and shallow" (Colker, 2008, para 1). Engaged readers are those ideal readers who are intrinsically motivated to read for a variety of purposes and often read more than their less enthusiastic counterparts (Applegate & Applegate, 2010; Marinak & Gambrell, 2010; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). However, Dickinson (1995) insisted that "There are frequently circumstances especially in the education of children, when extrinsic motivation is the predominant possibility, as when children are being introduced to learning knowledge and skills in which they have no intrinsic wish to learn" (p. 304).

Assessing the Motivation to Read: Motivation to Read Profile

While there are many instruments available to measure reading motivation, one appeared to be the most appropriate to the researcher due to the fact it was designed specifically for elementary students. This instrument, known as the Motivation to Read Profile (MRP), has been utilized in numerous studies for the purpose of assessing reading motivation in young children. It offers a quick way to glean insight into students' self-perceptions as readers and the value they hold for reading (Harp, 1996).

Similar to this study, Applegate and Applegate (2010) sought to assess motivation and thoughtful response to text in elementary school children using the MRP. Specifically, they wondered if elementary school children's thoughtful responses to narrative text would be related to their overall motivation, the value ascribed to reading and their reading self-efficacy. In addition, they sought to assess whether motivation could be systematically related to gender and the inclination to respond thoughtfully to text. Finally, they wanted to know whether the value ascribed to reading by the elementary students in their study would decrease in relation to grade level and student inclination to respond thoughtfully to text. A sample of 443 elementary school children ranging from Grades 2 to 6 in three northeastern states were involved in this study between 2006 and 2009. The researchers employed two instruments for data collection: the MRP and the Critical Reading Inventory (CRI). The researchers discovered that elementary school children with a high inclination to respond thoughtfully to text were also highly motivated readers. In addition, females were more motivated to read in terms of total motivation and value ascribed to reading but not in terms of self-efficacy. The

educational researchers documented that at some point research and classroom practice lost a crucial connection. Practitioners, according to Applegate and Applegate, must be aware of current research like this that applies to their students and employ teaching strategies that work.

Gender differences in relation to motivation to read were also a point of interest in this research. Marinak and Gambrell sought to understand the discrepancy in reading motivation scores between male and female students in their 2010 study via the use of the MRP. Of the 288 children surveyed, 18% to 25% qualified for free/reduced-price lunches. Findings showed that boys of average reading ability were equally self-confident as females, but they were less motivated to read than their female counterparts. In addition, males in this study valued the act of reading less than other average readers who were female (Marinak & Gambrell, 2010).

Lacking Resources: Limited Access to Reading Materials

The source of written language input, commonly called reading materials, is often overlooked in discussions related to language and literacy acquisition (McQuillan, 1998). Limited resources have exercised powerful constraints on any proposed activity, e.g., reading books (Wilson, 1987). John-Steiner and Mahn (1996) reviewed Vygotsky's sociocultural approach to learning. When studying Vygotsky's concept of the zone of proximal development, they observed that active agents in learning include not only the people involved in the learning process but also the educational tools such as books and videos. When combined with the established learning environment, these elements make

a difference (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996). Krashen (2011) expressed the belief that ensuring that children have access to books is what makes literacy development possible.

Of primary importance in the Expanded Model of Reading Acquisition is access to reading materials immediately followed by reading comprehensible text and finally reading acquisition (McQuillan, 1998). McQuillan argued that access to reading materials was perhaps as important, if not more important, as other explanations of reading difficulties. Access to reading materials, according to McQuillan, varies drastically in schools, homes, and communities for a variety of reasons. Disparities in access to these print materials result in variations regarding reading achievement, 1998). Berliner (2009) stated that impoverished children are experiencing low literacy development due to inadequate nutrition, insufficient health care and a lack of access to books. Socioeconomic status (SES) is an indirect yet imperfect proxy for print access (McQuillan, 1998). On average, children living in low-SES homes have less physical access to print materials most valued at schools. He is quick to point out that many middle-class children have poor access to print for various reasons but those living in low income areas often have a significant amount of exposure to literacy related activities. McQuillan noted that variations in the amount of reading materials available for the individual to comprehend would partly determine reading volume and, in turn, how well the individual reads.

The ramifications of the limited discretionary funds of low income families are numerous. One is that there is little provision for home book collections. In addition, schools serving large numbers of these students also typically have financial constraints

that impede their abilities to provide maximum resources to support classroom and lending libraries (McGill-Franzen & Allington, 2004). Also, providing funds for resources that are in limited supply in urban schools and households, such as books, has not resolved the problems associated with the lack of resources. Hannaway stated that "More money alone does not appear to be the easy solution; there is no simple relationship between level of resources expended and student performance" (2005, p. 14). The implication is that societal influences, e.g., politics and community relate endeavors, prior to the entrance of formal schooling are likely relevant, but they are not in the control of educators and were not the focus of this literature review.

According to Neuman and Celano (2001a), economically disadvantaged children's access to print could negatively affect the frequency with which they interact with books and their familiarity with book language. Without access to print and the experience of watching others involved with literacy activities, children have less opportunity and motivation to imitate the actions associated with literacy like reading and writing (Neuman & Celano, 2001b).

Studies related to the life, health, and school experiences of economically disadvantaged children show that there are significant and persistent gaps. Neuman and Celano (2001a) noted that poor children were less likely to be read to than children of more affluent environments. In addition, the impoverished family is less likely to have enriched summer experiences and more likely to experience high mobility. Placing children in multiple school settings could negatively affect their education (Barton & Coley, 2009). Studies of school settings have shown that following well-designed,

evidence-based core reading curriculum can assist in raising and sustaining low-SES student achievement (Crowe et al., 2009). The ability to read proficiently is the heart of academic achievement. For children to be successful in the classroom, they must be able to read a variety of texts, both fiction and nonfiction, and gain meaning from that text. In the primary grades (K-2), children are “learning to read.” By the time these children reach the intermediate grades (3-5), they must transition to “reading to learn.” In order for this transition to take place, many factors must be present. One, in particular, is a positive attitude. Mathewson (2010) reviewed two theoretical models from 1976 and 1985 that sought to clarify the relationship between attitude and reading. Attitude has long been revered as a pivotal construct, but has been difficult to measure and has produced a variety of results. Mathewson’s (2010) Model of Attitude Influence enhanced prior research by adding two subsets to three already in existence. His model consisted of: (a) feelings about reading, (b) action readiness for reading, (c) evaluative beliefs about reading, (d) paths of influence, and (e) feedback. The addition of paths and feedback provided a much clearer picture of the individualistic nature of reading with the inclusion of influences such as the emotional state of the reader.

What motivates urban elementary students to read for both purposeful and pleasurable reasons? Teale and Gambrell (2007) documented practices in elementary classrooms that significantly contribute to higher literacy achievement. One of the instructional practices noted was the reading of high quality, age-appropriate, and appealing books from a variety of genres that interested students. Duke and Pearson

(2002) also noted the need for students to experience reading texts beyond those designed solely for instructional purposes; in other words, trade books.

Reading material is basic to all education, and providing a rich supply of reading matter to children of all ages, as well as a place and time to read, is the first step to bridging the gap between poor and good readers. (McQuillan, 1998, p. 86)

Non-Profit Programs Providing Increased Access to Books

Former International Reading Association President Patricia A. Edwards explicitly stated, “Children of poverty need more access to reading material” (2011, p. 16). Giving these children books to read would cost less than summer school and summer reading program interventions. Allowing the students to self-select what interests them does have benefits and may motivate them to do what it is that society begs of all young children--spend time reading (Kim & White, 2011). Due to the severity of the underlying issue of poverty in this country as it relates to urban education, there are numerous programs in place in the United States designed to benefit children and families living in need. Van Slyck (1995) noted in her research that individuals from poorer communities have to rely on public institutions whose egalitarian mission is to ensure books are free to all. Knowing that economically disadvantaged children need access to literacy resources, some organizations have sought to provide access to print. Reigner (2009) summarized programs performing the aforementioned tasks in both the United States and England. For the purpose of this research, only United States non-profit programs will be reviewed.

Reading is Fundamental

Reading is Fundamental (RIF) was created in 1966 by Margaret McNamara with the goal of distributing books free of charge in an effort to motivate children to read (Reigner, 2009). To date, RIF has provided approximately 380 million books to underserved children in the United States (Reading is Fundamental, 2011). Running Start was a program designed by RIF to support the literacy development and reading motivation of first graders by providing them with quality children's literature and increasing opportunities for reading at home and at school (Gambrell & Others, 1996).

Reach Out and Read (ROR)

Since 1989, some health care professionals have been involved in Reach Out and Read, a book sharing program, whereby children visiting a doctor for their check-ups receive free books and their parents are informed of the importance of reading aloud by the doctor or health-care provider. Through this program, children receive an average of 10 books during their infant and toddler years (Reigner, 2009).

Imagination Library: Dolly Parton Foundation

In 1996, Dolly Parton began the Imagination Library which provided a free book each month to children under age 5 living in her home county of Sevier, Tennessee. By 2001, this endeavor quickly spread across many states, Canada, and the United Kingdom; and at the time of this study, the program was in over 750 sites. In 2004, the *Governor's*

Books from Birth Foundation was established to help sustain the Imagination Libraries programs in counties in Tennessee (Reigner, 2009).

