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A Multiple-Case Study on How Fifth Grade Students Experience Reading

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Dissertation

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Reading allows children to gather, interpret, and synthesize information (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). They also share ideas with others, ask questions, and wonder about interesting topics. Though many children have excellent reading abilities, those who do not are left behind academically (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). From the time they enter kindergarten through their first years of elementary school, children substantially define themselves as learners (Slavin, n.d.). Those who end third grade reading well are not guaranteed success in school and in life, but they have cleared a major hurdle (Slavin, n.d.). Those who do not succeed during this critical period, however, are likely to have serious problems throughout their subsequent school careers. For example, Juel (1988) found that almost all seven year olds who had reading difficulties also had reading difficulties as ten year olds (Slavin, n.d.). Lloyd (1978) reported that high school drop-outs could be predicted to a substantial degree based on the learning levels of nine year olds, supporting the idea that early school learning success (or failure) is a key factor in long-term outcomes of schooling. Learning to read is one of the most important skills a child will master during their years in K-12 education (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998).

It is suggested that reading offers hours of enjoyment and decreases the possibility of depression, unemployment, and low self-esteem (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). Research that investigates new instructional practices will be required to consider the possible motivational influences in addition to student mastery of comprehension targets (Malloy, Marinak, & Gambrell, 2010).

Background on Reading

The history of reading is explained by examining the strategy people used to teach children to read in the 1700s and 1800s. *The Blue Backed Speller* by Noah Webster sold over a hundred million copies from 1783 to 1890 (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). This book focused on the correspondence between the various English letters and the sounds that they were supposed to make (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). Children were also taught digraphs that are blends; for example, the letters “ea” make the long “e” sound in meat (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). Phonics rules only were used 40% of the time, and the other 60% of the time they are the exception (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). In addition, at least 80 percent of all poor readers were estimated to demonstrate a weakness in phonological awareness and/or phonological memory (Cassar, Treiman, Moats, Pollo, & Kessler, 2005). Readers with phonological processing weaknesses also tended to be the poorest spellers (Cassar et al., 2005). Even with the improvement of curriculum, class size, and the number of reading teachers in schools, the illiteracy rate was still around 33% in 1970 (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998).

In the United States, the advent of whole language is often traced to the mid-to-late 1970s, when Kenneth Goodman and others' insights into reading as a psycholinguistic process gained increasing recognition, Yetta Goodman's interest in the development of literacy merged with related lines of research, and Dorothy Watson started a teacher support group called Teachers Applying Whole Language (TAWL). Of course, whole language had deeper roots which were also intellectually and geographically broader (K. Goodman, 1992; Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991; Y. Goodman, 1989; K. Goodman, 1989; Watson, 1989; K. Goodman & Y. Goodman, 1979).

The 1980's saw the development and implementation of the "whole language" reading approach (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). This included using books that had a large format but displayed the same story as other basal readers (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). This approach also used inventive spelling that allowed a close spelling of the word to be an acceptable answer. Teachers became the leaders of the whole language movement and wanted students to be immersed in reading (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). Children in whole language classrooms typically performed as well or better on standardized reading tests and subtests (though the differences are seldom statistically significant). For example, the whole language kindergartners in Ribowsky's study (1985) scored better on all measures of growth and achievement, including the tests of letter recognition and letter/sound knowledge. In the Kasten and Clarke study (1989), the whole language kindergartners performed significantly better than their counterparts on all subtests of the Metropolitan Readiness Test, including tests of beginning consonant sounds, letter/sound correspondences, and sounds and clusters of sounds in initial and final positions of words.

The most important skills students must have for reading are phonemic awareness (the ability to separate and blend sounds in words), alphabetic code knowledge (knowing the correspondence between the sounds and the symbols), an early start (five years), and comprehension of the material (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). Students who can take apart words into sounds, recognize their identity, and put them together again have the foundation skill for using the alphabetic principle (Lieberman, Shankweiler, & Lieberman, 1989; Troia, 2004). Without phoneme awareness, students may be mystified by the print system and how it represents the spoken word.

Fluency is an issue for young students as well as students in high school (Rasinski et al., 2005). For a student to be a fluent reader, and to be motivated to read independently, they need to master these skills and the ability to scan the text from the left to the right (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). If a child is five or older, he or she should be able to understand that the reading code moves from left to right (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). Some programs used the linguistically based Phonographic curriculum to help students achieve mastery.

In a University of South Florida clinical study of Phonographic, 37 learning disabled students and 48 general education students who had low level reading scores participated in the study (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). The students were taught to read in just 12 sessions with a 98% success rate (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). The Phonographic program teaches eight sound pictures at a time, using those sound pictures to read and spell real words (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). By repeating the eight sounds and the words, the students begin to understand the code. If students know what is expected of them during reading, and they have mastered the skills, they should be able to blend sounds into words, followed by the ability to segment sounds in words (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998). Finally, children should be able to understand that sometimes two or more letters represents a sound, for example, “ch” makes the “ch” sound (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998).

Learning to read is a complex linguistic event, and teaching reading is a multifaceted task for a teacher. Without deeper knowledge, the specific techniques of lesson delivery cannot be acquired and knowledge of language, reading psychology, children’s literature, or the management of a reading program based on assessment often go unexamined by prospective teachers (American Federation of Teachers, 2004). If educators are charged with ensuring that no

child is left behind regardless of socioeconomic status, race, or gender, then educators must be given the training and tools to assist them in this task (Thomas & Stockton, 2007).

In order to determine how reading fluency affects students later in life, an urban school district did a study (Thomas & Stockton, 2007), which found that fluency was strongly associated with student's performance on high school graduation tests and that well over half of the students assessed could be considered disfluent (Rasinski et al., 2005). More than 10% of the students assessed read at a rate of less than 100 words per minute, a rate usually found in the elementary school reading programs (Rasinski et al., 2005).

Another approach to teaching fluency is the MAP method (Rasinski et al., 2005). This method allows for modeling, assistance, and practicing. The first component, modeling, allows students to hear fluent reading so that they can understand the concept of fluent reading (Rasinski et al., 2005). The study promoted the theory that teachers and adults should read to students so they understand how fluent, consistent reading sounds (Rasinski et al., 2005). The teacher can explain to students that fluent reading is reading with appropriate speed and meaningful expression (Rasinski et al., 2005). Phoneme awareness facilitates growth in printed word recognition. Even before a student learns to read, we can predict with a high level of accuracy whether that student will be a good reader or a poor reader by the end of third grade and beyond (Good, Simmons, and Kame'enui, 2001; Torgesen, 1998, 2004). Prediction is possible with simple tests that measure awareness of speech sounds in words, knowledge of letter names, knowledge of sound-symbol correspondence, and vocabulary.

Secondly, assistance is provided if students lack fluency and need support while they are reading (Rasinski et al., 2005). The assistance can be having a student hearing another student read a text aloud. The person assisting can be a teacher, a parent, or another adult reader

(Rasinski et al., 2005). It can be someone who is involved with the reading program, including a paraprofessional or a Response to Intervention Specialist (Rasinski et al., 2005). When the reader sees the words that the other person is reading, they can perceive the sight and the sound of the printed text. Through this practice, the student is more likely to recognize the words when they are read the next time and should also be able to recall the words (Rasinski et al., 2005). The final strategy is practicing. This skill relies on repetitive practice and involves rehearsing or repeating text.

Practicing leads to improved fluency with the passage and an enhanced understanding of sentence patterns (Rasinski et al., 2005). In order for students to practice a passage a few times, they need to have a reason to do so (Rasinski et al., 2005). Many students do not mind practicing passages if they know that they are supposed to beat a certain time or score. If a student knows that they will be reading the passage to a reading partner, paraprofessional, parent, or a teacher, they will practice the passage in order to do well on the task. Specific passages like dialogues, poetry, song lyrics, letters, and journal entries are good reading passages for students to practice (Rasinski et al., 2005). Many schools use passages from text, but students need to learn how to read fluently from many types of text in order for their comprehension to also increase (Rasinski et al., 2005).

Elementary students can also have difficulty becoming fluent readers because they do not learn to recognize and retain new vocabulary words or multi-syllabic words (Torgesen & Hudson, 2006). If they are asked to read a passage on their reading level, they may have to attempt to say words they do not know, causing errors. Students may guess at these words and will not be able to understand what they just read (Torgesen & Hudson, 2006). These students have difficulty with phonics, which leads to fluency and then comprehension problems

(Torgesen & Hudson, 2006). In order for these students to become grade level readers, it is necessary for them to participate in remedial reading programs (Torgesen & Hudson, 2006). The Response to Intervention (RTI) program was developed so students who were struggling could receive intense reading instruction and re-enter the general education classroom after the six or eight week program (Torgesen & Hudson, 2006). This program targets and corrects reading errors, assisting the student with sight words practice, vocabulary words, as well as fluency and comprehension practice. However, when compared to average readers of their same age, the “sight word” vocabulary of these students will remain severely restricted because “sight words” must be acquired individually through multiple correct reading trials over time (Torgesen & Hudson, 2006). It can be very difficult for students who have reading difficulties to close the gap with their peers because the students have to learn the sight words and vocabulary words they missed while simultaneously learning new words (Torgesen & Hudson, 2006).

These students could also have problems with orthographic representations (Glushko, 1979). In order for student to be an excellent reader, they must identify orthographic representations, and connect them to the text in a consistent manner (Glushko, 1979). Three experiments performed with 44 college students showed that "exception" words like “have,” with irregular spelling-to-sound correspondences, take longer to read aloud than words like haze, with regular correspondences (Glushko, 1979). Students have difficulty when they are asked to memorize specific rules. For example, the word “read” can be pronounced two ways, and many students read it incorrectly the first time and the comprehension of the sentence is altered (Glushko, 1979). "Exception pseudo words" like tave, which resemble irregular words, suffer a similar penalty in pronunciation latency compared to ‘regular pseudo words’ like “taze,” which resemble regular words (Glushko, 1979, p. 16). "Regular but inconsistent" words like wave,

which have regular spelling-to-sound structure but resemble exception words, take longer to pronounce than "regular and consistent" words like "wade" (Glushko, 1979, p. 16). Students practice these words, but if they are not reading at grade level, these words will continue to affect their fluency and comprehension (Glushko, 1979). These results refute current claims that words are read aloud by retrieving a single pronunciation from memory, and that pseudo words are pronounced by using abstract spelling-to-sound rules (Glushko, 1979). Instead, it appears that words and pseudo words are pronounced using similar kinds of orthographic and phonological knowledge.

A longitudinal-correlational design was used to test the hypothesis that individual differences in rapid automatic naming contribute to explaining the growth of orthographic reading skills in two overlapping periods of development: second to fourth grade, and third to fifth grade (Torgesen, Wagner, Rashotte, Burgess & Hecht, 1997). Torgesen and Hudson (2006) focused on the phonological awareness skills of each student, and how this was reflected in their reading level years later. Separate analyses were done on the entire sample of approximately 200 children, as well as on subsamples (bottom 20% and bottom 10% of readers) selected for impairment in word-reading development (Torgesen & Hudson, 2006). The researchers mentioned that when second- and third-grade reading skills were not included in the multiple regressions, both rapid automatic naming and phonological awareness skills were strongly predictive of individual differences in reading two years later (Torgesen & Hudson, 2006). With prior levels of reading skill included in the predictive equation, rapid automatic naming ability did not uniquely explain variance in any of the reading outcome measures (Torgesen & Hudson, 2006). Students who had difficulty with phonological awareness continued to struggle a few years later (Torgesen & Hudson, 2006). In contrast, individual differences in phonological

awareness in both second and third grades explained growth in reading skills over time (Torgesen, Wagner, Rashotte, Burgess & Hecht, 1997).

Generating questions while reading is a process that involves readers' asking themselves critical questions throughout the reading of a text (Texas Educational Agency, 2002). The ability of readers to ask themselves relevant questions as they read is especially valuable in helping them to integrate information, identify main ideas, and summarize information. Asking the right questions allows good readers to focus on the most important information in a text. Making inferences requires readers to evaluate or draw conclusions from information in a text (Texas Educational Agency, 2002). Authors do not always provide complete descriptions of, or explicit information about a topic, setting, character, or event. However, they often provide clues that readers can use to read between the lines by making inferences that combine information in the text with their background knowledge (Texas Educational Agency, 2002).

It has been shown that when readers are taught how to make inferences, they improve their abilities to construct meaning (Thomas & Stockton, 2007). Research indicates that the ability to make inferences is crucial to successful reading (Thomas & Stockton, 2007). Another strategy, predicting, involves the ability of readers to get meaning from a text by making informed predictions (Texas Educational Agency, 2002). Good readers use predicting as a way to connect their existing knowledge to new information from a text, gaining meaning from what they read (Texas Educational Agency, 2002). Before reading, they may use what they know about an author to predict what a text will be about. The title of a text may trigger memories of texts with similar content, allowing them to predict the content of the new text (Texas Educational Agency, 2002). During reading, good readers may make predictions about what will happen next or what ideas or evidence the author will present to support an argument. They tend

to evaluate these predictions continuously, and revise any prediction not confirmed by the reading (Texas Educational Agency, 2002).

Summarizing involves the ability of readers to pull together, or synthesize, information in a text to explain in their own words what the text is about (Texas Educational Agency, 2002). Summarizing is an important strategy because it can enable readers to recall text quickly. It also can make readers more aware of text organization, what is important in a text, and how ideas are related (Texas Educational Agency, 2002). Effective summarizing of expository text may involve such things as condensing steps in a scientific process, stages of development of an art movement, or episodes that led to some major historical event. Effective summarizing of narrative text can involve connecting and synthesizing events in a storyline or identifying the factors that motivate a character's actions and behavior (Texas Educational Agency, 2002).

Visualizing is the ability of readers to make mental images of a text as a way to understand processes or events they encounter during reading (Texas Educational Agency, 2002). This ability can indicate that a reader understands a text. Some research suggests that readers who visualize as they read are better able to recall what they have read than are those who do not visualize (Thomas & Stockton, 2007). Visualizing is especially valuable when it is applied to narrative texts (Thomas & Stockton, 2007). In reading narratives, readers often can develop clear understanding of what is happening by visualizing the setting, characters, or actions in the plot. Further, visualizing also can be applied to the reading of expository texts, with readers visualizing steps in a process or stages in an event or creating an image to help them remember an abstract concept or important name (Texas Educational Agency, 2002).

Comprehension monitoring is the ability of readers to know when they understand what they have read, when they do not understand, and to use appropriate strategies to improve their

understanding when it is blocked (Thomas & Stockton, 2007). Comprehension monitoring is a form of metacognition. Good readers are aware of and monitor their thought processes as they read (Texas Educational Agency, 2002).

The strategies employed by good readers to improve understanding are called "repair" or "fix-up" strategies (Texas Educational Agency, 2002). Specific repair strategies include rereading, reading ahead, and clarifying words by looking them up in a dictionary or glossary, or asking someone for help (Texas Educational Agency, 2002). In general, good readers use a variety of strategies, such as those used to construct meaning as they read. Not all good readers use the same strategies; good readers tend to develop and practice the strategies that are most useful to them. Good readers are flexible in their strategy use and switch from strategy to strategy as they read, using different strategies with different kinds of texts (Texas Educational Agency).

Problem Statement

The general problem is that educational leaders need more information about what skills and strategies help fifth grade students to read. "Defining leadership as a process" means that it is not a trait or characteristic that resides in the leader, but it is a transactional event that occurs between the leader and his or her followers (Northouse, 2004). A school leader should inform teachers of new curricula and to provide professional development for reading programs. "Process" implies that a leader affects and is affected by followers (Northouse, 2004). It emphasizes that leadership is not a linear, one-way event but rather an interactive event (Northouse, 2004). A leader promotes collaboration among colleagues after researching dynamic reading programs that will allow students to make academic gains. Using research teams that are

led by the administrator will help determine the important factors of new reading programs and how to implement them.