Ferst Foundation for Childhood Literacy

Inspired by Parton's foundation, Robin Ferst Howser created the Ferst Foundation for Childhood Literacy in the state of Georgia in 1999. Applications for the program are provided to parents regardless of family income at the hospital when the child is born. Once registered, the child receives a series of 60 books from birth to age five. Parents receive a 12-page guide upon registration, and books arrive in the mail every month for 60 months. Books in the series are of varied genres including fiction and nonfiction and are high-quality examples of children's literature written by notable authors (Reigner, 2009)

First Book

First Book is an organization that seeks to put books in the hands of low-income children (*First Book Story*, n.d.) and works to replace reading materials in locations hit by natural or man-made disasters. As an example, First Book provided books to those communities in Louisiana and Mississippi that were devastated by Hurricane Katrina.

In2Books

In2Books is an online pen pal program that focuses on raising students' literacy achievement through the use of quality literature and online pen pals (Teale & Gambrell, 2007). With In2Books, third through sixth-grade students are assigned to carefully

screened adult pen pals who serve as mentors. The student and mentor select and read five books each year. Students exchange six to 10 online letters with their adult eMentor, sharing opinions about the books. Teachers reinforce and extend the learning with in-class book discussions and related instruction in genre and literacy skills, aligning curriculum with the common core state standards (*In2Books*, n.d.).

Book Trust

In the 1990s, Book Trust founder, Adrienne Schatz, wondered why students in her class at Cache La Poudre Elementary School in Fort Collins, Colorado, were not purchasing books from the *Scholastic* Book Club catalogs each month just as she did. Eventually, she realized that it was not because they did not like books; it was simply that their families could not afford them. Her vision for Book Trust materialized from this experience. When Adrienne graduated from college, she returned to Fort Collins, committed to find a way for children in her community to experience the joy and opportunity to choose and own books from *Scholastic* the same way she had month after month, year after year. Beginning in 2001, Book Trust piloted the program with 100 students at several elementary schools under the auspices of the Serimus Foundation, a Schatz Family organization. In 2006, Book Trust became an independent 501(c)3 charitable organization (Kelly Robenhagen, personal communication, March 8, 2012)

Working in cooperation with *Scholastic*, the largest publisher of children's books in the United States, qualifying students were given \$7 per month to choose books to keep for their own use in the classroom and, then, at home. Through *Scholastic*, when

teachers place their orders online for their students self-selected books each month, they accrue *Scholastic* points that can be used to build their own classroom libraries or select teaching materials that may aid their practice.

“Book Trust imagines a world where literacy removes barriers and provides all children with the tools to navigate life successfully” (Friedman, 2011). The non-profit organization’s goal is to assist in fostering a love for reading and building personal libraries to positively impact reading achievement. Noted as a motivational factor, Book Trust allows students to have personal choice and control over their book selections (Williams et al., 2008). Book Trust is unique in that it gives children the opportunity to go ‘shopping’ for their own choice of books (Book Trust, 2000). According to Friedman (2011), Book Trust is unique in the unbounded choice of books it provides to children. Between 2008 and 2011, 5,700 children in nine Central Florida elementary schools had participated in Book Trust, and over 260,000 books had been selected and were owned by students participating in the program. As of 2011, over 40,000 children nationwide had been served by Book Trust.

As of 2010, \$2,100,000 had been donated and spent on books for low-income, Title I students participating in the Book Trust program, and 6,300,000 *Scholastic* bonus points had been accrued for additional classroom resources for classroom teachers participating in the Book Trust program (Friedman, 2011). Book Mark is the online order tracking system that has been used to provide the non-profit Book Trust program with bonus point data. Teachers log on to the Book Trust website at <http://bookmark.booktrust.org> and report their monthly orders. This helps to determine

and process the payments to *Scholastic* for each individual teacher's account. All Book Trust teachers have their own personal accounts on the Book Mark site. At the beginning of the school year, teachers log on, complete the necessary training, and upload their student rosters. Monthly orders with *Scholastic* are reported to Book Trust, and the non-profit organization can track and cover their pledged amount (\$7 a month) for each eligible student who purchases books through *Scholastic* catalogs or book fairs.

Although the primary function of Book Mark is monthly ordering for teachers, it also serves a variety of additional purposes. The website allows teachers, Book Trust managers and Book Trust staff to track budget and expenditures, both at the individual teacher and the school-wide level. Using Book Mark enables the generation of data regarding program usage, student counts, budget forecasts, and more. It also serves as a database for all Book Trust contacts within the schools served and allows for mass communication with those contacts via the Bulletin Board feature (Kelly Robenhagen, personal communication, March 10, 2012).

In addition to Book Mark, Donor Perfect Online (DPO) is the online database that contains historical data about donations that come in to the organization. It is a storehouse containing all of the contributors and their gifts throughout the years. All donors have their own account, complete with their contact information, a snapshot of their donation history, and a field to enter any new donations that they send. Using DPO, weekly reports are generated of new donations and are used to update QuickBooks and budget forecasts in Book Mark. That report is referred to when conducting the weekly donor "thank you" process, which includes a written letter of gratitude and often a phone

call from the Executive Director or a member of the Development team. Much like Book Mark, DPO can also be used to create large-scale reports. This includes donations by school district, monthly and annual income, and more (Kelly Robenhagen, personal communication, March 10, 2012). Book Trust administrators' analysis of this information indicated that Book Trust was having a positive effect on low-income students and their teachers. However, more research on the elements of the program that have been successful and what could be done to better implement the program to the maximum benefit of the students served needed. In addition to critical data analysis procedures of appropriate instruments that help to assess the motivation levels of young children like the Motivation to Read Profile (Gambrell, 1996), additional data were needed to support the claim that when "the child who can choose what to read, will read and delight in life-long learning" (Friedman, 2011). The present study was conducted to gather additional data relevant to the Book Trust program, students, and teachers participating in the program.

Summary

This review of the literature focused on the following topics: poverty, urban education, reading comprehension, reading achievement, reading assessment, reading motivation, and access to books. The effects of poverty on students in formal schooling have been well documented. These students, like the population in this study, lack fundamental resources which, in-turn, have been known to be the cause of academic deficits. Many effective instructional practices, frameworks, and resources have been

identified in the literature as aiding in educating students experiencing the effects of poverty. One solution related to the lack of school resources could be to supply books for low-income students (Krashen, 2011) and offer them autonomy of choice in book selection (Friedman, 2011; Williams, Hedrick & Tuschinski, 2008); which, in-turn, could have an impact on motivation to read and reading achievement. Book-rich classrooms develop reading interests and allow for exposure to various topics, genres, genres, and authors. This access to print material, specifically books self-selected by the reader increases the frequency in which these children interact with text. “The availability of print material also plays an important role in helping children learn to read,” (Lenski, Mack, & Brown, 2008, p. 64). Book Trust among other non-profit organizations mentioned offers the means to improve upon the issue of minimal resources, in particular, access to books. However, the specific impact is still in need of further research. Bean (2005) advocated that there is certainly a need for additional and higher quality research relative to the effectiveness of the different programs that are available to urban children so that we obtain a better understanding about the complexities that exist and the specific elements that matter. Gambrell (2011) concurred with this sentiment in noting that more research is still necessary in motivation to help better understand reading engagement and how students can be better supported in becoming passionate readers. Therefore the previously noted theories and research support the notion that motivation related to reading and reading achievement as measured by reading comprehension scores for children living in urban environments were worthy of further study. The following research questions were formulated to study the association that reading motivation and

reading achievement have with increased access to books provided by the non-profit program Book Trust.

Research Questions

- 1a. Will second grade students' in urban Title I schools participating in the Book Trust program have different Motivation to Read Profile: Reading Survey scores than students who are not participating in Book Trust after accounting for differences in schools?
- 1b. Will males and females differ in their Motivation to Read Profile: Reading Survey scores after accounting for differences in schools?
- 1c. Will gender moderate the relationship between Book Trust participation and motivation to read as measured by the Motivation to Read Profile: Reading Survey after accounting for differences in schools?
- 2a. Will second graders participating in the Book Trust program have higher FAIR Reading Comprehension scores than students not participating in Book Trust after accounting for differences in schools, teachers and gender of students?
- 2b. What factors in the way teachers are implementing the Book Trust Program are contributing to higher FAIR Reading Comprehension scores?

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter has been organized to present the methodology used to conduct this study regarding second graders access to books, motivation to read, and reading achievement. The process of selecting the participants is explained. The research questions, instrumentation, materials, procedures, and data analyses are also discussed.

Participants

In 2008, 15 elementary schools in a large Central Florida school district were selected by College of Education faculty at the University of Central Florida and Book Trust managers to participate in the Book Trust program. The Book Trust program provides each student in every participating second-grade classroom within each participating school with \$7 per month to order books from the *Scholastic* flyer for reading in the classroom and, ultimately, to be part of their personal home libraries. These schools met specific criteria demonstrating that these books could provide necessary reading materials to students who may not otherwise have had access to such educational resources inside and outside of school. The basic criteria for participating schools were: (a) the school was classified as Title I meaning there was a large population of free and reduced lunch participants (poverty marker), (b) the school served students in Kindergarten through Grade 5 and were considered elementary schools, (c) transience or mobility percentages at each school site were lower or the lowest among

Title I schools in this school district to aid the possibility of longitudinal research in these school sites.

The majority of the students attending these schools were African American. Additional racial populations included: Hispanic, Haitian Creole, Caucasian, Asian, and Native American. After being invited, nine schools agreed to participate in the Book Trust program. For the purpose of this research, these nine schools were identified as the Enrichment Group. Thus, the Enrichment Group contained nine Title I schools in the same Central Florida school district. In these nine schools, there were 48 second-grade classrooms with classroom rosters averaging approximately 14 students per class. Participation in the Book Trust program typically begins in September and ends in May of each school year so that students having placed their final book orders receive the last set of books prior to the onset of summer vacation. This means that each child generally receives \$7 per month for nine months, a total of \$63 per student for the school year. The only variance in this procedure is that some teachers may not place their first order until October and receive only \$56 per student for the school year as funds do not carry over from month to month.

In order to compare levels of motivation and achievement in these schools receiving increased access to books and to determine any possible correlation with FAIR test scores, five additional schools were selected using the identical criteria applied to the Enrichment group. In these five schools, there were 18 second-grade teachers with classroom rosters averaging approximately 14 students per class. The schools selected were in the same district, shared similar demographics, and were also Title I schools.

Students in these schools, which constituted the Control group, did not, receive increased access to books.

This research had two dependent variables: (a) motivation to read and (b) reading achievement. In order to succinctly answer the initial research questions related to motivation to read, the Motivation to Read Profile: Reading Survey was sent to all nine Enrichment school sites as well as three of the five selected Control group schools whose administration consented to have their schools, teachers, and students participate in the research. Two of the Control group schools did not respond to the invitation after multiple inquiries. In addition, two of the Enrichment schools did not have their second-grade students complete the online survey or had only one or two students complete the survey. In these cases, these data had to be dropped to successfully complete the statistical analyses using SPSS. This left a total of seven Enrichment and three Control group school sites participating in this portion of the research.

With the intent of answering the final two research questions related to reading achievement, and with the approval and assistance of the Central Florida school district's office of research, the researcher was provided with the FAIR test scores (Assessment Periods 1, 2, and 3) of students in the second-grade classrooms of the Enrichment and Control groups schools. Thus, 42 Enrichment group and 10 Control group teachers comprised a total of 52 teachers in 12 schools, and a total of 677 FAIR second-grade student test scores were reported.

Instrumentation

Motivation to Read Profile: Reading Survey

Gambrell's Motivation to Read Profile (MRP) was published in 1996. Rooted in classic motivation theory specifically expectancy-value theory (Eccles, 1983), the Motivation to Read Profile (MRP) is an instrument employed to measure characteristics of reading motivation in young children (Applegate & Applegate, 2010; Gambrell & Others, 1996; Marinak & Gambrell, 2010). In expectancy-value theory, motivation is influenced by the individual's expectations of success or failure at a given task and the relative attractiveness of the task itself to the individual (Marinak & Gambrell, 2010). The MRP is based on these two specific tenets: the extent in which an individual expects success or failure during a specific undertaking (self-concept/efficacy) and the overall appeal (value) that an individual assigns to a task (Applegate & Applegate, 2010; Eccles, 1983; Marinak & Gambrell, 2010). Measures of reliability and validity were employed with reliability coefficients establishing "moderately high reliability of the instrument" and validity was also established in comparison to academic performance in reading (Harp, p. 213). The Motivation to Read Profile: Reading Survey contains 20 questions with a four-point response scale (questions 4-23 in Appendices C & D). Ten questions are devoted to self-concept or efficacy as a reader, and the remaining 10 questions are used to assess the value of reading (Harp, 2006). The Motivation to Read Profile is an appropriate and reliable instrument to use when seeking to assess motivation as it relates to reading regarding self-efficacy and value in elementary age students (Gambrell &

Others, 1996). In this study, the MRP was completed by the second grade students via computer using LiveText Forms. Cronbach's alpha indicated the instrument had adequate reliability for self-efficacy, $\alpha = .75$ and for value, $\alpha = .82$ (Applegate & Applegate, 2010).

Florida Assessments for Instruction in Reading

The Florida Center for Reading Research designed the FAIR instrument for the Florida Department of Education to be used to assess early reading skills (Grades K-2) and reading skills (Grades 3-12). FAIR has also been used to determine general progress in the overall reading process during one particular school year. The test components vary by grade level and assessment periods (Carlson et al, 2010). For the purpose of this study, the researcher focused on the K-2 version of the instrument as it applied to the participants in this study. In the target school district, the FAIR is administered three times per year by the classroom teacher in grades K-2. All students complete a component of FAIR, the Broad Screen/Progress Monitoring (BS) measure. The results are used to calculate a student's Probability of Reading Success (PRS). In addition to the BS, FAIR K-2 also includes two additional inventories of tests: the Broad Diagnostic Inventory (BDI) and the Targeted Diagnostic Inventory (TDI). These inventories are used to compile specific information related to the instructional needs of students (Carlson et al., 2010). The researcher targeted the *Reading Comprehension* subset of data reported under the BDI for second graders. Students answer five comprehension questions, both implicit and explicit, after reading the assigned passage. Reading

comprehension, the most important aspect of the reading process that results in reading achievement, was utilized for all three assessment periods (AP1, AP2, AP3) using the test sub-score data of the Broad Diagnostic Inventory of the FAIR for students in the second grade in both the Enrichment and Control groups. The outcome variables were computed based on the target level reading passage weighted by the percentage of accuracy for the reading comprehension questions. End-of-the-year recommended reading goals for second graders were noted as the ability to (a) read the target passage (*Bombs Away*--2.5 or *The Great Sphinx of Giza*--2.6) with fluency at 90 words correct per minute, and accuracy at 95% or above, and (b) respond to most (4 or 5 of 5) reading comprehension questions correctly. The Progress Monitoring and Reporting Network (PMRN) allows teachers to enter this student data via computer, and this state-wide web-based program provides reports from the student level, school, and district levels (Florida Center for Reading Research, 2009). For the purpose of this research the PMRN was used to collect data at the school and teacher level for Grade 2 using the School Student Status Report. The report cites the student's probability of reading success score (PRS); reading comprehension scores including passage number, fluency in words correct per minute, percentage of accuracy, total correct for comprehension questions answered, listening comprehension, and overall percentile ranks for spelling and vocabulary (Carlson et al., 2010; Florida Center for Reading Research, 2009).

Materials

Data Collection Sheets

In an effort to gain insight into specific teacher factors that may impact the results received from the data, the researcher emailed each participating teacher in the research project an individual data collection sheet (Appendix A). For the Enrichment group, this data collection sheet asked the second grade teachers to provide the following information: date, school district, school name, teacher name, teacher age, highest degree held including major, number of years teaching, grade level, number of students, and current reading program being utilized in their school site. In addition, information regarding their Book Trust participation and implementation of the program was also requested. The Control group also completed a data collection sheet requesting the following information: date, school district, school name, teacher name, teacher age, highest degree held including major, number of years teaching, grade level, number of students, current reading program, a question asking if their students have received free books from any outside entity (Appendix B).

Procedures

This research was initiated only after having gained approval from the district's office of research and the Institutional Review Board of the University of Central Florida (Appendix E). To gain baseline data regarding the teachers in the school sites, teachers in both the Enrichment and Control groups were provided the appropriate data collection

sheets (Appendices A & B) via email prior to the request for completion of the online Motivation to Read Profile: Reading Survey by their second grade students. The data collection sheets were returned to the researcher via email as an attachment, reviewed, printed and organized in a three-ring binder which was kept in a locked cabinet per Institutional Review Board of the University of Central Florida requirements. Teachers participating in the Book Trust program were simply required to hand out the *Scholastic* flyer each month and have students select books that were no more than \$7. No other implementation requirements or guidelines were given beyond the encouragement to allow the students to self-select books of interest. Teachers self-reported on their data collection sheets the various ways that they implemented the program. Some approached this program just as they had been told, but others added different implementation procedures. After reviewing the data collection sheets and noting the variation of implementation, the researcher measured this as an independent variable to see if the degree of implementation was related to the outcome.

Students in the Enrichment group were provided with a modified version of the Motivation to Read Profile: Reading Survey (Gambrell, 1996) online via LiveText forms focusing specifically on second-grade classrooms. This modification simply added an additional five questions specific to the Book Trust program (Appendix C). The school administrator, reading coach and/or media specialist in each school, along with each individual second-grade classroom teacher, was provided specific instructions (Appendices C & D). Teachers were provided the option of completing the online survey via LiveText forms in one sitting using a computer lab on their school site or individually

at their own computer stations in their own classrooms. LiveText is similar to Survey Monkey yet provides for more secure submission. The forms function in LiveText allowed the researcher to generate a developmentally appropriate online version of the MRP that was disseminated to the teachers with a specific URL for easy access in their computer laboratories or classrooms.