Since at-risk students often have increased economic, legal, and psychological problems, they may eventually drop out of school and create numerous problems for society (Caldwell & Ginthier, 1996). This may be due to inadequate skills and earning potential. There are numerous factors that contribute to the dropout rate. Five of the main areas of the dropout rate are (a) familial factors, (b) personal characteristics, (c) socioeconomic factors, and (d) educational achievement and (e) school behaviors (Caldwell & Ginthier, 1996). Caldwell & Ginthier (1996) presented data that socioeconomic status (SES) is the single best predictor of academic achievement: low SES predicts low achievement. In order for students to meet high achievements as adults, they need to have an effective and meaningful academic program while they attend K-12 schools.

In the year 2030, motivation will be seen as a crucial component of teaching and learning in all areas of instruction, including phonemic and phonological awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension (Malloy, Marinak, & Gambrell, 2010). Effective leadership is critical in order for students to move forward with their reading goals and achievement levels. Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2004). Although curricula are often set by district policies, sometimes with teacher input, teachers can position themselves as change agents in connecting students' lives to the content presented, and their minds to the texts (Malloy et al., 2010).

In order to read, a student must master comprehension and fluency. In order for students to develop their reading ability, they should hone specific reading comprehension skills that include connecting to background knowledge, asking questions, making inferences, visualizing,

determining importance, and summarizing (Harvey & Goudvis, 2007). Many students who have difficulty with comprehension are instructed to visualize part of the story. While students may be able to do this with specific sections, it may be difficult to take that to the next level and visualize, make inferences, and predict.

Instead of telling students important information, many teachers have begun teaching students to use and access information independently while reading (Harvey & Goudis, 2007). The teacher models how to access information in the text by guiding students in large groups and pairs, providing large blocks of time for students to read independently, and practicing using and applying strategies (Harvey & Goudis, 2007). Akin to writing, reading is an act of composition (Pearson & Tierney, 1984). When students write, they record their thoughts on their paper. When they read, they should make meaning of the words and discuss the information (Pearson & Tierney, 1984). Students who read on a higher level use the text to stimulate their own thinking and readers should merge their thinking with what they understand the text to say (Pearson & Tierney, 1984).

The findings of the research on effective teaching and effective schools are too often equated with what is desirable or good (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2010). By failing to distinguish between effectiveness and goodness, two central questions in education are not addressed (Glickman et al., 2010). The first question that a school must consider is: what is good? Only after that question has been answered should the second question be asked: how do we become effective? The current fascination with findings from the research on effectiveness has blinded schools and school systems to the more basic question of goodness (Glickman et al., 2010).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore the strategies and skills fifth graders used that may motivated them to read. Qualitative research, broadly defined, means "any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p.17).

If all schools had an excellent curriculum, appropriate assessments, and well-educated teachers, they should have advanced past their current state (Gatthorn, Boschee, Whitehead, & Boschee, 2012). For projects involving curriculum improvement to succeed, several factors need to be addressed. One is the cooperation of local and state agencies (Gatthorn et al., 2012). Another is the development of a specialized district curriculum team dedicated to combining the best of the school's current curriculum with enhancements based on modern approaches to knowledge development, curriculum design, and teacher education (Glatthorn et al., 2012). A supervisor wishing to facilitate change in curriculum purpose, content, organization, and format must remember that successful change is based on teachers' changing their conceptions of curriculum and their level of involvement in curriculum development (Glickman et al., 2010). Change in teachers and curriculum is more likely to be successful if implemented in an incremental manner (Glickman et al., 2010).

Helpful approaches by the leader include using examples of other school curricula, contemporary approaches to knowledge development, new approaches to curriculum design and development, evaluation and assessment, as well as hands-on-training in computer and technology use (Glatthorn et al., 2012). To assess the students' needs, interviews with the students, teachers, and staff could be arranged during the data gathering process (Glatthorn et al., 2012).

The students in this case study had the opportunity to explain why they enjoyed reading, how their enjoyment influenced their book selection, and the amount of time they read daily. By gathering information from most fifth grade students, it helped provide information about what skills and strategies they used to read. After looking at the responses to their interview questions, a better understanding of what skills and strategies the students used was developed. After the interview information was collected and analyzed by the researcher, the information was presented to the teachers and staff in order to help facilitate a curriculum that allows students to make more reading progress in fluency, comprehension, and accuracy. The information may allow reading programs to adjust their lessons to teach the skills and strategies that help a reader stay engaged in a good book and for their DIBELS reading scores and MAP reading scores to increase.

Research Question

Research studies also focus on teaching students thinking and learning routines that incorporate comprehension strategies as part of instruction (Pearson & Tierney, 1984). Palincsar's (1984) original work in reciprocal teaching shows how comprehension strategy instruction improves student learning from the text. Students need to be aware of what they are reading, have a deeper understanding, and higher level of retention of the material (Palincsar, 1984). The amount of print that students are exposed to over time has a significant effect on their reading level (Palincsar, 1984). Cunningham and Stanovich (2003) reported the amount of print that children are exposed to has profound cognitive consequences. The more students read, the better readers they become (Cunningham & Stanovich, 2003). The act of reading itself serves to increase the achievement differences among children. For students to improve their fluency and vocabulary, they must log many hours on the printed page (Cunningham & Stanovich, 2003).

The reading volume is critical for building reading progress. An effective teacher must teach meaningful, challenging, and dynamic reading lessons daily while building in independent reading time (Cunningham & Stanovich, 2003). If a teacher ignores the need for specialized instruction and dynamic reading programs, the future of many students is bleak (Cunningham & Stanovich, 2003).

Central Question

How did the fifth grade students feel about reading?

Definition of Terms

Alliteracy. Alliteracy is having the ability, but choosing not, to read. In order for a student to pass basic assessments and projects at school, they must show effort and a proficient reading level. If a student chooses to not read in their spare time they are alliterate. They do not read the newspaper, short stories, nor do they pick up a book and read for pleasure (Buffman, Mattos, & Weber, 2009).

DIBELS (Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills). A set of reading assessments used for universal screening and progress monitoring in grades K-6. They are standardized, efficient and extensively researched. This program was designed and implemented by the University of Oregon and is used to monitor students reading fluency and comprehension. It has many levels, and the first is the benchmark monitoring system. All students are in the benchmark monitoring system at the public elementary school where the researcher teaches special education. Students participate in the benchmark test during the fall, winter and spring semesters. If a student does not score as proficient on the benchmark test in the fluency and comprehension areas, a reading specialist places them in the progress monitoring system. Student

progress is monitored every two weeks to help the teacher assess if the curriculum is effective (dibels.org, 11/2/13).

Excellent Reader in Fifth Grade. By early fifth grade, students will know how to understand sequential directions within a text, visualize information they have read, identify with characters, compare and contrast characters in a story, or compare and contrast different writing styles, and understand cause and effect (Schraw & Graham, 1997).

Feel. To be aware of something physically or mentally (Merriamwebster.com, 11/2/13).

Illiteracy. To describe person who does not have the ability to read text fluently, nor comprehend and apply the material. The meanings of the words literacy and illiteracy have been changed to not only include a connection with reading and literature, but to any body of knowledge. If a person is “science illiterate” they cannot identify the parts of a plant on a sheet and transfer the information to an assignment (Merriamwebster.com, 11/2/13).

Literate. A term to describe a person who is educated, cultured, and able to read and write is literate. They are also versed in literature or creative writing (Merriamwebster.com, 11/1/12). They are able to write in a polished manner and they have knowledge or competence in specific areas of reading and writing (Buffman et al., 2009).

MAP- Measure of Academic Progress. MAP is a normed reference test in reading and math that students take three times per year at the end of every trimester. It measures the progress they are making on the skills and strategies they master in the general education environment. The test is online and is individualized, so if a student selects correct answers, more difficult material is presented (map.org 11/3/12).

Phenomenon. Something that can be observed and studied that typically is unusual or difficult to understand (Merriamwebster.com, 11/2/13).

Reading motivation. Reading attitudes are typically defined as a reader's affect toward reading (Alexander & Filler, 1976). The motivational consequences of students who enjoy reading are positive because reading can be an easy subject for them (Alexander & Filler, 1976). Motivation is the extent to which students are motivated to be engaged in academic tasks from both external and internal sources (Marzano, 2005).

Delimitations

Delimitations are decisions the researcher makes to limit or define the boundaries of the study. The delimitations of this study on reading motivation included students who were in fifth grade at two schools, and the teachers who taught general education at the fifth grade level. Both elementary schools were neighborhood schools and they served the students who lived within the elementary school boundary.

Limitations

The limitations of this study were that the students were limited to providing information through interviews and questionnaires. Their honesty and the correctness of information were necessary to gather relevant information. The study was limited to the researcher's subjectivity and their influence as a special education teacher in an inclusion reading elementary classroom.

The qualitative data in this study was limited by what the students revealed about their reading habits, time spent reading, why they were motivated to read independently, and how would participate in independent reading homework. The researcher had to ask the right questions in order to gather the salient data and interpret the interviews and the surveys accurately.

The significance of the qualitative multiple-case study lied in its ability to identify what motivated students to become readers in fifth grade and how an educational leader could promote curriculum development collaboratively with the teachers. Research studies on reading have created both discussion and confusion among educators (Glatthorn et al., 2012). According to Carob (2007), to increase the percentage of proficient readers, leaders must help teachers to increase their reading methods. Fullan (2011) identifies five characteristics of effective leadership for change: (a) moral purpose, (b) understanding the change process, (c) strong relationships, (d) knowledge sharing, and (e) coherence, or connecting new knowledge with existing knowledge. Teachers received information on methods and strategies to help students become interested in books, in order for them to read more and spend less time using technology for enjoyment. The procedure called “meta-analysis” synthesizes data for a number of studies exploring “what works” in the classrooms (Camilli & Wolfe, 2004). Incorporating both direct instruction and means-based approaches appear to be prevalent in successful schools (Camilli & Wolfe, 2004). School leaders must provide professional development opportunities and follow-up sessions in order to support the implementation of new reading programs.

Some researchers also analyze reading motivation by looking at the motivation field (Bandura, 1997; Eccles, Wigfield, & Schiefele, 1998; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Wigfield, Eccles, & Rodriguez, 1998). Currently, many motivational theorists propose that individuals’ competence and efficacy, beliefs, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and purposes for achievement play a crucial role in their decisions about what activities to do, how long to do them and how much effort to put into them (Bandura, 1997; Eccles et al., 1998; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Wigfield et al., 1998).

Other studies show that children should have the opportunity to participate in a dynamic reading program that will allow them to master specific reading skills and carry that information with them to the next grade. The National Reading Panel (2000) identified five key reading factors needed for success at the elementary level: (a) phonemic awareness, (b) phonics, (c) fluency, (d) vocabulary, and (e) comprehension. These reviews by The National Reading Panel (2000), focused on variables associated with positive results in reading programs rather than specific strategies and methods. The What Works Clearinghouse (2008) evaluated elementary reading programs, but it did not include the effects of specific types of programs nor the individual skills and strategies that motivated reader use. Another study by Torgeson and Hudson (2006) reviewed only 12 randomized evaluations and compared phonetic and non-phonetic approaches. In this study, Torgeson and Hudson (2006) included the amount of instruction (most groups had five hours or less), sample sizes were very small, measures of objectives not taught in all of the control groups were used, and most of the approaches were supplementary rather than core approaches.

One of the most popular themes in educational leadership, a component of which has been factored in to this study, over the last two decades has been instructional leadership (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). Smith and Andrews (1989) identify four dimensions, or roles, of an instructional leader: (a) resource provider, (b) instructional resource, (c) communicator, and (d) visible presence. As a resource provider, the principal ensures that the teachers have the materials, facilities, and budget necessary to adequately perform their duties (Smith & Andrews, 1989). As an instructional resource the principal actively supports day-to-day instructional activities and programs by modeling desired behaviors, participation in in-service training, and consistently giving priority to instructional concerns (Smith & Andrews,

1989). As a communicator, the principal conveys goals in a clear manner to the staff; and as a visible presence he or she is in the classrooms and accessible to staff (Smith & Andrews, 1989).

The key is that schools gather data correctly and use the data appropriately (Glatthorn et al., 2012). According to Flowers and Carpenter (2009), looking at data should never be an isolated activity at a school. Educational leaders need to evaluate their data and analytical needs in order to determine how to set up a data management system effectively (Glatthorn et al., 2012).

Richard Elmore (2000) provided a unique perspective on the role of leadership. He agreed with those who promote instructional leadership by emphasizing the importance of understanding effective practices in curriculum, instruction, assessment and the ability to work with teachers on day-to-day problems related to these topics (Elmore, 2000). Elmore's solution is an organization that distributes the responsibility for leadership. Although the principal might not have the time, energy, or disposition to master the extant knowledge base regarding curriculum, instruction, and assessment, others within a school might (Elmore, 2000). Most early scholars agreed on two critical functions of leadership: (a) to help the group accomplish its task (task function) and (b) to keep the group maintained and functioning (maintenance function) (Northouse, 2004). Scholars studying intact work teams have also referred to these same two functions as team performance and team development (Northouse, 2004). Team performance refers to the leadership functions of task, and team development refers to leadership functions relational maintenance (Northouse, 2004).

A study regarding the reading skills of students will be significant for school leaders (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, & Mazzoni, 1996). The results of this study provided leaders, teachers, parents, and students with information regarding the skills and strategies fifth grade

readers used. The researcher reviewed the reading programs in two fifth grades in the three classrooms in two schools.

This study was important because the body of knowledge regarding childhood literacy clearly required more study. The research regarding how motivation leads to students to become excellent readers could be explored more extensively (Slavin, 2009). Bandura (1986) suggested that motivation is the result of an individual's self-efficacy related to a task. Bandura defined self-efficacy as the beliefs we have about ourselves that cause us to make choices, put forth effort, and persist in the face of difficulty. Bandura noted that in the classroom, one of the most powerful sources of self-efficacy is mastery experience (Bandura, 1986). The topic of academic reading measurement has been addressed in studies in the past, however researchers use assessments such as phonemic awareness to develop reading programs, although Slavin notes that these should not be the main assessments that guide the reading program development (2009). Measures of reading comprehension and reading vocabulary have floor effects at the kindergarten and first grade level (Slavin, 2009). The measures also may include letter-word identification and word attack, but did not include other reading strategy methods.

The evidence from this multiple case study provided information from the student and teacher interviews regarding reading strategies and skills, reading habits, and reading enjoyment. For children to be successful later in school and in life, early reading is critical for them to master specific concepts, skills, and strategies (Slavin, Lake, Chamber, Cheung, & Davis, 2009). Later studies have shown that children with poor reading skills at the end of first grade may have a difficult time catching up and are likely to struggle in reading and in other subjects throughout school (Slavin et al., 2009).

Summary

Teachers will implement curriculum successfully if they have been involved in the development and can adapt the material to their specific classroom and school situation (Glickman et al., 2010). This study explored the strategies and skills that fifth grade students used when reading. The leader communicates the purpose of the curriculum based on three curriculum orientations: transmission, transaction, or transformation (Glickman et al., 2010). The supervisors and teachers should work together to select curriculum purpose, content organization, and format that (a) are most appropriate for the students, (b) address student diversity, and (c) increase teachers' choice and commitment to curriculum implementation (Glickman et al., 2010).

Data should be gathered methodically and purposefully in order for a leader to make decisions that promote the success of all students in reading. The key is that schools gather data correctly about programs (Glathorn et al., 2012). According to Flowers and Carpenter (2009), looking at data should never be an isolated activity at a school. Districts also need to consider how long it will take to get the system up and running, as well as the cost (Glathorn et al., 2012).