In addition to the Enrichment group, the Control group of second grade classrooms in the same school district encompassing the same demography (urban location, mobility rate and free/reduced lunch rate) was also sent the Motivation to Read Profile: Reading Survey online via LiveText forms with the obvious omission of the additional five questions used to evaluate the impact of Book Trust. Providing the instrument to these schools of similar demographics enabled the researcher to compare the reading motivation scores of second-grade students in similar urban settings, some of whom received increased access to books (Enrichment group) while others did not (Control group).

Research Design

This research study used a nested non-equivalent control group design for each set of research questions. Because schools self-selected into the Enrichment condition, school-, teacher- and student-level covariates were included in the statistical models to reduce selection bias (Osborne, 2006). Hierarchical, linear mixed-effects analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were used to determine the differences in reading motivation and reading achievement between those who did and did not participate in the Book Trust

program. The first hierarchical model compared treatment groups on motivation to read and accounted for variations at the school level and in gender at the student level. The second hierarchical model compared groups on reading achievement and accounted for variations at the school, class, and student levels. In this model, the student level covariates included gender, AP1, and AP2 FAIR test scores; schools and teachers were included as random factors. Demographic data from the teacher data collection sheets were included in post hoc analyses to see how teacher-level covariates contributed to reading comprehension. The school-level covariates used in post hoc analyses included: school ranking, school grade points, and percentage of students reading on or above grade level.

CHAPTER 4 DATA ANALYSIS

Motivation to Read

The researcher sought to discover whether gender would moderate the relationship between Book Trust participation and motivation to read; if students participating in Book Trust would have higher motivation to read scores than students not participating in the program; and finally, if males' and females' motivation to read scores would differ after accounting for differences in schools. First, gender did not moderate the relationship between Book Trust participation and motivation to read after accounting for differences in schools, $F(1, 474) = 1.54, p = .22$. Therefore, males and females share the same relationship between Book Trust participation and their motivation to read. Regardless of program participation, females had higher motivation to read scores ($M = 3.34, SD = .54$) than males ($M = 3.22, SD = .55$), $F(1, 474) = 8.40, p < .01$. Although, there was no significant relationship between Book Trust participation and motivation to read after accounting for differences in schools, $F(1, 7) = 2.04, p = .20$; there was a notable difference between schools, $F(6, 474) = 10.23, p < .01$. Tukey's *b* post-hoc test indicated that Enrichment schools 1, 2, and 7 had higher motivation to read scores than Enrichment schools 3 and 5. Control schools 20 and 21 indicated lower motivation to read scores than Enrichment schools 1, 2, and 7 but not 3 and 5. However, there was no difference between Control group school 22 and any other school. See Figure 1.

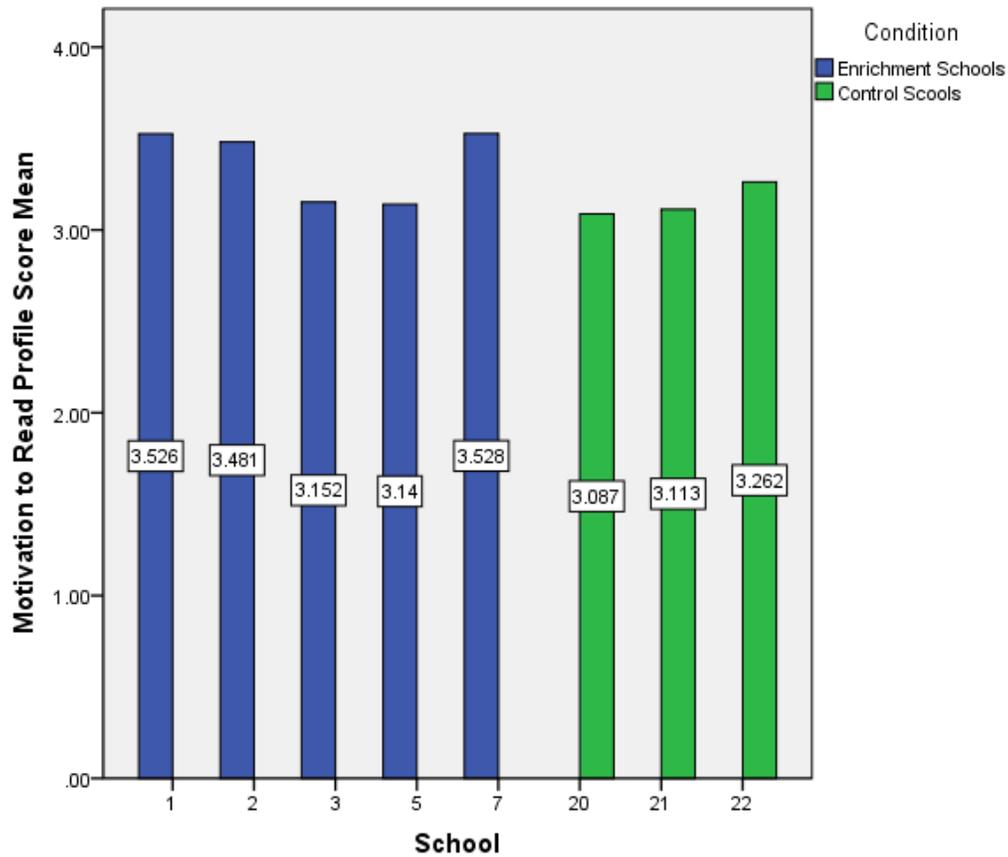


Figure 1. Book Trust Participation and Motivation to Read

As part of the post hoc analyses, the researcher ran a logistic regression to test the covariates and their relationship with the treatment conditions. Despite non-random assignment, the schools in each condition were balanced on all three covariates: school ranking, school grade points, and percentage of students reading on or above grade level, $\chi^2(3) = 5.79, p = .12$. Even after accounting for the school-level covariates, an ANCOVA suggested that there was no difference between the Enrichment and Control groups on motivation to read ($F(1,3) = 1.83, p = .27$).

Reading Achievement

The researcher sought to discover whether the second graders participating in the Book Trust program had higher FAIR Reading Comprehension scores than students not participating in Book Trust after accounting for differences in schools, teachers and gender and pretest scores of students. Assuming that the way teachers were implementing the Book Trust Program in the Enrichment schools would impact reading comprehension, the level of program implementation was assessed and compared to FAIR Reading Comprehension scores.

After accounting for AP1 and AP2 scores, gender, and schools in a mixed-effects ANCOVA, there was no difference in end of the year (AP3) FAIR reading scores between Enrichment and Control groups, $F(1, 12) = 0.63, p = .44$. However, there was a difference between schools, ($F(10,662) = 5.62, p < .01$).

After accounting for AP1 and AP2 scores, gender, and teachers, the difference in reading scores between schools was nullified, $F(11, 41) = 1.84, p = .08$. However, there was a difference between teachers, ($F(40,662) = 3.22, p < .01$). After accounting for AP1 and AP2 scores, gender, and teachers, there was still no difference in end-of-the-year (AP3) FAIR reading scores between Enrichment and Control groups, $F(1, 51) = .63, p = .43$. However, there was a difference between teachers, ($F(50,622) = 3.75, p < .01$). This series of analyses suggests that the individual teachers are having more of an impact on students' reading comprehension than either Book Trust or the schools that the children attend.

Given that the individual teachers may vary in how Book Trust is implemented, it was possible that the impact of the program depended on the level in which the treatment was delivered. Therefore, the final research question asked whether teachers' implementation of the Book Trust Program affected FAIR Reading Comprehension scores. To gauge teacher implementation of the Book Trust program, comments provided by Book Trust teachers on the data collection sheets were evaluated and sorted according to the following criteria: (a) low level of implementation--books were selected by price more than any other factor; little to no assistance was given; (b) moderate level of implementation--teacher provides some assistance and guidance in book selection; at times, students talk about book selections in small groups or with peers; (c) high level of implementation--teacher provides assistance and coordinates this program with other programs or teaching methods utilized in the classroom; extra effort on the teacher's part is evident. In an effort to achieve inter-rater agreement, the researcher requested that a fellow colleague in the UCF College of Education code teachers' comments using the aforementioned criteria. After the first evaluation, the researcher and colleague agreed on 17 out of 27 classifications of comments on level of implementation, $\kappa = .357$, which was considered poor agreement (Fleiss, Levin, & Paik, 2003).

Due to the lack of agreement, the researcher and colleague revised the coding criteria as follows and recoded the 10 comments that they did not agree upon previously. The new criteria used were: (a) low level implementation--students choose \$7 worth of books; (b) moderate level of implementation--students choose \$7 worth of books with

scaffolding (from teacher and/or parent); (c) high level of implementation--students choose \$7 worth of books with scaffolding and some direct connection to teaching/curriculum. After revising the criteria, the researcher and colleague achieved inter-rater agreement on all classification of comments with the exception of two, $\kappa = .867$, which was considered excellent agreement (Fleiss et al., 2003).

The following teacher comments depict in the teachers' own words, what the researcher considers low, moderate, and high levels of implementation for the Book Trust program:

(a) low level of implementation: "Flyers are passed out to the students. The students are able to choose books of their choice that equal up to \$7;"

(b) moderate level of implementation: "I send the flyers home with my students to view with their parents. After a week I let the students (with my approval) choose a book of their choice. The students having the ability to choose a book they like gives them more of a personal respect for books and more willing to read them. Students select books with their parents and myself as their guide;"

(c) high level of implementation: "I preview the *Scholastic* flyer to find books that are appropriate for the students levels in my classroom and suggest a handful for my students to choose from. I also choose Accelerated Reader books for them to read in the *Scholastic* flyer. They choose (to) books that interest them. They choose the books with help in order to make sure they are choosing an appropriate book for their current reading level. I also on occasion have to help add their total to find \$7 worth of books."

After determining the level of teacher implementation, a mixed-effects ANCOVA indicated that teacher implementation levels (1, 2, and 3) did not impact FAIR test scores after accounting for AP1 and AP2 scores and gender, $F(2, 26) = .49, p = .62$. There was a significant difference between teachers $F(24, 317) = 2.98, p < .01$, but it could not be attributed to how they implemented the Book Trust program.

Figure 2 identifies the overall teacher implementation findings in one dense bar graph. Figures 3, 4, 5, and 6 display a series of four bar graphs to clarify the variation of mean test scores among classrooms at each level of teacher implementation.

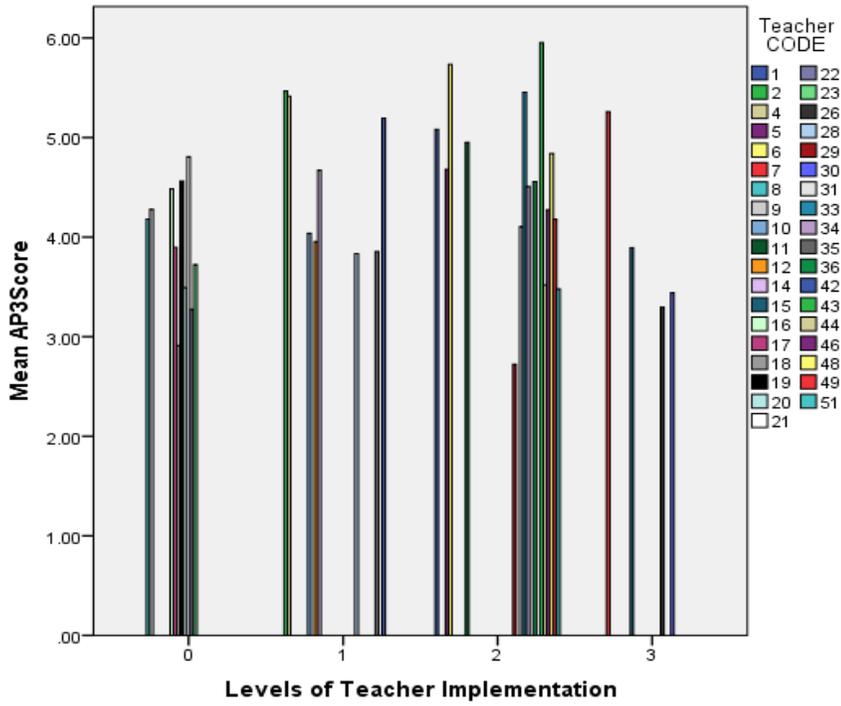


Figure 2. Book Trust Levels of Teacher Implementation and AP3 FAIR Comprehension Scores

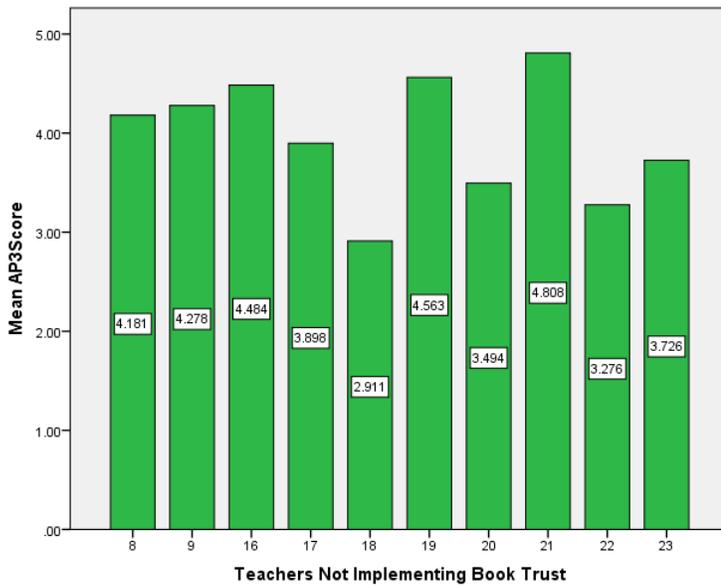


Figure 3. AP3 FAIR Comprehension Scores for Control Group Teachers

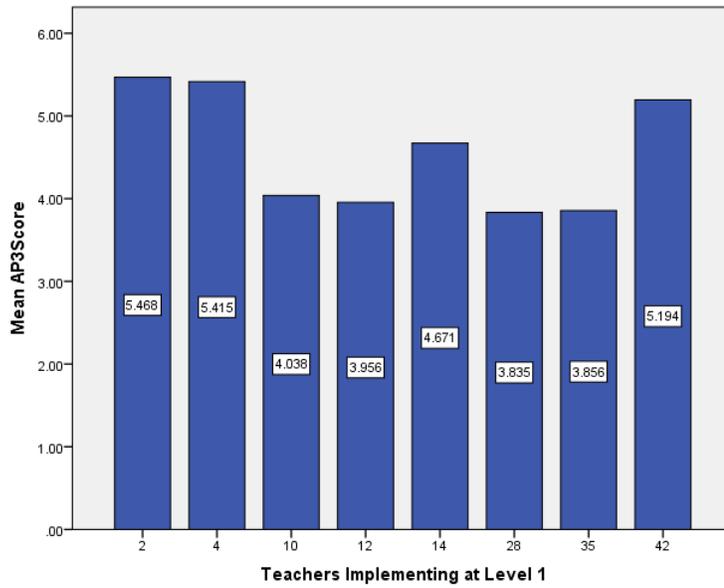


Figure 4. Book Trust Level 1 Teacher Implementation and AP3 FAIR Comprehension Scores

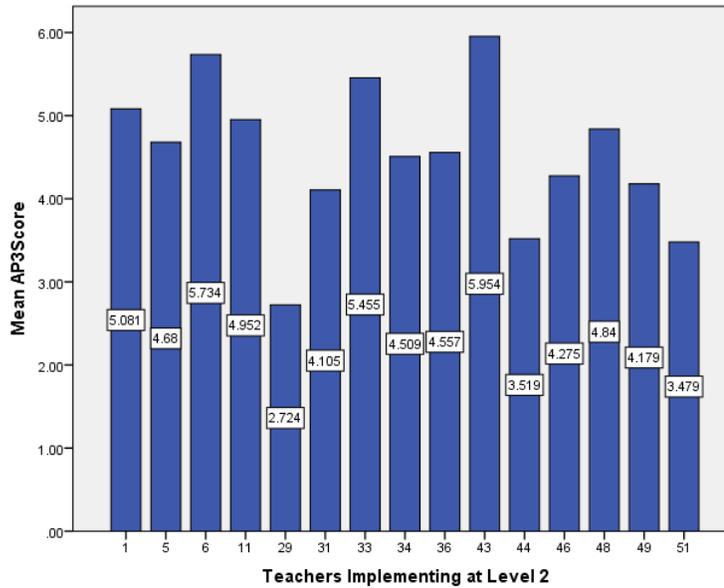


Figure 5. Book Trust Level 2 Teacher Implementation and AP3 FAIR Comprehension Scores

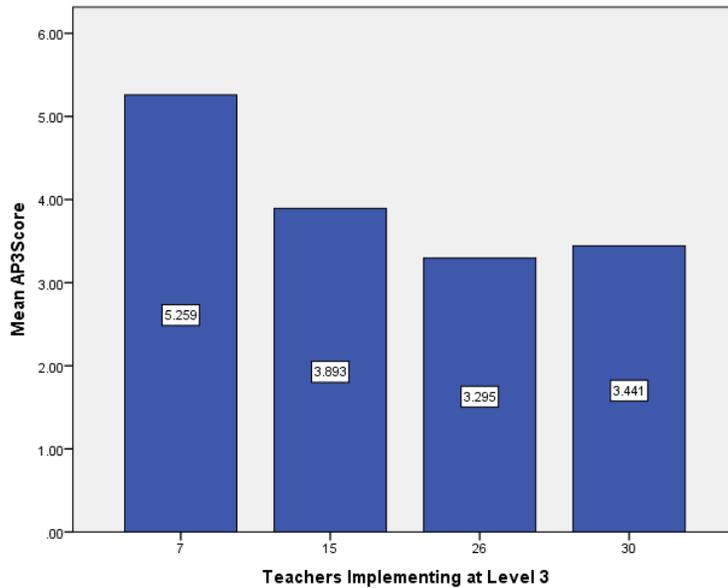


Figure 6. Book Trust Level 3 Teacher Implementation and AP3 FAIR Comprehension Scores

These findings caused the researcher to seek further clarification regarding the differences among teachers in both Control and Enrichment groups. In the descriptive data self-reported by the teachers, teachers provided data regarding their age, highest degree held and years of teaching. After accounting for these teacher level covariates, an ANCOVA suggested that there was still no difference between the Enrichment and Control groups for FAIR test scores ($F(1, 24) = 1.22, p = .28$).