In day-to-day operations, public schools are subject to a plethora of criticisms, and leaders must seek solutions (Ravitch, 2010). The media constantly criticizes public schools and the positive information regarding data and school improvement must be provided so the public has an accurate picture of the nation's public schools (Ravitch, 2010). Bernhardt (1998) helps school leaders learn how to manage curricular data that will inform them of where they are, where they want to be, and how to get there. Data analysis is helpful in identifying and uncovering powerful curriculum solutions to some of the nation's biggest problems in schools

(Bernhardt, 1998). Data analysis has not always been well received in the study of how leaders can help schools improve (Bernhardt, 1998).

In order for students to be successful throughout school, college, and in life, they must be able to read. Chapter One of this qualitative multiple case study included the introduction, problem statement, purpose, research question, definition of terms, limitations, delimitations, and the significance of the study. As the number of students with reading difficulty increases, it is important to determine what motivates students to read. The following literature review serves as the current body of knowledge and the context informing the study.

CHAPTER 2 THE LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review should set the broad context for the study and it should examine the methods that teachers use in the classroom. The literature review should have theoretical and methodological sophistication. Research must be cumulative to be meaningful and beneficial (Boote & Beile, 2005). The literature review summarizes current literature and creates a framework for the study. A researcher needs to understand the implications of his or her study. Generativity, along with discipline, publication, and peer reviews are hallmarks of scholarship (Boote & Beile, 2005) and should be honored.

Reading is fundamental to a quality education for elementary students and prepares them for higher education (Moats, 1999). In order for students to have strong reading skills and to be motivated, they need a dynamic teacher who can challenge them and keep them engaged with material (Moats, 1999). It is also important that students maintain their reading skills throughout their lifetime. It is unfortunate, but even with excellent teachers, strong general education reading programs, remedial reading, and gifted education, many adults in the United States are still illiterate (Cramer & Castle, 1994).

An illiterate population has detrimental socio-economic effects on society (Cramer & Castle, 1994). There is a fear that an illiterate society could have negative effect on the well-being of the country (Cramer & Castle, 1994). High-quality education, specifically in reading courses for elementary students, is critical to the earnings of individuals and the economic health of entire communities (Schweke, 2004).

Perhaps the most dominant strategy, both used and taught, during and after reading in order to increase comprehension and personal connections, is the use of “think alouds.” This strategy can increase student self-efficacy in reading. Bereiter and Bird (1985) conducted a study

in which they tested students based on their knowledge of comprehension strategies as well as the metacognitive framework of when to use them. The participants in the Bereiter and Bird (1985) study were 40 males and 40 females from a rural area in a small city school in Southern Ontario, Canada. The students tested were those passing seventh grade English and who scored closest to the sample median of the reading comprehension section of the Nelson Reading Skills test. Bereiter and Bird (1985) formed four groups of students at random: the first group received modeling of reading comprehension strategies as well as an explanation of when and how to use the strategies, the second group received only modeling, the third group received only oral directions and written exercises, and the final group received no treatment.

Bereiter and Bird (1985) gave students a post-test to determine which treatments were effective. The modeling and explanation group scored on average 20 points higher than peers, the modeling only group scored five points higher, the exercise group remained about the same, and the scores of the control group fell by eight points on average. Bereiter and Bird (1985) suggested that explanations must be given during modeling so that students may not only learn specific strategies but also so they may learn how to employ multiple strategies simultaneously. They concluded that students need to use different strategies to master the material (Bereiter & Bird, 1985). They also found that students must know what specific actions to take when they encounter comprehension difficulty (Bereiter & Bird, 1985).

Connecting Reading Material

Block and Israel (2004) emphasized all of the important elements that make a “think aloud” effective and productive. They stress the importance of activating background knowledge and connecting the reading material to the student’s life (Block & Israel, 2004). Teachers stress the importance of background knowledge and how it affects students mastering skills in many

subjects. Another factor this study stressed is that teachers must connect the information to the bigger picture of reality and have students ‘put themselves in the book’ (Block & Israel, 2004). The Block and Israel study emphasized that teachers must decide what an individual does when reading, and then explain these processes to students. These processes include thinking before, during, and after reading. The study suggested ways in which teachers may help students to perform “think alouds” such as flashcards to remind students of strategies or bookmarks which ask leading questions for all three phases of reading. Finally, there are examples of how to assess students on their “think alouds” while also assessing for comprehension of a text and critical analysis (Block & Israel, 2004). Block and Israel (2004) suggested that students be assessed by their peers for the strategy they use; peers should determine if they are only using a few strategies, or employing a wide range of strategies.

Scharlach (2008) researched and described an instructional framework in which students and teachers actively read a text together to teach students when and how to use strategies for comprehension. Scharlach (2008) conducted a study of five third grade classrooms in the southeast United States, administering a pre- and post- reading test to both a control group, and a group receiving the START teaching method. Scharlach (2008) found that students who had the strategy instruction had developed metacognitive strategies for knowing when and how to use strategies without constant prompting from teachers. For the control group, she found that these students’ scores either remained the same or dropped in comprehension. Scaffolding and metacognition are highlighted as important elements for teachers to use for students to maintain strategies and become independent readers (Scharlach, 2008).

The authors, Pace (2006), and Berne and Clark (2008), discussed the importance of having students discuss the text together, both while reading and after they have read the text.

Both of these articles emphasized the need for students to voice their thoughts about the text and not simply listen to a teacher give his or her opinion on the reading. The articles indicate that strategies for during and after reading help students to understand the text more deeply and to make more meaningful connections.

In their research, Berne and Clark (2008) demonstrated how small and large literature discussion groups facilitate students' use of comprehension strategies, as well as enhance their knowledge of literary devices. The information also contributed to a deeper analysis of the text by students. Berne and Clark (2008) asserted that literature discussion groups can help to improve students' oral language skills and also increase feelings of efficacy about their ability to understand and interpret literature. Their reasoning for this lies in student interaction with their peers as opposed to an authority figure while regarding the text. Berne and Clark (2008) explained that when students help one another move toward developing skills and analysis techniques, students will be more open to learning from their peers and their discussions will be richer and more honest. Berne and Clark (2008) believed that adults should model a proper discussion for students to demonstrate effective questions to ask and statements to make. In the end, they suggested the only role the teacher should play in the group is as an observer or to generate a prompt question if the discussion is moving too slowly (Berne & Clark, 2008).

Fifth Grade is a Pivotal Year for Reading

The amount of independent reading students complete significantly influences their level of reading performance (Schell, 1991). In a series of studies considered to be benchmark indicators of children's exposure to print, Anderson, Wilson, and Fielding (1988) and Fielding, Wilson, and Anderson (1986) asked fifth-grade students to record their activities outside of school. In the first study, fifty-three students kept logs of free-time activities for eight weeks, and

in the second study, 105 children kept logs for twenty-six weeks. In both investigations, children averaged ten minutes per day reading books—little more than 2 percent of their time but enough to make a significant difference in reading achievement scores. Almost fifty percent of all children read a book four minutes a day or less (Anderson et al., 1988). Thirty percent read two minutes a day or less and almost ten percent reported never reading any book on any day (Anderson et al., 1988). For the majority of children, reading books occupied one percent or less of their free time (Anderson et al., 1988).

The researchers compared the amount of student reading with their scores on achievement tests (Anderson et al., 1988). The number of minutes spent on out-of-school reading, even if it was a small amount, correlated positively with reading achievement. The more students read outside of school, the higher they scored on reading achievement tests (Anderson et al., 1988). Students who scored at the 90th percentile on a reading test spent five times as many minutes as children at the 50th percentile, and more than 200 times as many minutes per day reading books as the child at the 10th percentile (Anderson et al., 1988). The researchers concluded that “among all the ways children spent their time, reading books was the best predictor of measures of reading achievement reading comprehension, vocabulary, and reading speed, including gains in reading comprehension between second and fifth grade” (p. 285).

Lubliner (2004) found that a fourth or fifth grade student’s inability to read grade-level texts proficiently is a very serious problem, for reading is far more than a set of skills that must be mastered (2004). Reading is the vehicle for acquiring knowledge in the upper-grade classroom, a necessary precursor to completing academic tasks across the curriculum (Lubliner, 2004). When children enter the upper grades unable to read proficiently, their academic performance rapidly spirals downward (Lubliner, 2004). Without effective intervention,

struggling upper-grade readers are likely to experience frustration and failure as they move into middle school and beyond (Lubliner, 2004).

Greaney and Hegarty (1987), leading researchers in the area of independent reading, asked 138 fifth graders to use diaries to record their leisure activities four days a week. Results showed that 18 percent indicated that they do not read at all, and 31.5 percent read three or more hours during the weekly reporting period (Greaney & Hegarty, 1987). Overall, students devoted 7.2 percent of their leisure time to reading (Greaney & Hegarty, 1987). Correlational measures show a significant relation between the amount of time devoted to independent reading and reading achievement, verbal ability, attitude toward reading, and home influence factors (Greaney & Hegarty, 1987). Tunnell and Jacobs (1989) summarized numerous studies from the previous sixty years and found a statistically significant relation between academic achievement and independent reading. Students who read the most scored in the top quartile in reading achievement tests (Tunnell & Jacobs, 1989).

Watkins and Edwards (1992) found that proficient middle-grade readers tend to spend more time doing recreational reading and make greater gains in reading achievement than less able readers. Less able readers consistently read less than proficient readers and rank below average in reading skill (Watkins & Edwards, 1992). Academic performance is closely related to reading performance and teachers' attitudes toward reading significantly affect the amount of extracurricular reading students do (Watkins & Edwards, 1992).

Allen, Cipielewski, and Stanovich (1992) asked sixty-three fifth-grade students to complete daily-activity diaries of non-school time for fifteen days. They also used checklists of book titles, authors, and activity preference as a way to estimate exposure to print (Allen et al., 1992). All measures of print habits and attitudes (Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, Metropolitan

Achievement Tests, Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests, Educational Records Bureau Aptitude Achievement Test), except for one reading attitude survey, were consistently related to the verbal ability measures, confirming earlier findings by Stanovich (1986b). Print exposure was more strongly linked to performance in the verbal domain than in the domain of mathematics computation (Stanovich, 1986b).

The Common Core defines a three-part model for selecting appropriately complex reading material (Evenson, McIver, Ryan, Schwols, & Kendall, 2013). Within this model, text readability—specifically, its quantitative measure for relative difficulty—is set higher than the mark set by prior readability systems and reading comprehension assessments for each grade span (Evenson et al., 2013). Elementary school students are now expected to independently read and understand texts with Lexile scores between 420 and 820L by the time they finish third grade (Evenson et al., 2013). The high end of this range is notably higher than the high end of the prior levels (450–725L) set by the Lexile system (Evenson et al., 2013). By the end of fifth grade, students are expected to comprehend texts with Lexile scores between 740 and 1010L, which is another increase from the former expectation (645–845L) (Nelson, Perfetti, Liben, & Liben, 2012). This move toward more challenging reading material will have a strong impact on which texts, in particular which informational texts, teachers select for upper elementary school students (Nelson et al., 2012).

Writing Should Support Reading Development

The second theme from the literature was the use of writing in various genres to help students increase comprehension for pre, during, and post reading strategies. Glenn (2007) and Prichard (1993) discussed two different strategies to help students more deeply comprehend the literature as well as make personal connections with the content. One strategy Glenn (2007)

emphasized was the use of creative writing to model the author's technique, as well as predict or rewrite events in the book in the upper elementary levels. Prichard (1993) noted the importance of using writing prompts to encourage students to explore ideas they have after they read.

Glenn (2007) discussed the use of creative writing prompts and responses to enhance student understanding of literary technique and literary device. Glenn (2007) argued that when individuals are asked to provide personal, creative responses to literature modeling the text they are reading, it will enhance their own writing. This study was conducted with eight students and analyzed the students' reflections for patterns of recognizing literary devices and conventions, as well as their creative writing skills. Not only did Glenn (2007) find that the students used the devices, it was also found that students were better readers because of this assignment. Students were re-reading, predicting, and working towards finding meaning in the text. Students interpreted, evaluated, and summarized the text in order to grasp the writer's purpose (Glenn, 2007).

Prichard's (1993) course of study was aimed at leading students to experience literature on both a personal and emotional level, and also to understand the text. Prichard (1993) suggested that students need prompts for writing before, during, and after reading. The author claimed that prompts before reading engage students, stimulate curiosity, activate a prior experience, or stimulate emotions (Prichard, 1993). Prichard (1993) stated that it is "much easier to preview emotions, language, and themes than to preview form and structure" (p. 25). Writing during reading, Prichard (1993) said, should be in the form of short responses. These prompts should reflect features and conventions in the text, require students to keep track of setting, plot, character development, and other features. Finally, post-reading prompts are meant to bring the basic themes of the book into modern day language and context, to consider characters as a

whole from beginning to end, to notice literary conventions that affected the whole narrative, and to see one's own opinion as a whole (Prichard, 1993). These writing prompts should relate directly to the pre-reading prompts and result in some kind of culminating project for students.

Several studies have shown that the use of specific strategies will increase student metacognition and will expressly help students make personal connections with the literature (Fagella-Luby, Schumaker & Deshler, 2007; Guthrie, Wigfield & Barbosa, 2004; Kelley & Clausen-Grace, 2008; Langer, 1984; Pflaum & Bishop, 2004). While similar to the first theme, these articles discussed students' thinking on a more individual level rather than a collective one.

Reading Comprehension

Fagella-Luby et al., (2007) tested the use of Embedded Story-Structure (ESS) against the use of Comprehension Skills Instruction (CSI). In ESS students use self-questioning, story structure analysis, and summary writing to comprehend a story. A graphic organizer and guided questions help students record the structure of the story. Students also have picture cues to remind them when to use the strategies. CSI emphasizes vocabulary decoding, QARs (Question-Answer Relationships), and semantic summary mapping, wherein students identify their own critical concepts in the story and map them (Fagella-Luby et al., 2007). Seventy-nine students participated in the study, and were selected by gender, whether or not they had a learning disability, and their performance in school (Fagella-Luby et al., 2007). There was a control group, an ESS group, and a CSI group. They were given a strategy to use beforehand to measure which strategies they used and when they were used (Fagella-Luby et al., 2007). This test was given again at the end of the study to determine if students had increased or declined in mastering the strategy (Fagella-Luby et al., 2007). All ESS students had increased while some CSI increased, some declined, and some remained the same. The control group also remained the

same. For reading comprehension, students in the ESS group scored statistically higher than the students in the CSI group (Fagella-Luby et al., 2007). The researchers concluded that the ESS strategy was very effective for students, and regardless of the student's special education level, all students in this group scored higher than the students in the CSI group (Fagella-Luby et al., 2007).

Kelley and Clausen-Grace (2008) assessed multiple students between fourth-sixth grades on their independent reading strategy use to determine the student's individual reading comprehension level. They used the Developmental Readiness Assessment, which categorizes students into levels of intervention groups including (a) instructional, (b) independent, or (c) advanced (Kelley & Clausen-Grace, 2008). During the initial test, over 50% of students were found to be at the intervention/instructional stage and 89% of the children lacked metacognitive skills (Kelley & Clausen-Grace, 2008). The intervention applied by the researchers involved four steps. First, "think alouds" were demonstrated to students to identify strategy components, explain and define these strategies, find and use the strategies, and clarify the purpose of the strategy (Kelley & Clausen-Grace, 2008). Next, students worked in groups or in pairs and recorded the strategies they used as a group to decipher a text and explain why they used that strategy (Kelley & Clausen-Grace, 2008). Then, students who were working independently were given a variety of texts for which they could use multiple strategies, share with the class how they used strategies, and collect data on what strategies they used most often (Kelley & Clausen-Grace, 2008). Finally, students assessed themselves based on what strategies they were not using enough, what they didn't comprehend in a text, and then set goals with their teacher. After completing this process, Kelley and Clausen-Grace (2008) found in the post-assessment that only

5% of students scored at the intervention/instructional level. The rest of the students scored at the independent/advanced level.