CHAPTER 5 SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The intent of this research study was to seek valuable information regarding the impact of access to books on the motivation to read and reading achievement of urban second grade students in a large Central Florida school district. In this quasi-experimental study, a reading program Enrichment group was compared to a Control group. Students in the Enrichment schools were provided increased access to books via the *Scholastic* book flyer with funds given to each child participating in the Book Trust program. While teachers in the Control group indicated that books may be donated as sporadic gifts, students in the Control group had no consistent (monthly) increased access to print.

Summary of the Findings

In order to answer the first two research questions and gauge motivation to read in elementary age students, the Motivation to Read Profile: Reading Survey (Gambrell, 1996) was sent to (a) the nine Enrichment school sites, seven of which chose to participate; and (b) the five selected Control group schools, three of which had agreed to participate. Motivation to Read scores were compared between the groups at the student level. Unfortunately, there was no relationship between Book Trust participation and student motivation to read scores. However, females did have higher motivation to read scores than males.

For the second set of research questions, the researcher obtained FAIR test scores (Assessment Periods 1, 2, and 3) for 677 second graders in both the Enrichment and Control group schools. Similarly, gender did not moderate the relationship between Book Trust participation and motivation to read. Hence, males and females shared the same relationship between Book Trust and their motivation to read.

There was no difference in end-of-the-year reading comprehension scores between Enrichment and Control groups after accounting for schools and student-level covariates, though a notable difference between schools was indicated. Further analyses indicated there was no difference in end-of-the-year reading scores between schools after accounting for teachers and student-level covariates. Although there was a relationship between teachers and reading comprehension scores, this was not explained by how well the teachers implemented the Book Trust program. In this study, Book Trust had not impacted motivation to read or reading achievement in the Enrichment schools.

Limitations

Limitations to educational research due to the study of human subjects can be numerous. Educational research in urban environments focusing on children experiencing the effects of poverty compounds these limitations. The urban schools in this research study self-selected into study participation and research conditions. It is not clear as to why some of the administrators at these school sites chose not to participate in Book Trust or the research. However, a plausible explanation is that they did not want to be bothered with another program to implement. Having been a classroom teacher, the

researcher was aware of the many demands placed on teachers to implement mandated curriculum along with other programs that may be of benefit to their students. Implementation of any program requires additional work in some form or other, and essentially the administration may have wanted to shield their faculty from what they might have considered to be more work for not only them but their students as well.

The 15 eligible schools in this study were pre-selected prior to this researcher's involvement. The schools were eligible for an invitation into the Book Trust program if they met the aforementioned criteria, specifically low-socioeconomic status and were located in the same Central Florida school district. Within these confines, the researcher attempted to obtain the largest possible sample size for the Control group but ultimately, the number of participating schools and teachers was less than that of the Enrichment group. This quasi-experimental design weakened the researcher's ability to make causal inferences based on the data. With nested analysis, the nested model used or combined all of the MRP data into seven school groups. In addition, though it would have provided for better analysis of the data, the researcher was unable to attain individual parental consent for student completion of the MRP. Because of this fact, MRP scores were analyzed at the student level but had to be averaged at the school level once differences were identified between schools.

The Motivation to Read Profile has noted disadvantages inherent in its design as a self-report instrument. As with any self-report instrument, the researcher was aware that there was the possibility that students would answer questions in a manner that reflect what they think they should say rather than their true beliefs (Harp, 1996). The second

part of the MRP, the one-on-one interview, would have provided for more specific data related to motivation but it too would have the same validity issues. Multiple forms of assessment over time would better gauge motivation to read.

Finally in the Enrichment schools, fidelity of implementation was also cause for concern. Although teachers self-reported their implementation, not having witnessed teachers implementing the program due to work-related conflicts restricted the researcher's ability to identify specific reasons why certain teachers were or were not effective in implementing the program to positively impact student reading motivation and achievement.

Discussion

Although this study did not provide data in support of Book Trust having a positive impact on reading motivation or reading achievement, the results are useful nonetheless. Funds provided for the provision of books to low income, impoverished children are necessary; however, the provision of books alone is not enough. The findings of this study supported Allington and McGill-Franzen's (2003) previous findings. These researchers found that although the idea of a direct causal relationship between putting books in the hands of impoverished children and an increase in academic achievement was one of great appeal, providing the resources alone was not likely to accomplish this. Hannaway (2005) concurred that the provision of money to increase resources was not indicative of increased student performance. Knowing that providing books to at-risk elementary learners is insufficient, the evidence suggests that there must

be other factors impacting student reading motivation and reading achievement. In an attempt to account for the many factors that may have affected the findings in this research, data from multiple sources were included in the statistical model. However, there were numerous variables that were not investigated such as teaching practice, disposition of the educator, and individual personality factors of students (Mathewson, 2010) which, among others, made for significant limitations in this study. Teacher participants self-reported descriptive data about themselves and their implementation of the Book Trust program. Direct observation of teachers implementing their mandated literacy program along with the Book Trust program in the classroom setting by the researcher would have provided valuable insight into these variables. Observing their teaching style, the instructional methods they employed, and how the students responded to their instruction could have provided valuable information as to why Book Trust did not significantly impact students' motivation to read or reading achievement. In reality, the researcher is not even sure if the students read the books they received from Book Trust. Observing them reading these books and being able to ask questions about how receiving these books makes them feel as a young learner could provide necessary information to account for the lack of impact of the Book Trust program.

As previously mentioned, student participants in this research self-reported their motivation to read. The researcher assumed that teachers followed the instruction sheets (Appendices C & D) provided to aid in the effective completion of the instrument via LiveText forms but could not be entirely sure. Having not been present during any of these assessment periods, it is unknown as to whether or not the teachers' facilitated the

process as recommended. It is also not known if the students provided accurate information that reflected their true motivation to read. Completing the one-on-one interview that is the second part of the MRP could have provided even more explanations as to why Book Trust did not have an impact.

Utilizing FAIR comprehension test scores for the purpose of this research aligned with the results of prior studies that alluded to the fact that giving books to at-risk learners was a low level solution to an intense problem. Though these test scores for the second graders in the Enrichment and Control groups were provided by the district's office of research in an effective manner, the FAIR test itself has been scrutinized for its ability to gauge student achievement (Carlson et al., 2010). In this study, FAIR text scores did not increase in the Enrichment schools being provided with books via the Book Trust program when compared to the other schools that did not receive increased access to print materials. However, it is obvious in the findings that some schools had higher test scores than others. Building on prior research and the knowledge that the teacher can be the most important factor in the classroom setting, having the researcher directly observe instructional practice, view the ways in which these teachers utilize instructional methods and discover what other programs may be contributing to these successes would have been helpful. Multiple sources of assessment data would have been the desire of the researcher and being limited to just one source of reading achievement data may have affected the outcome of the study.

Implications and Recommendations for Practice

This research did not support effects for the Book Trust program as it related to motivation to read and reading achievement. However the researcher sought to provide additional resources and ideas for implementation that could have a positive impact on the program and serve as the impetus for further research. A plausible explanation for the lack of impact of the program could be the various ways teachers implemented Book Trust in their individual classrooms, and this has been noted as a limitation in this study. Prior studies have supported the fact that teachers are one of the most important factors in aiding the in-school success of children living in poverty. However, they must have an extensive knowledge base to make expert, data-based decisions to successfully teach their students (Briggs et al., 2010; Fisher & Frey, 2007). For Book Trust to be implemented at the highest level, it is recommended that the forthcoming literacy frameworks along with the following resources and strategies be shared with Book Trust teachers and managers. This could be accomplished via the Book Trust website, Teacher Resource page, and could provide teachers with ideas as to how to best implement the program to positively impact student reading motivation and achievement.

Prior to the first *Scholastic* order, teachers should be encouraged to complete a reading interest inventory with their students. Kelley and Claussen-Grace (2009) suggested this practice to aid students in pinpointing subjects that are likely to engage them in the reading process. *Flexible Grouping in Reading* (Opitz, 1998) and *Assessment for Reading Instruction* (McKenna & Stahl, 2008) are teacher resources that contain interest inventories appropriate for elementary age students. Completing, collecting and

posting the students' interests could assist children throughout the year in their book selections.

On a monthly basis, teachers should take the time to preview the *Scholastic* flyer in class for best implementation of the Book Trust program. Using a projection device such as an overhead or LCD projector, a teacher could highlight books by quality authors, mention books previously read aloud, discuss books excluded from purchase, and mention various genres of interest to the children. Students, with the assistance of the teachers, should choose books that are of interest to them while also being at their appropriate reading level.

Knowing that self-selection of books that are of interest to the individual child is of primary importance to Book Trust stakeholders, *Bookmatch: How to Scaffold Student Book Selection for Independent Reading* (Wedwick & Wutz, 2008) would be an excellent resource to share with a schools' reading coach as an additional resource to the school's professional library. This book has specific recommendations for how to teach young children to choose books effectively and independently. Another valuable teacher resource that could be recommended to enhance Book Trust implementation in the classroom is *The Daily Five: Fostering Literacy Independence in the Elementary Grades* (Boushey & Moser, 2006). This resource highlights five elements of a quality reading workshop, one of which is independent reading and how to find "good fit" books for independent reading.

Once the books have been received, teachers should be encouraged (a) to ensure that children keep the books in the classroom long enough to guarantee that students have

ample opportunity to read their new book(s) and (b) note this reading on a reading log for accountability purposes. Books could be read independently, in partners (many students choose the same books and enjoy reading them in small groups), as read alouds or parts of author studies that may be of particular interest to children.

Read alouds offer many benefits for students: They help students enjoy reading, build content area knowledge, expose students to a variety of genres, develop interests for independent reading, aid in assessing student listening comprehension, model use of reading strategies, allow for growth as listeners and thinkers, increase interest and attention span, and improve observational and listening skills. They also promote discussion, develop higher-level thinking skills, model effective reading behaviors and respect for reading and response, share a love of books, help students connect with books, provide models of writing and create a community of learners (Allen, 2000). Knowing that literacy is an inherently social process and providing students with time to talk about their books may provide the extra boost of motivation that children truly need (Hilden & Jones, 2012).

The instructional practice of teachers in classrooms is critical to student success. Palmer, Codling, and Gambrell (1994) noted multiple factors related to elementary classrooms that supported engagement and motivation for reading and were aligned with the vision for Book Trust: book-rich classroom libraries, receiving books as gifts, choice in book selection, and talking about books with others. When student self-selection of gifted books is encouraged, the choice for reading material should be supported, yet scaffolded by knowledgeable classroom teachers. The Book Trust organization tracks the

usage rates for all schools, i.e., percentage of allotted funds used, in the nine states where the program has been implemented. In this particular Central Florida school district, the usage percentages varied from only 41 % of the budgeted funds being spent in 2011-2012 to 106% for that school year. If the funds are not being utilized to the maximum, the allocation of book dollars for students decreases. Hence, the access to books has been limited. Teachers should be encouraged to utilize all of the budgeted funds and incorporate these books into their classroom instruction.

Educators know that, “Teaching is much more than physical resources and no progress can be made without qualified and sensitive teachers” (McQuillan, 1998, p. 86). The teacher has been noted in many previous studies as one of the most important factors in the in-school success of children living in poverty (Briggs, et al., 2010; Fisher & Frey, 2007). It is the knowledgeable teacher who must understand the urban student and employ best practice teaching methods to meet the needs of their diverse student population to potentially lead to improved success in literacy related activities (Bean, 2005; Briggs et al., 2010; Scott et al., 2009).

Multiple literacy frameworks exist that encompass research-based principles and can positively impact reading comprehension and, inevitably, reading achievement. The literacy framework devised by Fisher and Frey (2007) along with the ACCESS framework (Parsons et al., 2011) have been shown to aid achievement in urban populations. In addition to these frameworks, Concept Oriented Reading Instruction (Guthrie, 2011) offers suggestions as to how to motivate and enhance reading comprehension simultaneously through robust literacy lessons.

Another notable model for teaching reading comprehension is Reciprocal Teaching (Brown & Palincsar, 1984, 1989). A meta-analytic review of 16 studies by Rosenshine & Meister (1994) showed that reciprocal teaching had a consistent, large, and positive effect on comprehension outcomes. Key elements of this approach to teaching reading comprehension include: (a) the use of printed texts, which are often narratives; (b) the reading of a common text; teacher modeling of comprehension strategies, specifically predicting, questioning, clarifying, and summarizing; (c) the teaching of a small group of students, often struggling readers, including collaboration and discussion; and finally, (d) a gradual release of responsibility wherein students take on the modeling of comprehension strategies that the teacher has previously taught and modeled. After continued practice, modeling and repetition, students begin to develop these metacognitive strategies to better comprehend what they read (Leu et al., 2008; Palincsar & Brown, 1984). Using Book Trust books in conjunction with the mandated curriculum and aforementioned instructional practices, teachers could employ these methods with books self-selected by students that are of interest to them personally.

Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the findings of the study, and having noted its limitations, the following recommendations are made for future research. These recommendations may assist future researchers in improving the study of this important topic and lead to findings that may further impact motivation to read and student achievement.

This study showed that students participating in this research were not impacted by the Book Trust program in regard to their motivation to read scores or reading achievement scores. Due to the researcher's inability to attain parental consent for individual students completing the Motivation to Read Profile: Reading Survey, students' scores were analyzed at the student level and then at the school level once differences were noted between schools. Parental consent for the MRP would have allowed the researcher to examine the relationship between motivation to read and reading comprehension as measured by the FAIR assessment.

Additionally, the Motivation to Read Profile, in its entirety, consists of two parts: a reading survey and student interview. In this study, only the survey was administered. In a future study, one-on-one interviews could be conducted with student participants to legitimize their self-reported motivation to read on the reading survey portion of the profile. This could yield additional information as to why, for example, females scored higher in regard to their self-reported motivation to read than males. According to the Education Alliance (2007), there is a crisis related to the literacy achievements of male youth in the United States. Researchers have expressed concern that many young boys have demonstrated low motivation for reading, and their attitudes toward and values of reading has not been as strong as that of their female counterparts (Durik et al., 2006; Marinak & Gambrell, 2010). The researcher concurs with Marinak & Gambrell (2010) in that more research is needed to identify instructional practice that could be highly motivating to all students specifically the male population.

Instructional practice, most specifically the use of research-based best practice teaching methods could also be studied in further detail. In this study, teachers self-reported as to the reading program utilized in their schools and classrooms and also indicated how they implemented the Book Trust program. In an effort to further validate the teachers' self-reported implementation and glean insight into the instructional methods used in classrooms through increased access to books, observations could take place with a checklist of look-fors that indicate the use of best-practice teaching methods that have been found to have a positive effect on student motivation and achievement.

A final suggestion for future research centers around the fact that motivation to read tends to decline as students progress through formal schooling (Gambrell, 1996). As children enter the intermediate grades of elementary school, motivation to read declines to where it is almost non-existent in adolescence (Kelley & Decker, 2009). Providing books to older elementary students who are experiencing such a decline in overall motivation to read, via a non-profit program like Book Trust, could prove to be a fruitful study with results that may more clearly delineate the extent to which the provision of books positively impacts motivation to read. Using the Motivation to Read Profile in its entirety or another measure of reading motivation more appropriate for older students may be useful in further explaining how providing books to students can positively impact motivation to read and, in turn, reading achievement.

APPENDIX A
BOOK TRUST TEACHER INFORMATION DATA COLLECTION SHEET

***2011-12 Book Trust Teacher Information
Data Collection Sheet***

Instructions: Please type on the right side (green) of this form. As needed, the boxes will expand to allow for your information regarding Book Trust. Thank you!

Today's Date:	
School District/State:	Orange County Public Schools, FL
School Name:	
Teacher Name:	
Teacher Age:	
Highest Degree Held (Major):	
Years Teaching:	
Grade Level:	
Number of Students:	
Reading Program(s) used:	
Years Using Book Trust Program:	
Book Trust Implementation: Describe <u>your</u> process for implementing Book Trust in your classroom. For example, how do you hand out Scholastic fliers? Any information as to how you individually use this program in your classroom is welcome.	Note implementation here:
How many minutes (on average) do you spend on Book Trust per month? (For example: handing out fliers, ordering books, passing out books once received, using books...)	
Where do your students select books from the Scholastic flier?	Such as in school or at home?
How do your students select books from the Scholastic flier?	With help? If so, from who?
	Thank you for your response!

APPENDIX B
MOTIVATION TO READ RESEARCH PROJECT
TEACHER INFORMATION DATA COLLECTION SHEET

***2011-12 Motivation to Read Research Project
Teacher Information Data Collection Sheet***

Instructions: Please type on the right side (green) of this form. As needed, the boxes will expand to allow for your information. Thank you!

Today's Date:	
School District/State:	Orange County Public Schools, FL
School Name:	
Teacher Name:	
Teacher Age:	
Highest Degree Held (Major):	
Years Teaching:	
Grade Level:	
Number of Students:	
Reading Program(s) used:	
Have your students received free books from any outside entity this school year? If so, explain the source and how many books they have received.	
	Thank you for your response!

APPENDIX C
ENRICHMENT GROUP MOTIVATION TO READ PROFILE: READING SURVEY
ONLINE INSTRUCTIONS

Book Trust and UCF Motivation to Read Profile Online Survey Instructions

Please see the instructions below in regards to completing the online survey (link will be sent via email) with your second graders prior to the end of this school year! Thank you again for your involvement in Book Trust and the research being conducted! LTS

The following instructions come from Linda Gambrell's Motivation to Read Profile (with minor modifications):

Teacher Directions:

Your form is available at <http://c1.livetext.com/misk5/formz/public/59374/5QVe8HCfQg>

1. **Suggestion:** Ask a technology facilitator or Book Trust contact to help you get each computer onto the above website. Schedule and gather your students in your computer lab for a half hour time block.
2. **Say to the students:**

I am going to read some sentences to you. I want to know how you feel about your reading. The first time I read the sentence and responses, I want you to think about the best answer for you. The second time I read the sentence I want you to click on the button next to your best answer. Mark only one answer. OK, let's begin!