The researchers Guthrie, Wigfield, Barbosa, Perencevich, Taboada, and Davis (2004), Langer (1984), and Pflaum and Bishop (2004) revealed students made personal connections with reading once they learned the strategies for pre, during, and post reading. Guthrie et al. (2004), as well as Langer (1984), and Pflaum and Bishop (2004) emphasized the importance of telling students why they are reading a piece of literature in place of asking students to read and understand context themselves. This emphasis was revealed as the most important idea mentioned in the literature. Students gain in reading ability what they understand what they have in common with the literature and realize that there is a purpose to their reading. Guthrie et al. (2004), Langer (1984), and Pflaum and Bishop, (2004) explain what motivates students to read and the independent decisions needed for readers to gain something from reading lies within their interaction with a text.

Guthrie et al. (2004) assessed third grade students in four schools located in the Mid-Atlantic States based on different reading comprehension strategies. The first class received Concept Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI). In CORI, a meaningful context is presented to students regarding why they are reading the material, independent choice is applied when appropriate for choosing reading material, strategy instruction is taught explicitly by modeling and guided practice, and background knowledge is used to connect student experiences to what is being learned (Guthrie et al., 2004). In another class, strategy instruction was applied where students were taught how to use the reading strategies and given time to practice (Guthrie et al. 2004). In the third class, students were given a list of strategies to use without instruction and given time to practice applying them (Guthrie et al., 2004). The fourth class was termed

“traditional instruction” which referred to simple teacher-directed questions and seatwork (Guthrie et al., 2004).

Guthrie et al., (2004) concluded that students who received the CORI method had the highest reading comprehension results, based on the result of a standardized test given to all four groups. The researchers speculated that students could develop meaningful reasons for reading the texts, had high self-esteem because they were confident in their reading strategies, and were motivated because they felt good about their work (Guthrie et al., 2004).

Langer (1984) researched a group of 161 sixth graders from a middle-class suburb in Long Island, New York. Based on a pre-test of the Iowa Test of Basic Skills in Reading Comprehension, students scored in above-level, on-level, or below-level group (Langer, 1984). One class received no supplemental instruction before reading the text. The next class received motivational instruction to excite students about the reading and interest them in the topic (Langer, 1984). Another class received a distracter activity and they read the passages after non-related activities. The final class received instruction in a pre-reading activity called PREP in which they made initial associations with the concept group (Langer, 1984). All classes were scored with a 20-question criterion test they took after participating in the activity. Langer (1984) found that all reading level groups improved when the PREP strategy was applied and that the groups improved slightly less when the motivation strategy was applied. Scores remained the same for groups who received no instruction, and scores decreased for students who received the distracter activity (Langer, 1984).

Pflaum and Bishop’s (2004) research sought to determine how students perceive the act of reading in the classroom. They studied four middle schools in Vermont: one suburban, one rural, one suburban/rural, and one urban school. Twenty middle school students were

interviewed during the course of the study, and all interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed. Pflaum and Bishop (2004) used the techniques of both verbal interview and by student drawings to ask questions. They believed that using both of these methods spoke to the strengths of all the children (Pflaum & Bishop, 2004).

Almost all students said that the two kinds of reading they liked the most were teacher “read-alouds” and silent, independent reading (Pflaum & Bishop, 2004). Students commented that they were engaged as long as the teacher presented interesting material. Students also specified independent reading as a positive experience because it was a time to be “lost” in a book, and because they were given free choice of material (Pflaum & Bishop, 2004). Students also stated that silent reading allowed them to concentrate harder (Pflaum & Bishop, 2004).

The students stated that assigned reading or reading independently out of a textbook was boring and sometimes difficult. There was a mixed response to oral reading in class by students either in small or whole group settings (Pflaum & Bishop, 2004).

Getting students to practice a passage repeatedly can be difficult because they want to progress to the next passage. Students need to have a reason to practice a passage repeatedly. Readers are more likely to practice a passage so that it can be read with appropriate accuracy, speed, and meaningful expression if they know they will be assessed (Rasinski, 2003). Modeling, assistance, and practice are the keys to developing fluency in any human endeavor that requires fluency, and is particularly true for reading fluency (Rasinski, 2003).

Pflaum and Bishop (2004) suggested that reading strategies should be explicitly taught to students if they are given the option to read independently or listen to “read alouds.” As a result of their study, Pflaum and Bishop advocate for allowing students to draw to represent their responses to questions. In an effort to understand reading motivation, fluency, and

comprehension are key research areas to determine how they affect a student's reading progress in the classroom and individually (Pflaum & Bishop, 2004). Fluency is the ability to read the words on the printed page accurately so the reader can find meaning through comprehension, or understand the meaning of the text. Fluency is important in reading because it is the gateway to comprehension (Pflaum & Bishop, 2004). Many readers do not comprehend well, not because they lack intelligence, but because they have difficulty reading the text fluently, make word recognition errors, labor in their reading, and read without appropriate expression (Pflaum & Bishop, 2004). In a paper on helping students with significant reading comprehension problems, Duke, Pressley, and Hilden (2004) estimated that 75 to 90 percent of students with comprehension difficulties have reading fluency problems that are a significant cause of their comprehension difficulties.

Reading Fluency

A study sponsored by the U.S. Department of Education found that fluency, whether measured in terms of word recognition automaticity or expression, was strongly associated with silent reading comprehension for fourth grade students (Pinnell, G. S., Pikulski, J. J., Wixson, K. K., Campbell, J. R., Gough, P. B., & Beatty, A. S., 1995). Moreover, they found that nearly half of all fourth graders were found to lack even a minimal level of reading fluency. Daane, Campbell, Grigg, Goodman, and Orange (2005) replicated the aforementioned study and found similar results; reading fluency is significantly related to overall reading achievement for students beyond the primary grades, and a significant number of these students lacked even basic reading fluency skills. In this replicated study, the researchers found students needed to hear fluent reading so that they could develop an internal sense of fluency (Daane et al., 2005). This step towards fluency can be achieved by modeling with teachers reading to students aloud in

class. When teachers read to their students and then talk about the reading with students, they help them understand that fluent reading is normal speed with meaningful expression (Daane et al., 2005).

This study also found students who lack fluency in their reading need appropriate assistance while reading (Daane et al., 2005). This assistance could be practiced when students read and simultaneously hear someone read the same text with him or her. This person can be a teacher, parent, or other adult reading with the student (Daane et al., 2005). The student can be an older student or a peer partner reading with the student (Daane et al., 2005).

Finally, the second study of this kind found that fluency can be fostered if the student practices reading consistently (Daane et al., 2005). Students need to read and reread relatively short passages until fluency is achieved. Several studies have demonstrated that repeated readings of texts lead to improved reading of the passages, and also to previously unobserved improvements in fluency and comprehension of passages (Daane et al., 2005).

Students' self-concepts and the value they place on reading are critical to their success (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, & Mazzoni, 1996). In a study of self-concept in relation to reading and value of reading, gender differences can be identified as early as third grade. Marinak and Gambrell (2007) found that while third grade boys are equally as self-confident as girls about their reading, they self-report valuing reading less than girls.

A source that explains another shift in teaching reading and the challenges that teachers face is *Becoming a Nation of Readers* (Anderson, Heibert, Scott, & Wilkenson, 1985). This book summarized students exploring many genres of reading to improve their comprehension, fluency, and overall reading base. Educators began to realize that students needed to explore a variety of texts besides the basal reader to become a proficient reader (Anderson et al., 1985).

Specific Areas of Reading and Motivation

The authors suggest that teachers focus on five main areas of reading: (a) phonics, (b) phonemic awareness, (c) vocabulary, (d) comprehension, and (e) fluency (Brand & Brand, 2006). School districts nationwide are considering the use of different types of technology to aid teachers in these areas (Asselin, 2001). The Software and Information Industry Association reported that in studies focused on reading and language arts, technology was shown to provide a learning advantage in the areas of phonemic awareness, vocabulary development, reading comprehension, and spelling (Asselin, 2001). When an early multimedia literacy program combines software with print, audio, and visual materials, it provides teachers with a rich variety of tools to reach all individual learning styles and supports the opportunity to positively impact reading levels (Asselin, 2001).

Motivational processes are the foundation for coordinating cognitive goals and strategies in reading (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). For example, if a person is intrinsically motivated to read and believes she is a capable reader, the person will persist in reading difficult texts and exert effort to resolve conflicts and integrate text with prior knowledge (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). A learner with high motivation will seek books known to provide satisfaction (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). The cognitive abilities needed to find books, avoid distraction while reading, and assimilate new ideas are activated if the text is fulfilling internal goals. Becoming an excellent, active reader involves attunement of motivational processes with cognitive and language processes in reading (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000).

Ames (1992) found that motivation is multi-faceted, meaning that within an individual, some types of motivation will be stronger than others. Individuals with a mastery orientation seek to improve their skills and accept new challenges (Ames, 1992) and are dedicated to content

understanding and learning flexible skills. Individuals with a performance (or ego) orientation attempt to maximize favorable evaluations of their ability (Thorkildsen & Nicholls, 1998). Performance orientation is known as extrinsic motivation, associated with the use of surface strategies for reading and desire to complete a task rather than to understand or enjoy a text (Meece & Miller, 1999). Although both these broad goal orientations have implications for motivation, most motivation researchers believe that the task-mastery goal is more likely to foster long-term engagement and learning the performance goal, especially when the performance goal emphasizes fear of failure (Ames, 1992). Bandura (1986) defined self-efficacy as “people’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (p. 391). Schunk and Zimmerman (1997) reviewed research showing that students with high self-efficacy see difficult reading tasks as challenging and work diligently to master them.

In addition, social motivation for reading relates to children’s interpersonal and community activities. Children who like to share books with peers and participate responsibly in a community of learners are likely to be intrinsically motivated readers (Morrow, 1996). Guthrie & Wigfield found that, “Social motivation leads to increased amount of reading and high achievement in reading” (2000, p. 408). Students with high intrinsic motivation, a task orientation, and high self-efficacy are relatively active readers and high achievers (Guthrie et al., 2000).

Regrettably, motivation for reading decreases as children progress through school (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). One explanation focused on the capacity of children to understand their own performance. Children become much more sophisticated at processing the evaluative feedback they receive, and for some this leads to a growing realization that they are not as

capable as others (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). “A second explanation focuses on how instructional practices may contribute to a decline in some children’s motivation” (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000, p. 408); practices that focus on social comparison between children, too much competition, and little attempt to spark children’s interests in different topics can lead to declines in competence beliefs, mastery goals, and intrinsic motivation, and increases in extrinsic motivation and performance goals (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000).

Declines in interest and competence beliefs regarding English language arts are pronounced as children enter middle school (Wigfield, Eccles, MacIver, Reuman, & Midgley, 1991). Oldfather, Dahl (1994), Oldfather, and McLaughlin (1993) found that the intrinsic motivation of students to read declined as they entered middle school. Change in motivation reflected changes in classroom conditions. Children in these studies moved from a self-contained, responsive classroom that honored students’ voices, where formal grades were not awarded, to a teacher-centered environment in which students had fewer opportunities for self-expression and little opportunity for negotiating with teachers about their learning (Wigfield et al., 1991). These changes in environment led students to become more focused on extrinsic motivational goals, such as achieving good grades.

The aspects of motivation that have been discussed are distinct from several other effective attributes of students. Motivation is distinct from attitude (McKenna, Kear, & Ellsworth, 1995), which refers to enjoyment of a task. For instance, with respect to reading, students may report high self-efficacy without a fondness for reading. Some students reported that they were good at reading, but did not like the task (Oldfather & McLaughlin, 1993). Motivation is also distinct from interest, which is usually associated with a topic, such as outer space, dinosaurs, or military history (Alexander, Jetton, & Kulikowich, 1996; Schiefele, 1996;

Schraw, 1997). In comparison, motivational attributes are usually more general. The intrinsically motivated reader is disposed to read a wide range of topics and genres (Oldfather & McLaughlin, 1993).

Devotion to reading spans across time, transfers to a variety of situations, and culminates in valuable learning (Campbell, Voelkl, & Donahue, 1997). Devoted students are intent on reading to understand. They focus on meaning and avoid distractions. Strategies such as self-monitoring and making inferences are used with little effort (Campbell et al., 1997). These readers exchange ideas and interpretations with fellow students. Campbell et al., (1997), refer to such students, those who are intrinsically motivated to read for knowledge and enjoyment, as “engaged” readers.

Engagement is strongly related to reading achievement (Campbell et al., 1997). In the United States, a national sample of students at three ages (9, 13, & 17 years) revealed that the more highly engaged readers showed higher achievement than the less engaged readers (Campbell et al., 1997). In cross-age comparisons, 13-year old students with higher reading engagement achieved at a higher level than did less engaged 17-year old students (Campbell et al., 1997). Engagement in reading can also compensate for low achievement attributed to low family income and educational background (Campbell et al., 1997). In the same national study, engaged readers from low income/education families achieved at a higher level than did less engaged readers from high income/education backgrounds (Campbell et al., 1997). Engaged readers can overcome obstacles to achievement and become agents of their own reading growth (Guthrie, Schafer, & Huang, 2001).

An engaged reader comprehends a text not only because he or she can, but also because he or she is motivated to read. Oldfather and Dahl (1994) portrayed students’ enjoyment of

reading for its own sake as essential to engaged reading. Cambourne (1995) argued that engagement is a merger of multiple qualities that includes holding a purpose, seeking to understand, believing in one's own capability, and taking responsibility for learning.

The authors found engaged readers be motivated, strategic, knowledgeable, and socially interactive (Guthrie et al., 1996). Engaged readers are motivated to read for a variety of personal goals. They are strategic in using multiple approaches to comprehend (Guthrie et al., 1996). They use knowledge actively to construct new understanding from text, and they interact socially in their approach to literacy (Guthrie et al., 1996).

Choice and Motivation

Choice is widely acknowledged as a method for enhancing motivation. Allowing young children to make a minimal task choice increased learning from the task and enhanced subsequent interest in the activity (Cordova & Lepper, 1996; Iyengar & Lepper, 1999). Worthy and McKool (1996) found that allowing students to make choices about their reading material increased the likelihood that they would engage more in reading. Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) suggested that providing genuine student choices increases effort and commitment to reading.

Read-alouds and discussion are effective ways to engage in mastery modeling. Read-alouds allow teachers to model important reading strategies and behaviors. McGee and Richgels (2003) noted that teacher "read alouds" can be used to promote deeper understanding and interpretation of text, allow children to take an active role in understanding text, and prompt children to begin using mental activities that will become automatic as they begin reading independently. According to Gambrell (1996), small group discussions invite children into active learning. When students engage in small group discussions, they have more opportunities to speak, interact, and exchange points of view than are afforded in other talk structures.

Providing balanced book collections at all grade levels is vital to engagement during reading instruction and when students are choosing books. Pappas (1993) found that children as young as kindergarten showed a preference for informational text. Many students gravitate toward informational texts and stay on one topic unless their teacher suggests more topics of interest. Mohr (2006) noted that nonfiction books were the overwhelming choice of first grade students. Marinak and Gambrell (2007) found that third grade students valued reading newspapers and magazines as well as books.

Many schools, teachers, and parent organizations use rewards in reading programs, though parents and teachers struggle with the decision to reward their children or students for reading. Marinak and Gambrell (2008) found support for the reward proximity hypothesis. A recent study indicated that carefully selected rewards can support, not undermine, reading motivation.