** Below is a copy of the entire survey. You may print this for your use or look over the shoulder of a child in the computer lab to read aloud the questions and responses.*

1. I attend:

*Per IRB requirements, the names of these schools have been omitted.

2. I am in:

- First Grade
- Second Grade

3. I am a:

- girl
- boy

4. My friends think I am:

- a very good reader.
- a good reader.
- an ok reader.
- a poor reader

5. Reading a book is something I like to do:

- never

- not very often
 - sometimes
 - often
6. I read:
- not as well as my friends.
 - about the same as my friends.
 - a little better than my friends.
 - a lot better than my friends.
7. My best friends think reading is:
- cool.
 - fun.
 - ok to do.
 - not any fun.
8. When I come to a word I do not know, I:
- almost always figure it out.
 - sometimes figure it out.
 - almost never figure it out.
 - never figure it out.
9. I share good books I've read with friends.
- I never do this.
 - I almost never do this.
 - I do this some of the time.
 - I do this a lot.
10. When I am reading by myself, I understand:
- almost everything I read.
 - some of what I have read.
 - almost none of what I have read.
 - none of what I have read.
11. People who read a lot are:
- very interesting.
 - interesting.
 - not very interesting.
 - boring.
12. I am:

- a poor reader.
 - an ok reader.
 - a good reader.
 - a very good reader.
13. I think libraries are:
- a great place to spend time.
 - an interesting place to spend time.
 - an ok place to spend time.
 - a boring place to spend time.
14. I worry about what other kids think about my reading:
- every day.
 - almost every day.
 - once in a while.
 - never.
15. Knowing how to read well is:
- not very important to me.
 - sort of important to me.
 - important.
 - very important.
16. When my teacher asks me a question about something I have read, I:
- cannot think of an answer.
 - have trouble thinking of an answer.
 - sometimes think of an answer.
 - always think of an answer.
17. I think reading is:
- a boring way to spend time.
 - an ok way to spend time.
 - an interesting way to spend time.
 - a cool way to spend time.
19. When I grow up I will spend:
- none of my time reading.
 - very little of my time reading.
 - some of my time reading.
 - a lot of my time reading.
20. When I am in a group talking about books or text, I:

- almost never talk about my ideas.
 - sometimes talk about my ideas.
 - almost always talk about my ideas.
 - always talk about my ideas.
21. I would like for my teacher to read books out loud to my class:
- every day.
 - almost every day.
 - once in a while.
 - never.
22. When I read out loud I am:
- a poor reader.
 - an ok reader.
 - a good reader.
 - a very good reader.
23. When I receive a book as a gift I feel:
- very happy.
 - sort of happy.
 - not great.
 - unhappy.

Questions 4-23 Citation: Gambrell, L. B., & Others, A. (1996). Assessing motivation to read. *Reading Teacher*, 49(7), 518-33.
Retrieved from
<http://ezproxy.lib.ucf.edu/login?URL=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ525796&site=ehost-live>

24. I now own _____ books from Book Trust.
- less than five
 - five to ten
 - ten to fifteen
 - more than fifteen
25. I read my Book Trust books:
- in class.
 - at home.
 - in school and at home.
 - none of the above
26. My Book Trust books are:
- never read.
 - read by myself.

- read to my teacher.
 - read to my friends and family.
27. I read my books received through Book Trust:
- every day.
 - almost every day.
 - once in a while.
 - never.
28. My Book Trust books are _____ to me.
- not very special
 - kind of special
 - special
 - very special

SAY: Please click the **SUBMIT** button one time.

APPENDIX D
CONTROL GROUP MOTIVATION TO READ SURVEY
TEACHER INSTRUCTION SHEET

UCF MOTIVATION TO READ PROFILE ONLINE READING SURVEY--TEACHER INSTRUCTIONS

Please see the instructions below in regards to completing the online survey (link sent via email) with your second graders prior to the end of this school year! Thank you again for your involvement in the research being conducted! LTS

The following instructions come from Linda Gambrell's Motivation to Read Profile (with minor modifications):

Teacher Directions:

Your form is available at <http://c1.livetext.com/misk5/formz/public/59375/5RGeBfGdXr>

1. **Suggestion:** Ask a technology facilitator or Reading Coach to help you get each computer onto the above website. Schedule and gather your students in your computer lab for a half hour time block.

2. **Say to the students:**

I am going to read some sentences to you. I want to know how you feel about your reading. The first time I read the sentence and responses, I want you to think about the best answer for you. The second time I read the sentence I want you to click on the button next to your best answer. Mark only one answer. OK, let's begin!

** Below is a copy of the entire survey. You may print this for your use or look over the shoulder of a child in the computer lab to read aloud the questions and responses.*

1. I attend:

*Per IRB requirements, the names of the schools have been omitted.

2. I am in:

- First Grade
- Second Grade

3. I am a:

- girl
- boy

4. My friends think I am:

- a very good reader.
- a good reader.
- an ok reader.

- a poor reader
- 5. Reading a book is something I like to do:
 - never
 - not very often
 - sometimes
 - often
- 6. I read:
 - not as well as my friends.
 - about the same as my friends.
 - a little better than my friends.
 - a lot better than my friends.
- 7. My best friends think reading is:
 - cool.
 - fun.
 - ok to do.
 - not any fun.
- 8. When I come to a word I do not know, I:
 - almost always figure it out.
 - sometimes figure it out.
 - almost never figure it out.
 - never figure it out.
- 9. I share good books I've read with friends.
 - I never do this.
 - I almost never do this.
 - I do this some of the time.
 - I do this a lot.
- 10. When I am reading by myself, I understand:
 - almost everything I read.
 - some of what I have read.
 - almost none of what I have read.
 - none of what I have read.
- 11. People who read a lot are:
 - very interesting.
 - interesting.
 - not very interesting.

- boring.
12. I am:
- a poor reader.
 - an ok reader.
 - a good reader.
 - a very good reader.
13. I think libraries are:
- a great place to spend time.
 - an interesting place to spend time.
 - an ok place to spend time.
 - a boring place to spend time.
14. I worry about what other kids think about my reading:
- every day.
 - almost every day.
 - once in a while.
 - never.
15. Knowing how to read well is:
- not very important to me.
 - sort of important to me.
 - important.
 - very important.
16. When my teacher asks me a question about something I have read, I:
- cannot think of an answer.
 - have trouble thinking of an answer.
 - sometimes think of an answer.
 - always think of an answer.
17. I think reading is:
- a boring way to spend time.
 - an ok way to spend time.
 - an interesting way to spend time.
 - a cool way to spend time.
18. Reading is:
- very easy for me.
 - kind of easy for me.
 - kind of hard for me.

- very hard for me.
- 19. When I grow up I will spend:
 - none of my time reading.
 - very little of my time reading.
 - some of my time reading.
 - a lot of my time reading.
- 20. When I am in a group talking about books or text, I:
 - almost never talk about my ideas.
 - sometimes talk about my ideas.
 - almost always talk about my ideas.
 - always talk about my ideas.
- 21. I would like for my teacher to read books out loud to my class:
 - every day.
 - almost every day.
 - once in a while.
 - never.
- 22. When I read out loud I am:
 - a poor reader.
 - an ok reader.
 - a good reader.
 - a very good reader.
- 23. When I receive a book as a gift I feel:
 - very happy.
 - sort of happy.
 - not great.
 - unhappy.

Note. Citation for Questions 4-23 Gambrell, L. B., & Others, A. (1996). Assessing motivation to read. Reading Teacher, 49(7), 518-533. Retrieved from <http://ezproxy.lib.ucf.edu/login?URL=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ525796&site=ehost-live>

SAY: Please click the **SUBMIT** button one time.
Thank you!

APPENDIX E
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL



University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board
Office of Research & Commercialization
12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501
Orlando, Florida 32826-3246
Telephone: 407-823-2901 or 407-882-2276
www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html

Approval of Exempt Human Research

From: UCF Institutional Review Board #1
FWA00000351, IRB00001138

To: Lee-Anne Trimble Spalding

Date: May 31, 2011

Dear Researcher:

On 5/31/2011, the IRB approved the following activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

Type of Review: UCF Initial Review Submission Form
Project Title: The Impact of Access to Books on the Reading Motivation of
Urban Elementary Students
Investigator: Lee-Anne Trimble Spalding
IRB Number: SBE-11-07675
Funding Agency: Book Trust(BT)
Grant Title: RF- Book Trust Research Project
Research ID: N/A

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in iRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

****This research should not commence until you receive Orange County School District Approval. Please submit a copy of the approval to the UCF IRB when it becomes available.**

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the Investigator Manual.

On behalf of Kendra Dimond Campbell, MA, JD, UCF IRB Interim Chair, this letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Janice Turchin on 05/31/2011 03:47:48 PM EDT

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads 'Janice Turchin'.

IRB Coordinator

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