Measuring Reading Motivation in Students

Instruments have been developed by other researchers to attempt to measure student-reading motivation. One instrument, The Motivation to Read Profile, was developed by Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, and Mazzoni (1996) and was used at the elementary level. The instrument was used with elementary students and it was comprised of 20 items that measured two areas of a child's reading motivation (Gambrell et al., 1996). The first was their self-concept as a reader and the second was their value of reading. Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) also discussed how these dimensions are similar to the self-efficacy, curiosity, and involvement dimensions of reading motivation. They also wanted to research how the dimensions of reading motivation related to their reading activity. They measured the amount students were reading using the Reading Activities Inventory (Guthrie, McGough, & Wigfield, 1994). This inventory

asks student to list the books they have read and how often they read different genres of books. They also measured how the school monitored their individual reading selection and the amount of time they were asked to read (Guthrie et al., 1994).

The dimensions of reading motivation most strongly related to reading activity were social, self-efficacy, curiosity, involvement, recognition, grades, and importance. There were extrinsic and intrinsic reasons for the student's reading activity, but the intrinsic reasons for reading related more strongly than did the extrinsic reasons (Guthrie et al., 1994).

Leveled Literacy Programs

Two of the most noted authors regarding early reading are Fountas and Pinnell. In 1996, the two reading experts revolutionized classroom teaching with their systematic approach to small-group reading instruction. Fountas and Pinnell designed the Leveled Literacy Intervention program, created in response to the demands of teachers and administrators for a scientifically based early intervention program for struggling readers (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). The system featured an A–Z Text Gradient, the benchmark assessment system to provide teachers critical feedback on both the strengths and the needs of readers in kindergarten through grade five (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996).

The work from Fountas and Pinnell (1996) supported the need for a dynamic Response to Intervention (RTI) program in schools. RTI programs have developed due to changes in special education laws that focused on learners who struggled in the early grades. It is very important that teachers and parents help students read at grade level from early elementary on. If a child is not a fluent and accurate reader, this skill deficit will affect his or her comprehension. If their comprehension is affected, students may struggle in all academic subjects.

The need for an effective RTI program in schools suggested that many reading specialists should use Fountas and Pinnell's (2006) Leveled Literacy Intervention program, a small group, intensive, supplementary intervention system designed specifically to help struggling readers and writers. In direct response to the urgency to have students on grade level in the early years, LLI seeks to bring each student to grade-level competency in just 14-18 weeks. Schools have to show accountability, and this program provides measurable goals and benchmarks. Well before funds were to become available from the Federal government, Fountas and Pinnell worked on their intervention program for students and teachers. The authors knew that there have been few options available for struggling students unless they were referred for special education services. The process formulated by Fountas and Pinnell, is systematic, measurable, and can have proven results. LLI features a fairly tight framework of 300 lessons based on 300 separate reading texts, giving educators a cache of effective tools. Many reading programs today do not include a variety of texts, unlike the LLI program. The reading materials available include fiction, non-fiction, story series featuring recurring characters and some classic tales. The program allows for each student to have meaningful and measurable benchmarks and assessments.

Response to Intervention Programs

Response to Intervention (RTI) is a multi-step approach to providing children who struggle with additional reading instruction (Buffman et al., 2009). The process involves teachers making specific teaching adjustments to help struggling students be more successful (Buffman et al., 2009). Some students participate in reading programs with a reading specialist five times per week during their general education literacy block. Other students may receive reading support in the classroom in order to boost their skills and allow them to participate in the general education reading lesson. RTI provides students who struggle with reading differentiated

teaching sessions and strategies to help the students improve and return to general education (Buffman et al., 2009).

Lessons are differentiated and closely monitored to determine the effectiveness of each practice (Buffman et al., 2009). The interventions vary depending on the needs of each student. Teachers have a much larger skill set of strategies for helping students master specific concepts. The ongoing assessment process, referred to as progress monitoring, involves scientifically validated measurement tools (Buffman et al., 2009). Some schools use the DIBELS reading assessment system from the University of Oregon (dibels.org). This system requires a trained DIBELS specialist to test all students in grades K-5 three times a year (dibels.org). A fall, winter, and spring benchmark assessment will be given to determine what students are proficient, intensive, or strategic on the scale. If a student is intensive or strategic, the student can be progress monitored (Buffman et al., 2009). The student will take a DIBELS one-minute reading fluency assessment and recall assessment to aid the general education teacher in knowing if the core curriculum is allowing that child to make progress. If the student does not make gains on the progress monitoring assessment, the student will be referred to RTI or another reading support program in the school so he or she can make progress toward specific fluency, accuracy, and comprehension goals (Buffman et al., 2009).

A child is referred to the Building Intervention Team (BIT) if they participated in RTI and failed to make adequate progress. The BIT team will review the records and determine if the child should be tested for other services. The next step may involve considering a child for special education services; parents, the Individual Education Team (IEP), and any other necessary staff should meet to initiate the process. Many excellent readers use one strategy at a time as a way of encouraging strategic comprehension (Palincsar & Brown, 1984). Some

teachers think that the whole language approach will help students master comprehension strategies. Teachers also need to master how to increase fluency during higher order reading processes, including the automatic use of comprehension and monitoring strategies (National Reading Panel, 2000). According to this perspective, comprehension will only be maximized when readers are fluent in all the processes of skilled reading, from letter recognition and sounding out of words, to articulation of the diverse comprehension strategies used by good readers (e.g., prediction, questioning, seeking clarification, relating to background knowledge, constructing mental images, and summarizing) (National Reading Panel, 2000).

The term *high interest / low vocabulary* is often used to describe books for students with reading difficulty. These materials have controlled vocabulary and specific reading difficulty levels, but the topics are appropriate to older students (Rog & Kropp, 2005). Struggling readers should not be limited to high interest / low vocabulary books in all their reading (Rog & Kropp, 2005). Some students can read material well beyond an identified measured instructional level; if they are interested in the topic and motivated to read.

Action and adventure books can cover a number of interesting topics for fifth grade girls and boys. For boys especially, non-fiction has considerable appeal, particularly when titles can be found that match their interests and hobbies (Rog & Kropp, 2005). The key is to link reading material to the topics that interest the students including: (a) extreme sports, (b) World War II fighter jets, or (c) even NHL hockey (Rog & Kropp, 2005). Nonfiction text provides a number of supports for a struggling reader: headings and subheadings, graphics and illustrations, introductions, and summaries. A further advantage to nonfiction text is that the reader does not need to read the entire book to benefit from the information, because the reader can gain information and pleasure from reading short segments (Rog & Kropp, 2005).

Children with parents who promote literacy at home have higher reading fluency rates, better comprehension and decoding scores, and higher reading achievement in the elementary grades (Padak & Rasinski, 2007). Students that read before entering first grade have a higher chance of reading at or above grade level throughout elementary school than those who don't (Padak & Rasinski, 2007). Hart and Risley (2003a) transcribed 30 hours of tape-recorded family talk and found that that 86-98% of the words a child uses were from their parent's vocabulary. They also discovered a discrepancy between the socioeconomic status of some families and the number of words per hour their child heard (Hart & Risley, 2003a). On an average, the children from the wealthiest families heard over 1,500 words per hour and the children from the lower income families heard an average of 616 words per hour (Hart & Risley, 2003a). The rate of a child's vocabulary growth at age three is linked to their third grade standardized test scores in receptive vocabulary, listening, speaking, semantics, syntax, and reading comprehension (Hart & Risley, 2003a). Clearly, popular culture and home life influence the reading ability of children a great deal.

Parents Supporting Reading Development

Parents can help their child become an excellent reader by reading to them (Alexander & Filler, 1976). It is important to read to children even if they may have already started to read independently. Parents can ask questions about plot, setting, inferences, character development, visualization, sequencing, and summarization strategies if a teacher provides the questions to them (Alexander & Filler, 1976). The attitude that a parent has about reading at home can be very important in a child's motivation to read (Alexander & Filler, 1976). There are many outside factors that can affect a student's ability to read: having a stable home life, parental

support after school, sibling dynamics, access to materials, and focus (Alexander & Filler, 1976). A child's reading ability level can be dependent on variables that include: hearing, speaking, prior knowledge, memory, and how to recall information (Askov & Fishback, 1973).

In order for parents to support independent reading at home, they need specific guidelines to know what to do with their child (Alexander & Filler, 1976). The reading activities must be easy to implement. Parents can continue to read to their children after they are reading independently. They are encouraged to select a book that is one grade level above their child's so he or she can hear new words, and can also follow along in the text while the parent is reading (Alexander & Filler, 1976). A child can also be encouraged to read to another sibling, a pet, or even a stuffed animal. Children should take home texts suited to their reading level (Alexander & Filler, 1976). It is important to send home recommended book lists for each grade so a student can keep up with their peers, if that is attainable (Alexander & Filler, 1976).

The study by Cox (1994) discussed two different preschools that had students who were ages four and five. The students in the rural preschool, in which 70% of the families were low income, participated in a dictated story (Cox, 1994). The university preschool also participated in a dictated story. The students from the rural preschool selected a story to read to the class and the students at the university preschool brought stories from home to read aloud (Cox, 1994). Almost 65% of the students in both settings made implicit and explicit utterances (Cox, 1994). There was no difference in achievement between the two preschools, even though the students had different reading experiences outside school.

Studies by Rasinski (2006) explained that: (a) fluency leads average readers to become excellent readers and (b) fluency has been neglected in some reading programs. Schools, teachers, school administrators, textbook authors, and other staff members did not view reading

fluency as an important issue for reading education (Rasinski, 2006). Fluency was measured as either an oral reading rate or reading rate and some teachers did not believe it was important (Rasinski, 2006). Another study found that fluency was identified as one of five instructional factors (National Reading Panel, 2000). The National Reading Panel (2000) study deemed that fluency is the gateway to comprehension. Fluency is the ability to read words effortlessly so that the reader can preserve their cognitive resources for comprehension (National Reading Panel, 2000). The reader can make accurate meaning of the words and discuss the information with others. Fluency is the first step towards comprehension, and becoming an excellent reader (National Reading Panel, 2000). Students must have some degree of fluency to understand what they have read. Some students do not read words correctly, read the punctuation incorrectly, or interpret words incorrectly (National Reading Panel, 2000). This will change the meaning of the text, and their comprehension will be inaccurate (National Reading Panel, 2000).

A study on fourth grade reading sponsored by the U.S. Department of Education (Pinnell, et al., 1995) found that fluency, whether measured in terms of word recognition automaticity or expression, is strongly associated with silent reading comprehension of fourth grade students. Almost half of the students had minimal fourth grade reading comprehension skills. Fluency is the key to reading success for elementary students and many students who struggle in reading have difficulty with this skill (Pinnell et al., 1995).

Another author discussed the importance of oral reading and suggested it should be a meaningful part of the curriculum (Rasinski, 2003). All aspects of “read alouds” provide students with the opportunity to have meaningful responses (Rasinski, 2003). Rasinski discussed “quick reads” and how they can be used to build fluency and promote comprehension if they are used

correctly. Rasinski found that one minute reading probes can also be used to assess fluency and assessment (2003).

Reading Assessments

For students to become advanced readers in the upper elementary level, Rasinski and Padak (2005) suggested that the students participate in three-minute assessments on a formal basis. The teacher is able to gather data, refine lessons, and present material that will help the student reach the next reading level (Rasinski & Padak, 2005). The teacher can assess a student's word recognition, fluency, and comprehension. Other fluency experts, Brand and Brand (2006), suggested that fluency be incorporated into the daily classroom routine, similar to the whole language model. A poetry session can involve oral and silent reading, along with writing (Brand & Brand, 2006). If the students are writing their own poetry, they may discover how the stanzas, patterns, rhymes, and themes in the poetry they are reading for class are grouped (Brand & Brand, 2006). Talk and text "read alouds" also can promote student fluency (Brand & Brand, 2006). Students need stamina in reading and in writing in order to build fluency; the authors suggest that this is practiced in incremental sessions every month throughout the year, until all students are reading fluently at or above grade level (Brand & Brand, 2006).

Traditionally, there has been a tendency among educators to view the primary grades as the time to master recognition and comprehension skills (Block & Pressley, 1996). The authors recognized that the starting point for the development of many comprehension skills is teacher modeling of those skills. The authors, Block and Pressley (1996), were impressed that when researchers have asked primary-level students to use comprehension strategies and monitoring, the children have benefited greatly (as cited in Brown, 1996). Interest exists in expanding comprehension instruction in the early elementary grades, with the hope that this early

instruction will affect 5- to 8-year-olds and lead to development of better comprehension skills over the long term (Block & Pressley, 1996).

It is clear that good readers use strategies to comprehend text and strategies can successfully be taught to children (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). There is renewed interest in teaching strategies one at a time as a way of encouraging strategic comprehension. Keene and Zimmermann's (1997) *Mosaic of Thought* advanced the idea that teachers can become hooked on comprehension strategies themselves and come to understand the importance of strategies by learning them, though some teachers resist teaching comprehension strategies packages (Pressley & El-Dinary, 1997). It is important for teachers to be trained on effective comprehension strategies in order for them to present the material accurately. Keene and Zimmermann's approach also leads teachers who are more strategic in their own reading to find more effective in teaching strategies to young readers (1997).

The use of comprehension processes must be automatic, and successful teaching of higher order comprehension processes occurs over years (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). Automatic, fluid articulation of comprehension strategies develops slowly, when it is presented and practiced (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). There is increasing awareness that teaching of comprehension strategies has to be conceived as a long-term developmental process and although much is known about how to teach comprehension strategies when students are first learning them, very little is known about how teaching should occur as students are internalizing and automatizing strategies (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). Comprehension will only be maximized when readers are fluent in all the processes of skilled reading, from letter recognition and sounding out of words to articulation of the diverse comprehension strategies used by good

readers (e.g., prediction, questioning, seeking clarification, relating to background knowledge, constructing mental images, and summarizing) (National Reading Panel, 2000).

Cultural Differences and Background Knowledge

In the early 20th century, there was a belief among many literary scholars that some interpretations of texts were better than others. Louise Rosenblatt's (1978) research suggested that there are many legitimate interpretations of most texts. Cultural theorists have done much to promote awareness that a variety of legitimate interpretations can come from the same text because of cultural differences in readers (Rosenblatt, 1978). Background knowledge and cultural awareness affect reading comprehension and fluency in many ways. In order for students to understand the text, the teacher must present background knowledge, review the strategies the student can use, present vocabulary words until they are mastered, and re-teach basic information (Rosenblatt, 1978).

Of particular concern to educators is the development of academic language. Although we learn oral language that enables us to speak to one another, learning academic language is more complex because it involves abstract literacy tasks and language not customarily used in oral speech (Fang, Schleppegrell, and Cox, 2006; Zwiers, 2004). Academic language is a second language because all literate people must learn it to enable them to access academic content (Solomon & Rhodes, 1995). For English learners (ELs), academic language may represent the task of learning a third language (Solomon & Rhodes, 1995). Therefore, special care is provided to give them every advantage in learning academic language, particularly in content areas. For example, research suggests that Spanish-speaking students are instructed to recognize cognates and use cognate information to comprehend English texts.

Students with Reading Disabilities

While many students may be able to achieve fluency through repeated practice of silent or oral reading, students who struggle with reading need specific fluency instruction (McLaughlin, 2012). A student with a learning disability is likely to have different needs than a student with a visual impairment, and that student has different needs than a student with autism. Students within the same category of disability can also vary tremendously in terms of the supports and services they might need to truly access the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) (McLaughlin, 2012). Students with disabilities have an IEP specifying the supports and accommodations to help them individually access the CCSS.

Struggling readers encounter negative consequences: grade retention, assignment to special education classrooms, or participation in long-term remedial services. Further, as they progress through the grade levels, the academic distance from those who read well grows more pronounced (The Learning First Alliance, 1998; Rashotte, Toregesen et al., 1997; National Reading Panel, 2000).

To illustrate, students with the most severe reading problems often have difficulty decoding words rather than comprehending text (Torgesen et al., 1997). A major contributing factor to this difficulty is a problem with phonological processing (i.e., the association of sounds with letters in oral language and when reading). Fortunately, research has shown that explicitly teaching beginning readers skills related to sounds in oral language and letter/sound relationships, as well as how to translate this information into words, can help to reduce the impact of a reading disability for many students (Siegel, 2005). Using a common example, they need direct or explicit practice with reading passages beginning at levels where they are fluent and with reading in small, timed segments (McLaughlin, 2012).

The components of an effective reading program are: (a) phonics instruction, (b) listening comprehension, (c) reading comprehension, (d) tutoring, and (e) an at-home component. These program components are consistent with those identified by other researchers (Carson, 1999; Gaskins, Ehri, Cress, O'Hara, & Donnelly, 1996; Learning First Alliance, 1998; Torgesen et al., 1997; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998).

RTI and special education student numbers have risen in recent years, and more attention has been paid to the instructional development of reading skills in struggling readers than in proficient readers (Chapman & Tunner, 1995). There is increasing realization that more information must be sought about the effects of comprehension instruction on the full range of readers. There are many high school and college readers whose comprehension is low, affecting graduation rates dramatically (Chapman & Tunner, 1995).

Technology and Reading Instruction

Literacy educators need to use the tools that 21st century technologies affords them (International Reading Association, 2009). Currently, we can assume that access to information and communication technologies (ICTs) will continue to improve with the increased availability of inexpensive mobile devices and the U.S. Department of Education's inclusion of technology in education reform (National Education Technology Plan, 2010).

Although the pervasiveness of ICTs in all aspects of 21st century life is quite clear and well accepted, it is less clear how teachers might successfully integrate technology into literacy instruction, specifically vocabulary instruction. Improving students' vocabulary is an area of urgent need to develop student ability to the advanced literacy levels required for success in school and beyond (Biancarosa & Snow, 2006; Graves & Watts-Taffe, 2008). Vocabulary is also an area where teachers need guidance on instructional approaches, strategies, and materials

(Berne & Blachowicz, 2008). Technology can be used to deliver and reinforce new vocabulary that students need to master.

There is a wide range in students' word knowledge and, as early as age five, there is a 30-million-word exposure gap between students who live in different economic classes (Hart & Risley, 1995). The results of this gap manifest in students' literacy learning, particularly reading comprehension. The Matthew Effect, where strong readers get stronger and weak readers get weaker (Stanovich, 1986), as well as the fourth-grade reading slump (Chall & Jacobs, 2003), can be attributed, at least in part, to a less developed store of conceptual knowledge and vocabulary (Dalton & Grisham, 2011). A positive aspect is that vocabulary can improve and that improvement can impact reading (Chall & Jacobs, 2003). Teaching words, morphology, and word origins is an important component in any vocabulary-learning program. According to Chall and Jacobs (2003), it is also necessary to provide multiple exposures to a word in different contexts and to teach word learning strategies, such as using context clues, cognate information, and deciding when a word is important to know and remember. Although teaching can make a real difference in vocabulary learning, explicit teaching of vocabulary is not enough; a dedicated teacher can teach perhaps 300-400 words per year (Chall & Jacobs, 2003).

Direct vocabulary instruction is essential, but research indicated that students with well-developed vocabulary learn many more words indirectly through reading than from instruction (Cunningham & Stanovich, 2001). Two strategies that encourage children to read widely and deeply are to provide an array of reading materials that capitalize on their interests, and to set aside time for reading during the school day and at home (Trelease, 2006). Conversations about their reading with adults and peers also strengthen word learning in students (Biemiller & Boote, 2006).

Whether directly teaching vocabulary and word learning strategies, or increasing students' volume of reading, promotion of a lively interest in words through student expression and participation in a learning community is essential (Graves & Watts-Taffe, 2008). Such participation increases enjoyment in playing with words, builds on individual interests as well as curriculum needs, and emphasizes self-efficacy in word learning (Graves & Watts-Taffe, 2008). The recommendations to improve vocabulary by encouraging wide reading, teaching words and word learning strategies, promoting active learning, and interest in words are not new (Graves & Watts-Taffe, 2008). It is crucial that school leadership encourages teachers to apply these research-based recommendations in new ways, using digital tools, media, and the Internet to deliver vocabulary learning.

Despite the amount of technology and media, they are not always a priority for teachers responsible for vocabulary instruction strategies and materials (Berne & Blachowicz, 2008). In order for teachers to be effective, they can use the ten eVoc strategies and organize them into instructional areas, including strategies for teaching words and word learning strategies and on-demand digital language tools to support timely strategic vocabulary learning and reading (Berne & Blachowicz, 2008). There are also ways to increase the volume of reading to support student's vocabulary learning. Effective technology should be part of the solution to the vocabulary gap.

Another team who developed a reading self-concept questionnaire was Chapman and Tunmer (1995), whose tool assessed students on these dimensions of reading: self-concept, perceptions of competence at reading, perceptions of reading difficulty, and attitudes, or feelings toward reading. Mc Kenna et al., (1995) developed a 20-item scale to measure reading attitudes. They included questions that measured how much students like to read in school and for pleasure. This scale is similar to the curiosity and involvement dimensions used by Wigfield and

Guthrie (1997). Another tool used to motivate students is the eVoc strategy, which teachers can use to develop students' vocabulary learning and interest in words. The term “eVoc” can be used to highlight strategies that rely on digital tools to suggest learning potential that is possible when technology and media are part of instruction.

Technology, when used well, can help deliver and assess reading lessons because it motivates students (Berne & Blachowicz, 2008). However, teachers must be cautious of using technology in a way that prohibits learning. The value of educational time spent on using technology to support student's literacy development rests on its ability to promote higher-level thinking, collaboration, constructivism, speed, and information evaluation (Asselin, 2001).

Asselin asserted that students would need to have technological knowledge and skills to be prepared for the 21st century (2001). One way for students to attain technical knowledge is for teachers to integrate technology into their daily curriculum. It is important for students to use different types of technology that require them to use higher-level thinking, collaboration and information evaluation and using technology can motivate students who have difficulty reading and transferring information (Asselin, 2001).

Today, students interact with several types of modalities or literacies; they no longer just see words in books (Asselin, 2001). As new technologies emerge, students must gain more knowledge on the types of literacy they see (Asselin, 2001). Enhanced literacy education is very important, especially due to changes in the different literacy types and the profound impact of technology on the learning and teaching of literacy (Asselin, 2001). The nature of literacy itself is changing rapidly, and even the development of book technologies in the early 1500s prompted the need for increased book literacies (Asselin, 2001). New literacies emerge as evolving technologies for information and communication demand new skills for their effective use.

These include the literacies of word processors, e-mail and the Internet. Asselin called for the community of literacy educators to actively respond to the emergence of these new literacies in original and creative ways (2001).

Principal as Instructional Leader

Fullan (2008) has written extensively about the concept of change, highlighting the virtues and pitfalls inherent in the process. Fullan (2008) learned that there are blocks that can prevent the change process from happening in a succinct manner. Dane and Schneider (1998), describe five implementation phases for school programs. The first, fidelity, refers to the extent an innovation corresponds to an intended program (Dane & Schneider, 1998). The second is identified as dosage, and refers to how many of the program components have been implemented; the third phase, quality, describes the level of effectiveness for the implemented components; the fourth phase is participant responsiveness and refers to the degree to which the program maintains the participants' interest (Dane & Schneider, 1998). Program differentiation defines the final phase and refers to how the program's theory and practices are distinguished from other programs (Dane & Schneider, 1998).

One unique aspect of principal leadership is that of instructional leader (Leithwood & Duke, 1999). Interest in the role of the instructional leader has fluctuated through the years, often because other competing priorities in education have taken precedence (Leithwood & Duke, 1999), although instructional leadership has become a popular theme in education leadership over the last two decades. Leithwood and Duke (1999) noted that in a careful analysis of articles on school leadership in four academic journals from 1988-1998, instructional leadership was the most frequently mentioned educational leadership concept that was found. The role of leadership and instructional design has evolved over the years: "Today, instructional leadership remains a

dominant theme, but it is taking a much more sophisticated form” (Lashway, 2002, p. 3). To understand how the concept of instructional leadership has evolved into its present form, it is important to understand early perspectives on instructional leadership before attempting to frame how and why the role changed and exploring current applications of the role (Lashway, 2002).

Another description of instructional leadership by Krug (1993) included the five-factor taxonomy. He offers a five-factor taxonomy that organizes all activities in which an instructional leader should engage in order to be effective in helping raise academic student achievement (Krug, 1993). The five categories are: (a) defining a mission, (b) managing curriculum and instruction, (c) supervising and teaching, (d) monitoring student progress, and (e) promoting instructional climate (pp. 431-433). These factors were similar to those identified by Hallinger and Murphy (1985) and by Marsh (1997), though Krug (1993) did not specifically address collaboration between the principal and staff or links to outside resources.

Hallinger (1992) illustrated support of the comprehensive view of instructional leadership when he wrote that the instructional leader was “viewed as the primary source of knowledge for development of the school’s educational program” (p. 37). This description highlights the expectation that the principal is to be “knowledgeable about curriculum and instruction and able to intervene directly with teachers in making instructional improvements” (p. 37). Further, Hallinger’s assertion also supports the growing notion that the role definition of the instructional leader includes holding expectations for teacher and students, providing close supervision of instruction, coordinating the curriculum and monitoring student progress. Though Hallinger supports a broad view of instructional leadership, his viewpoint places the principal in a dominant position over the teacher and does not support the notion of collaboration.

Administrative Leadership in Curriculum Development

Another perspective of instructional leadership facilitating curriculum development and improvement was presented by Marsh (1997). The leader needs to define the mission of the school (Marsh, 1997). They should manage the coordination of the curriculum, promote the quality of instruction, conduct clinical supervision and teacher evaluation/ appraisal, align instructional materials with curriculum goals, allocate and protect instructional time, and monitor student progress (Marsh, 1997). They should promote an academic climate by establishing high expectations for student learning and behavior (Marsh, 1997). The leader(s) should provide incentives for teachers and students along with promoting professional development efforts. Marsh also tasks leaders with developing a safe and orderly environment that welcomes staff collaboration and cohesion (Marsh, 1997).

In comparison, the four characteristics of an instructional leaders identified by Bossert (1988) seem more managerial in their focus. As an example, he identified power and decision-making and effective management as necessary but does not identify promoting an academic climate or attention to the curriculum (Bossert, 1988). He does recognize that placing value on strong human relationships is an important characteristic of instructional leaders. The four characteristics defined by Bossert were: (a) emphasis on goals and production, (b) power and strong decision-making, (c) effective management, and (d) strong human relations. As the 1980s ended, Bossert noted that school principals should become more effective school leaders (1988).

Leadership Implementation of Curriculum

The first of Durlak and Dupre's (2008) categories of program implementation is community and includes politics, funding, and policy. The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislation is an example of policy that may enhance or impede implementation depending upon

how the policy is perceived to impact student achievement (Durlak & Dupre, 2008). A major focus of the curriculum alignment task force is to determine whether the curriculum will be standards based or integrated or a blend of both (Glatthorn et al., 2012). The second category noted by Durlak and Dupre (2008) outlined characteristics of leaders related to implementation. These include the need for innovation, benefits, self-efficacy, and skill proficiency. Kallestad and Olweus (2003) found that leaders who recognize a need for innovation believe it will produce the desired benefits, are confident in meeting expectations, possess the skill set needed, and are more likely to implement a program at a higher levels of fidelity.

The third category mentioned by Durlak and DuPre (2008), innovation, focused on the characteristics that leaders need for implementation and adaptability. Adaptability was defined by the provider's ability to adapt programs to meet their needs while compatibility suggests that providers and organizations implement new programs that fit with the organization's mission, priorities, and practices (Durlak & Dupre, 2008). Aligning system components reassures that expectations for student learning are not only taught but tested as well (Glatthorn et al., 2012). The fourth category, delivery system, sets forth that the delivery system for implementation of innovation falls into one of three categories: general organizational features, specific organizational practices and processes, or specific staffing considerations (Durlak & Dupre, 2008). Effective leadership is crucial to implementation and the existence of at least one program champion has long been recognized as a valuable resource to encourage innovation (Durlak & Dupre, 2008).

The fifth category for effective implementation of an innovation was training (Durlak & Dupre, 2008). With the development of effective collaborative teacher teams, principals are finding successful leadership is not about how great a job one does, but how successful one's

teachers are (Paige, 2010). Training assists providers in developing mastery, and attends to their motivation, expectations, and sense of self-efficacy. “In a truly aligned system, four things connect in an integrated way: what you teach, how you test it, what’s the best curriculum to achieve that, and what are the best methods to teach it” (Richardson, 2010, p. 32). Durlak and DuPre (2008) emphasized that training should include modeling, role-playing, and performance feedback. The training can also provide re-training of initial providers, training new staff, and emotional support (Durlak & Dupre, 2008).

Leadership Strategies

Sergiovanni (2001) identified four leadership strategies: bartering, building, bonding, and binding. Sergiovanni (2001) stated, “not every situation a principal faces requires the same leadership strategy” (p. 131); indeed, principals must construct their practice based on the circumstances surrounding a situation (Sergiovanni, 2001). Bartering refers to situations where principals and teachers strike a bargain. This type of strategy allows principals to give something to teachers in exchange for a desired outcome (Sergiovanni, 2001). Building differs from bartering in that leaders provide conditions that enable teachers to feel psychologically fulfilled. Sergiovanni (2001) defined bonding as the relationship between principals and teachers based on mutually held obligations and commitments, which relates to the fourth strategy, binding, which brings principal and teachers together as a community that has shared values and beliefs (p. 132). Binding calls on teachers to be morally responsive to do what is best for the sake of the student. Sergiovanni (2001) emphasized that although these stages indicate a developmental sequence, they can be used interchangeably to suit the principal’s need at any point during a situation.

Reeve (2009) presented practical guidelines for implementing steps that will increase the likelihood of success. Reeves stated that in order to prepare for the change, individuals should

begin by taking the Change Readiness Assessment (Reeve, 2009). Once individuals have analyzed where they fit on the readiness continuum, leaders use that information to assess the organization (Reeve, 2009).

Kral (2003) discussed six tenets by which principal leadership is paramount to any type of reform: (a) support change, (b) active participation, (c) prime the pump, (d) model collaboration, (e) build relationship trust, and (f) make it happen. These tenets revolve around the principal's involvement in all aspects of innovation. Kral (2003) indicated that a principal's involvement signals to the staff his or her commitment to change. Without that commitment, staff members are unlikely to proceed with the innovation (Kral, 2003).

Durlak and DuPre (2008) examined over 500 studies to conduct a meta-analysis of the effectiveness of individuals in leadership roles. The research focused on leadership effectiveness across different disciplines, noting the impact of implementation on program outcomes and identifying factors affecting the implementation process (Durlak & Dupre, 2008). Durlak and DuPre (2008) noted that transferring innovations into real word settings "is a complicated, long-term process that requires dealing effectively with the successive, complex phases of program diffusion" (p. 327). The researchers also stated that, "these phases include how well information about a program's existence and value is supplied to communities (dissemination), whether a local organization or group decides to try the new program (adoption), how well the program is conducted during a trial period (implementation), and whether the program is maintained over a period of time (sustainability) (p. 327).

Summative and Formative Evaluation of Employees

Two broad types of evaluation are summative and formative (Sergiovanni, 1987). Summative evaluation involves concluding or making a judgment about the quality of a teacher's

performance (Sergiovanni, 1987). This kind of evaluation rates the teacher's performance as meeting, exceeding, or falling below some standard of teaching competence or some level of acceptable teaching performance (Sergiovanni, 1987). Summative teacher evaluation is an administrative function intended to meet organizational needs for teacher accountability and always seeks to determine if the teacher has met minimum expectations (Sergiovanni, 1987). If the teacher has not met his or her professional responsibilities, the summative process documents inadequate performance for the purpose of remediation and, if necessary, termination (Sergiovanni, 1987). Sometimes summative evaluation also gathers data to determine if the teacher is eligible for rewards provided by the district for outstanding performance (Sergiovanni, 1987). Summative evaluation does not lead to instructional improvement for most teachers (Glickman et al., 2013).

Successful formative evaluation depends on trust and communication (Bass, 1990). Bass (1990) argued that transformational leadership motivates followers to do more than expected; in matters of school change, traditional top-down leadership is a recipe for failure (Glickman et al., 2013).

Summary

Researchers have identified a number of factors important to reading motivation, including self-concept and value of reading, choice, and time spent talking about books, types of text available, and the use of incentives. Students' self-concepts and the value they place on reading are critical to their success (Gambrell et al., 1996). Marinak and Gambrell (2007) identified as early as third grade. Marinak and Gambrell (2007) found that though third grade boys are equally as self-confident as girls about their reading, they self-report valuing reading less than girls.

Choice is widely acknowledged as a method for enhancing motivation (Gambrell et al., 1996). Allowing young children to make even a minimal task choice increased learning from the task and enhanced subsequent interest in the activity (Cordova & Lepper, 1996; Iyengar & Lepper, 1999). Worthy and McKool (1996) found that allowing students to make choices about their reading material increased the likelihood that they would engage more in reading. In addition, Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) suggested that providing genuine student choices increases effort and commitment to reading.

Current educational research provides several models for leaders to use as guidelines for implementing change; Sergiovanni (2001) identified the four leadership strategies, which he refers to as the Four B's, Reeve (2009) recommended a readiness assessment before implementing change, and Kral (2003) outlined six leadership tenets essential to change.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

There are two key approaches in this qualitative multiple case study methodology including: (a) one proposed by Robert Stake (1995) and (b) the second by Robert Yin (2003). Stake (1995) and Yin (2003) base their approach to case study on a constructivist paradigm. This paradigm “recognizes the importance of the subjective human creation of meaning, but doesn’t reject outright some notion of objectivity” (Miller & Crabtree, 1999, p. 10). “Pluralism, not relativism, is stressed with the focus on the circular dynamic tension of subject and object” (Miller & Crabtree, 1999, p. 10). Crabtree and Miller (1999) mentioned that one of the advantages of this approach the close collaboration between the researcher and the participant, while enabling participants to tell their stories (Crabtree & Miller, 1999). Lather (1992) and Robottom and Hart (1993) believe that through these stories the participants are able to describe their views of reality and this enables the researcher to better understand the participants’ actions.

According to Yin (2003) a case study design should be considered when: a) the focus of the study is to answer the “how” and “why” questions, b) you cannot manipulate the behavior of those involved in the study, c) you want to cover contextual conditions because you believe they are relevant to the phenomenon under the study, and d) the boundaries are not clear between the phenomenon and context. The design of case studies in Yin (2009) relates data to propositions, and by pattern matching. This stems from the fact that Yin (2009) views the purpose of case study research as theory development and theoretical propositions are a starting point (and not the result) of case study analysis. Case studies aim at analytical generalization as if they were an experiment and construct, internal and external validity, and reliability are the prerequisites (evaluative standards) for conducting case study research (Yin, 2009). Yin (2009) carefully

distinguishes between single and multiple case studies. Comparing a single case study with an experiment, Yin (2009) maintains that single case studies are relevant for critical cases in order to test theory, or to analyze cases that may be extreme, typical, revelatory, or longitudinal. Multiple case design has its advantage in constructing a framework in which either literal replication whereby different results are likely for theoretical reasons.

There are multiple definitions and understandings of the case study. According to Bromley (1990), it is a “systematic inquiry into an event or a set of related events which aims to describe and explain the phenomenon of interest” (p. 302). Data come largely from documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participant observation and physical artifacts (Yin, 1994).

According to Yin (1994) the case study design must have five components: (a) the research question(s), (b) its propositions, (c) its unit(s) of analysis, (d) determination of how the data are linked to the propositions and (e) criteria to interpret the findings. Yin (1994) concluded that operationally defining the unit of analysis assists with replication and efforts at case comparison. Yin (1994) points out that case studies are the preferred strategy when “how” and “why” questions are posed.

Stake (1995) emphasized that the number and type of case studies depends upon: (a) the purpose of the inquiry, (b) an instrumental case study is used to provide insight into an issue, (c) an intrinsic case study is undertaken to gain a deeper understanding of the case, and (d) the collective case study is the study of a number of cases in order to inquire into a particular phenomenon.

Stake recognizes that there are many other types of case studies based on their specific purpose, such as the teaching case study or the biography. Feagin, Orum and Sjoberg (1991) state that irrespective of the purpose, unit of analysis, or design, rigor is a central concern. They suggest that, while proponents of multiple case studies may argue for replication, using more than one case may dilute the importance and meaning of the single case.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative multiple-case study was to explore how fifth grade students experienced reading. If all schools had an excellent curriculum, appropriate assessments, and well-educated teachers, they should have advanced past their current state (Glatthorn et al., 2012).

Central Question

How did the fifth grade students experience reading?

Research Design

The multiple-case study methodology was chosen as a research design in order to better illustrate a more detailed picture of the corporate brand in each case in a way that generalizations and statistics typically can not (Yin, 2009). If the focus of a study is to obtain a holistic, in-depth investigation of a given phenomenon then case study research design is deemed an ideal methodology for this type of investigation (Feagin et al., 1991). To carry out the empirical part of a study, a triangulation approach is used to ensure the study captures the phenomenon under investigation.

Use of several cases qualifies the design as collective (Stake, 1995) or multiple-case (Yin, 2009) research design. A criticism of case study research is that it is not widely applicable

in other studies. Another criticism within generalization is that case study research that is not widely applicable in real life. While there is some truth in this criticism, it is argued that one should not approach a case, as though it was a single respondent (Tellis, 1997). Buttriss and Wilkinson (2006) maintain that generalization does not have to be universal or have wide applicability that researchers can acknowledge tendencies and patterns but these do not have to work for them to be present. Yin (1984) refuted criticisms by delineating analytic generalization and statistical generalization. Eisenhardt (1989) argues that case studies can be just a starting point for theory development and suggests a cross-case analysis involving several case studies may provide a good basis for generalization. Stake (1995) proposes the approach centered on a more intuitive, empirically-grounded generalization, which he termed naturalistic generalization. Yin (2009) explained that multiple case study methodology was opted for because this type of approach is generally preferred when ‘how’ or ‘why’ questions are posed.

In this qualitative multiple case study regarding student reading, in-depth interviews were utilized because the use of this method is a means that will provide deep understanding. In-depth interviews are deemed ideal for investigating, where researchers are seeking individual interpretations and responses. The information-oriented sampling (Yin, 2009) is representative and consists of a wide range of individuals. Thus, in this sample study students in three fifth grade classrooms at two schools, School A and School B, along with their teachers, were chosen as the target sample population. The primary goal of the interviews was to determine common themes for how fifth grade students experience about reading. The interviews lasted 15-20 minutes and were audio recorded.

In order to avoid having a study that is too broad, several authors including Yin (2003) and Stake (1995) have suggested that placing boundaries on a case can prevent this explosion

from occurring. Suggestions on how to bind a case include: (a) by time and place (Creswell, 2003), (b) time and activity (Stake, 1995), and (c) by definition and context (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Yin (2003) and Stake (1995) use different terms to describe a variety of case studies. Yin categorizes case studies as explanatory, exploratory, or descriptive. He also differentiates between single, holistic case studies and multiple-case studies. Stake identifies case studies as intrinsic, instrumental, or collective.

A multiple case study enables the researcher to explore differences within and between cases. The goal is to replicate findings across cases. Because comparisons will be drawn, it is imperative that the cases are chosen carefully so that the researcher can predict similar results across cases, or predict contrasting results based on a theory (Yin, 2003).

Participants and Setting

The concept of purposeful sampling is used in qualitative research (Creswell, 2007). This means that the researcher can choose the individuals and the site because they can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem (Creswell, 2007). The students participated in the reading study during their fifth grade school year. The 51 students were informed through a presentation about the project from School A and School B. The project presentation explained how the students could participate, allowed them to ask questions about the procedural steps, and explained how the data would be gathered and used. The students were allowed to ask questions over the next few days. The students received the consent letters (see Appendix B) and were asked to return them to their general education teacher within three days of receiving them. If a student was sick during that time period, they had the same number of days that they were sick to return the paperwork. Since the participants were minors, assent permission from the legal guardian was gathered before any testing was done.

There were 51 students who had the opportunity to participate in the Motivation to Read Profile survey. The three classroom teachers participated in an interview after returned the signed consent. The teachers were selected because they taught the fifth grade students who participated in the survey.

Both elementary schools chosen for the study were neighborhood schools and they served the students who lived within the elementary school boundary. School A had 240 students enrolled during the 2013-2014 school year. There were 122 male students and 118 female students in the school. There were ten special education students and 17 Response to Intervention students. There were 24 males and 18 females in fifth grade at School A for a total of 42 students. School A was located seven miles from a small town and the students who attend the school also had the opportunity to participate in winter sports, tennis lessons, swimming lessons, music club, and other activity clubs. Ten students, or 4% of the population qualified for free or reduced lunch.

The other school that participated in the study was School B that was located 35 miles from School A. There were 53 total students at School B including 28 male students and 25 female students. There were five special education students and seven RTI students. This small elementary school had one-fifth grade classroom with one teacher. There were nine students in the school who were in the fifth grade comprised of five males and four females. Eleven out of 53 students at this school qualified for free or reduced lunch, the consisted of 21% of the school.

The researcher of this study is a special education teacher at School A. The researcher had eleven students on the caseload in the K-5 school setting from 2013-2014. During that school year the researcher taught classes in the resource room and the students who were in the inclusion setting had support from paraprofessionals. The researcher did not interact with the two

fifth grade reading special education students on a daily basis because they were in the inclusion setting and received support from a paraprofessional.

Population and Sampling

Each fifth grade student participated in a brief lesson regarding the content of the research project while they were in their general education classroom. They took home the Consent Forms (Appendix A). The students read the forms with their parents/or guardians and they had three days to return the paperwork in order to participate in the survey and the interview. The students had extended time if they were sick, or absent on the day of the presentation to the general education class.

Purposeful Selection

Participants are purposefully selected in qualitative research (Creswell, 2007). This means that the inquirer selects individuals and sites for study because they can purposefully inform and understand the research problem and central phenomenon in the study (Creswell, 2007). Yin (1994) and Stake (1995) argued that using multiple sources of data is important for ensuring construct validity. In addition to the primary research methods, the example study used multiple sources of evidence including reader's notebooks and Essentials Unit Reading Tests.

Data Collection

The researcher conducted open-ended interviews with individual students in order to document their responses regarding the reading questions from the Motivation to Read questionnaire. Each participant was interviewed for 15-20 minutes and the interviews were audio-recorded. The information was then transcribed in order to categorize it into a coding scheme. The transcript lengths ranged from 3-20 pages in length. This resulted in the analysis of

a comprehensive set of interview information. The process of reading and re-reading the transcriptions were used to produce subcategories for information analysis within the context of two research areas of interest: (a) the student's perspectives on reading, and (b) the teacher's perspectives on reading. Statements were be partitioned into units, grouped in common category heading, analyzed, and summarized (Hancock & Algozzine, 2011). Plausibility of subcategories was established by testing them with new information units until all relevant information has been assigned to a category (Hancock & Algozzine, 2011). In this way, common codes were identified and the differences between participants noted. Establishing information analysis credibility also involved (a) implementing inter-rater reliability coding checks, (b) uncovering biases that might skew the researcher's perspective, and (c) comparing obtained outcomes to previously published research findings (Lehmann, 1998).

Role of the Researcher

When designing and implementing a case study there are several elements to the design that can be integrated to enhance overall study quality or trustworthiness (Baxter & Jacobs, 2008). Researchers using this method will want to ensure enough detail is provided so that readers can assess the validity or credibility of the work. As a basic foundation to achieve this, novice researchers have a responsibility to ensure that: (a) the case study research question is clearly written, propositions (if appropriate to the case study type) are provided, and the question is substantiated; (b) case study design is appropriate for the research question; (c) purposeful sampling strategies appropriate for case study have been applied; (d) data are collected and managed systematically; and (e) the data are analyzed correctly (Russell, Gregory, Ploeg, DiCenso, & Guyatt, 2005).

Case study research design principles lend themselves to including numerous strategies that promote data credibility or “truth value.” Triangulation of data sources, data types or researchers is a primary strategy that can be used and would support the principle in case study research that the phenomena be viewed and explored from multiple perspectives (Baxter & Jacobs, 2008). The collection and comparison of this data enhances data quality based on the principles of idea convergence and the confirmation of findings (Knafl & Breitmayer, 1989). As data are collected and analyzed, researchers may also wish to integrate a process of member checking, where the researchers’ interpretations of the data are shared with the participants, and the participants have the opportunity to discuss and clarify the interpretation, and contribute new or additional perspectives on the issue under study (Baxter & Jacobs, 2008).

The Research Instrument

The Motivation to Read Profile consists of two basic instruments: The Reading Survey and the Conversational Interview (Gambrell, L.B., Palmer, B.M., Codling, R.M., & Mazzoni, S.A. 1996). The Reading Survey is a Likert-type, self-report, group-administered instrument, and the Conversational Interview should be administered on an individual basis. The survey assessed two specific dimensions of reading motivation, self-concept as a reader and value of reading. The interview provided information about the individual nature of students' reading motivation, for example what books and stories were the most interesting, their favorite authors, and how children locate reading materials that interest them (Gambrell et al., 1996). The Motivation to Read Profile combines information from a group-administered survey instrument with an individual interview and it is a useful tool for more fully exploring the personal dimensions of students' reading motivation. The Motivation to Read Profile is highly individualized, making it particularly appropriate for inclusion in portfolio assessment.

The reading survey consisted of 20 items and used a four point Likert-type response scale. The survey assessed two specific dimensions of reading motivation: self-concept as a reader (ten items) and the value of reading (ten items) (Gambrell et al., 1996). The items that focused on self-concept as a reader were designed to elicit information about students' self-perceived competence in reading and self-perceived performance relative to peers. The value-of-reading items were designed to elicit information about the value students place on reading tasks and activities, particularly in terms of frequency of engagement and reading-related activities (Gambrell et al., 1996).

The interview (Appendix F) is comprised of three sections. The first section probed motivational factors related to the reading of narrative text (three questions); the second section elicited information about informational reading (three questions); and the final section focused on more general factors related to reading motivation (eight questions) (Gambrell et al., 1996).

The interview was designed to initiate an informal, conversational exchange between the teacher and student. Conversational interviews are social events that can provide greater depth of understanding than more rigid interview techniques (Gambrell et al., 1996). The teacher was encouraged to deviate from the basic script in order to glean information that might otherwise be missed or omitted in a more formal, standardized interview approach (Gambrell et al., 1996). Teachers need to keep in mind that the primary purpose of the conversational interview was to generate information that will provide authentic insights into students' reading experiences (Gambrell et al., 1996). Participating in a conversational interview allowed children to use their unique ways of describing their reading motivation and experiences, and it also allowed them to raise ideas and issues related to personal motivation that may not be reflected in the scripted interview items (Denzin, 1970).

An assessment instrument is useful only if it is valid and reliable (Gambrell et al., 1996). Validity refers to the instrument's ability to measure the trait it purports to measure, while reliability refers to the ability of the instrument to consistently measure that trait. To gain information about the validity and reliability of the MRP, the Reading Survey, and the Conversational Interview was field tested (Gambrell et al., 1996).

An initial pool of survey items was developed based on the criteria described above. Three experienced classroom teachers, who were also graduate students in reading, critiqued over 100 items for their construct validity in assessing students' self-concept or value of reading. The items that received 100% agreement by the teachers were then compiled (Gambrell et al., 1996). The agreed upon items were then submitted to four classroom teachers who were asked to sort the items into three categories of function: (1) measures self-concept, (2) measures values of reading, and (3) not sure or questionable (Gambrell et al., 1996). Only those items that received 100% trait agreement were selected for inclusion on the Reading Survey instrument.

The final version of the Reading Survey instrument was field tested in the late fall with 330 third- and fifth-grade students in 27 classrooms in four schools from two school districts in an eastern state (Gambrell et al., 1996). To assess the internal consistency of the Reading Survey, Cronbach's (1951) alpha statistic was calculated, revealing a moderately high reliability for both third grade (.70) and fifth grade (.76) (Gambrell et al., 1996).

Approximately 60 open-ended questions regarding narrative and informational reading, general and specific reading experiences, and home and school reading practices were developed for the initial pool of interview items (Gambrell et al., 1996). These items were field tested in the spring with a stratified random sample of 48 students (24 third-grade and 24 fifth-grade students). These two classroom teachers were asked to identify these students according to three

reading-ability levels: (1) at grade level, (2) above grade level, and (3) below grade level (Gambrell et al., 1996). The teachers were then asked to identify, within each of the three ability level lists, the two most "highly motivated readers" and the two "least motivated readers." Twenty-four students from the list of most highly motivated readers and 24 students from the list of least motivated readers participated in the field testing of the 60 interview items (Gambrell et al., 1996). Two graduate students, who were former classroom teachers, analyzed the 48 student protocols and selected 14 questions that revealed the most useful information about students' motivation to read. These 14 questions were used for the final version of the Conversational Interview (Gambrell et al., 1996).

An additional step was taken to validate the Motivation to Read Profile (Gambrell et al., 1996). Responses to the survey and the interview were examined for consistency of information across the two instruments (Gambrell et al., 1996). The survey and interview responses of two highly motivated and two less motivated readers were randomly selected for analysis. Two independent raters compared the student responses on the survey instrument with their responses on the interview for each of the four students (Gambrell et al., 1996). For example, one item on the survey asks the students to indicate whether they think they are a "very good reader," "good reader," "OK reader," or "poor reader." Comments made during the conversational interview were then analyzed to determine if students provided any confirming evidence regarding their self-perceived competence in reading as they reported on the survey instrument (Gambrell et al., 1996).

Two raters independently compared each student's responses to items on the survey with information provided during the interview, with an interrater agreement of .87 (Gambrell et al., 1996). There was consistent, supporting information in the interview responses for

approximately 70% of the information tapped in the survey instrument (Gambrell et al., 1996). The results of these data analyses support the notion that the children responded consistently on both types of assessment instruments (survey, interview) and across time (fall, spring). Teachers should take into consideration grade level and attention span when deciding how and when to administer the survey instrument. For example, teachers of young children may decide to administer the first 10 items in one session and the final 10 during a second session.

The survey was designed to be read aloud to students (Appendix D). One of the problems inherent in much of the motivational research is that reading ability often confounds the results so that proficient, higher ability readers are typically identified as "motivated," while less proficient, lower ability readers are identified as "unmotivated." (Gambrell et al., 1996). Research indicates that this characterization is inaccurate and that there are proficient readers who are *not* highly motivated to read, just as there are less proficient readers who *are* highly motivated to read (McCombs, 1991; Roettger, 1980). When students are instructed to read *independently* and respond to survey items, the results for the less proficient, lower-ability readers may not be reliable due to their frustration when reading the items (Gambrell et al., 1996).

It is also important that students understand that their responses to the survey items were not going to be "graded." They were told that the results of the survey would provide information that the teacher could use to make reading more interesting and the information would only be helpful if they provided honest responses (Gambrell et al., 1996).

Directions for scoring the Reading Survey and a scoring sheet were provided (Appendix E). When scoring the survey, the more positive response was assigned the highest number (i.e., 4) while the least positive response was assigned the lowest number (i.e., 1). For example, if a

student reported that s/he was a "good" reader, a "3" would be recorded (Gambrell et al., 1996). A percentage score on the Reading Survey was computed for each student as well as scores on the two subscales (Self-Concept As A Reader and Value of Reading) (Gambrell et al., 1996). Space was also provided at the bottom of the Scoring Sheet for the teacher to note any interesting or unusual responses that might be probed later during the conversational interview.

The Conversational Interview was designed to elicit information helped the teacher gain a deeper understanding of a student's reading motivation in an informal, conversational manner (Appendix F) (Gambrell et al., 1996). The entire interview took approximately 15-20 minutes but could easily be conducted in three 5-7 minute sessions, one for each of the three sections of the interview (narrative, informational, and general reading). Individual portfolio conferences are also an ideal time to conduct the interview (Gambrell et al., 1996).

It is suggested that teachers review student responses on the Reading Survey prior to conducting the Conversational Interview so that they may contemplate and anticipate possible topics to explore during the interview phase of the MRP (Gambrell et al., 1996). During a conversational interview, some children will talk enthusiastically without probing, while others may need support and encouragement. Children who are shy or who tend to reply in short, quick answers can be encouraged to elaborate upon their responses using nonthreatening phrases like "Tell me more about that . . .", "What else can you tell me . . .", and "Why do you think that . . . " Probing of brief responses from children is often necessary in order to reveal important and relevant information (Gambrell et al.,1996).

A total score and scores on the two subscales of the Reading Survey (Self-Concept as a Reader and Value of Reading) can be computed for each student (Gambrell et al., 1996). Teachers can then identify those children who have lower scores in these areas. These students

may be the ones who are in need of additional support in developing motivation to read and may benefit from interventions to promote reading engagement.

Students who have lower sub scores on the Self-Concept As a Reader scale may benefit from experiences that highlight successful reading (Gambrell et al., 1996). For example, to build feelings of competence, the teacher can arrange for the child to read books to children in lower grades. Students who have lower sub scores on the Value of Reading scale may benefit from experiences that emphasize meaningful purposes for reading. For example, the teacher can ask the child to read about how to care for a class pet or could involve the child in class plays or skits (Gambrell et al., 1996). If the class, as a whole, scored low on the Value of Reading scale, the teacher could implement meaningful cooperative group activities where children teach one another about what they have read regarding a particular topic. The teacher could also involve the class in projects, which require reading instructions (e.g., preparing a recipe, creating a crafts project, or performing a science experiment) (Gambrell et al., 1996). Class averages for the total score and sub scores on the Reading Survey (Self-Concept As A Reader and Value of Reading) were computed. This information was helpful in obtaining an overview of the classroom level of motivation during various points throughout the school year.

Teachers may also analyze class responses to an individual item on the Reading Survey (Gambrell et al., 1996). For example, if many children indicate on the survey instrument that they seldom read at home, the teacher may decide to implement a home reading program, or the teacher might discuss the importance of home reading and parent involvement during Parent Night (Gambrell et al., 1996). Another survey item asks children to complete the following statement: "I think libraries are" If many students report a negative response toward

libraries, the teacher can probe the class for further information in order to identify reasons which can then be addressed (Gambrell et al., 1996).

There are a number of ways in which the Motivation to Read Profile could be used to make instructional decisions, and teachers are in the best position to decide how they will apply the information gleaned from the MRP in their classrooms (Gambrell et al., 1996). Ideally, the Motivation to Read Profile would help teachers acquire insights about individual students, particularly those students about whom teachers worry most in terms of their reading motivation and development (Gambrell et al., 1996). The individualized nature of the information derived from the MRP makes this instrument particularly appropriate for inclusion in portfolio assessment. Careful scrutiny of the responses to the Reading Survey and the Conversational Interview, coupled with teacher observations of student behaviors in various classroom reading contexts, can help teachers plan for meaningful instruction that will support students in becoming highly motivated readers (Gambrell et al., 1996).

The information that was collected next was the individual student interview responses and the teacher interviews. Each interview was completed during one sitting and the student was reminded of the option that they could stop participating in the study at any time. Every student was reminded of the purpose of the study and they were interviewed in a quiet space in the school. The students and the teachers were encouraged to be honest about their reading. The students were reminded that this information would not affect their grade in general education, nor would it affect any other academic subject area. It was important for the students to know that it was necessary for them to voice their opinion about reading through the interview in order to gather honest answers that reflect their feelings.

When the interviews were completed and transcribed, each participant, a fifth grade student, would have the information member checked. The participants, teachers and students, were provided with their transcripts to check for accuracy. They would read the transcripts and note any errors that were made. The number of participants who noted errors, and helped the researcher to correct the transcript, are indicated in Chapter Four as part of the analysis. The changes were made on the transcript before the coding and analysis processes were conducted.

Data Analysis

The data collection and analysis occur concurrently in qualitative study. The type of analysis engaged depend on the type of case study. Yin (2003) briefly describes five techniques for analysis: a) pattern matching, b) explanation building, c) time-series analysis, d) logic models, e) and cross-case synthesis. In contrast, Stake describes categorical aggregation and direct interpretation as types of analysis. Yin (2003) notes that one important practice during the analysis phase of any case study is the return to the propositions (if used); there are several reasons for this. First, this practice leads to a focused analysis when the temptation is to analyze data that are outside the scope of the research questions (Baxter & Jacobs, 2008). Second, exploring rival propositions is an attempt to provide an alternate explanation of a phenomenon. Third, by engaging in this process the confidence in the findings is increased as the number of propositions and rival propositions are addressed and accepted or rejected. One danger associated with the analysis phase is that each data source would be treated independently and the findings reported separately (Baxter & Jacobs, 2008). This is not the purpose of a case study. Rather, the researcher must ensure that the data are converged in an attempt to understand the overall case, not the various parts of the case, or the contributing factors that influence the case (Baxter & Jacobs, 2008).

As data were collected and analyzed, researchers may also wish to integrate a process of member checking, where the researchers' interpretations of the data are shared with the participants, and the participants have the opportunity to discuss and clarify the interpretation, and contribute new or additional perspectives on the issue under study. Additional strategies commonly integrated into qualitative studies to establish credibility include the use of reflection or the maintenance of field notes and peer examination of the data. At the analysis stage, the consistency of the findings or "dependability" of the data can be promoted by having multiple researchers independently code a set of data and then meet together to come to consensus on the emerging codes and categories. Researchers may also choose to implement a process of double coding where a set of data are coded, and then after a period of time the researcher returns and codes the same data set and compares the results (Krefting, 1991). A hallmark of case study research is the use of multiple data sources, a strategy that also enhances data credibility (Patton, 1990; Yin, 2003). Potential data sources may include, but are not limited to: documentation, archival records, interviews, physical artifacts, direct observations, and participant-observation (Baxter & Jack, 2008). Unique in comparison to other qualitative approaches, within case study research, investigators can collect and integrate quantitative survey data, which facilitates reaching a holistic understanding of the phenomenon being studied (Baxter & Jack, 2008). In case study, data from these multiple sources are then converged in the analysis process rather than handled individually.

Another form of data gathered was from student's Reader's Notebooks and the Essentials Units test scores. A Reader's Notebook is an artifact where a student can reflect on their reading, ask questions about the characters, setting, purpose, plot, and sequence of the story to their teacher. Their teacher will respond and keep an open dialogue going regarding their

literature selection in this notebook. This artifact, the Reader's Notebook, is a rich narrative that is used throughout the school year.

Validity and Reliability

Four tests are commonly used to establish the quality of any empirical research (Yin, 2014). Using multiple sources of evidence in construct validity that encourages convergent lines of inquiry and is relevant to data collection (Yin, 2014). The second test is internal validity and it is mainly a concern if for exploratory cases when an investigator is trying to explain why x lead to event y (Yin, 2014). Also, a concern with case study research and internal validity is the broader problem of making inferences. A case study can make an inference every time an event cannot be directly observed (Yin, 2014). With external validity the problem of knowing whether a study's findings are generalizable beyond the immediate case study (Yin, 2014).

Figure 2.3 below explains the four tests (Yin, 2014)

TESTS	Case Study Tactic	Phase of research in which tactic occurs
Construct validity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ use multiple sources of evidence ◆ establish chain of evidence ◆ have key informants review draft case study report 	data collection data collection composition
Internal validity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ do pattern matching ◆ do explanation building ◆ address rival explanations ◆ use logic models 	data analysis data analysis data analysis data analysis
External validity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ use theory in single-case studies ◆ use replication logic in multiple-case studies 	research design research design
Reliability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ use case study protocol ◆ develop case study database 	data collection data collection

Figure 2.3 Case Study Tactics for Four Design Tests

One of the ways of achieving reliability is the development of the case study protocol (Tellis, 1987). Yin (1994) also asserts that the development of the rules and procedures contained in the protocol enhance the reliability of case study research. Reliability can also be achieved in several ways in a case study. Reliability is the extent to which the results can be repeated in ways that yield the same results. The importance of multiple sources of data to the reliability of the study is well established (Stake, 1995; Yin, 1994).

Triangulation

In triangulation, researchers make use of multiple and different sources, methods, investigators, and theories to provide corroborating evidence (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1988; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 1990). When collecting case study data, triangulation helps establish converging lines of evidence to make the findings of the study as robust as possible (Green, Camilli & Elmore, 2006). An advantage of a multi-case study is to have all of the sources of evidence, including the surveys, student and teacher interviews to compare to each individual readers notebook and Essentials Reading Unit test.

Conclusion

Chapter Three defined the design and methodology of this study in order to understand how fifth grade students experienced reading. This qualitative multi-case study approach was an appropriate method because it permitted the researcher to focus on issues in-depth to understand the participant's perspectives. Participants were selected based on purposeful sampling in order to gather data from fifth grade students and their teachers at School A and School B. There were 51 fifth grade students in three classrooms and three teachers who had the opportunity to participate in the study once they signed the consent forms.

Data analysis of a qualitative research study required the data to be analyzed continually. Using the constant-comparison method of categorizing, the researcher arranged the data into categories through coding. Chapter Four revealed the findings of the data collected that was analyzed to demonstrate the connection to this study's problem, the purpose, and to address the research questions. Valid and reliable data resulted in sufficient detail to add to the existing body of research in the area of how fifth grade students experience reading.

CHAPTER FOUR FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Findings and Analysis of Data

The purpose of this qualitative multiple-case study was to examine how fifth grade students experienced reading. Qualitative research, broadly defined, means "any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 17). Yin (2003) briefly described five techniques for analysis: a) pattern matching, b) explanation building, c) time-series analysis, d) logic models, and e) cross-case synthesis. A multiple-case study was used to gather data from the students and teachers in three fifth grade classrooms at two schools to attempt to answer the research question.

The significance of the qualitative multiple-case study was its ability to identify how fifth grade students experienced reading and what an educational leader could do to promote curriculum development with teachers to ensure that all students progressed academically. Research studies on reading created both discussion and confusion among educators (Glatthorn et al., 2012). According to Carob (2007), to increase the percentage of proficient readers, leaders must help teachers increase their reading methods.

The central question in this multiple-case study was: how did the fifth grade students experience reading?

The information from the surveys, interviews, fifth grade Reader's Notebooks and documents was considered using the constant-comparative method of categorizing data. This method focused on the data collection and continually examination for examples of similar patterns (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984). The constant-comparative method allowed the ability to continually look for information that represents a pattern, until no new information provided further insight into that pattern (Creswell, 1998).

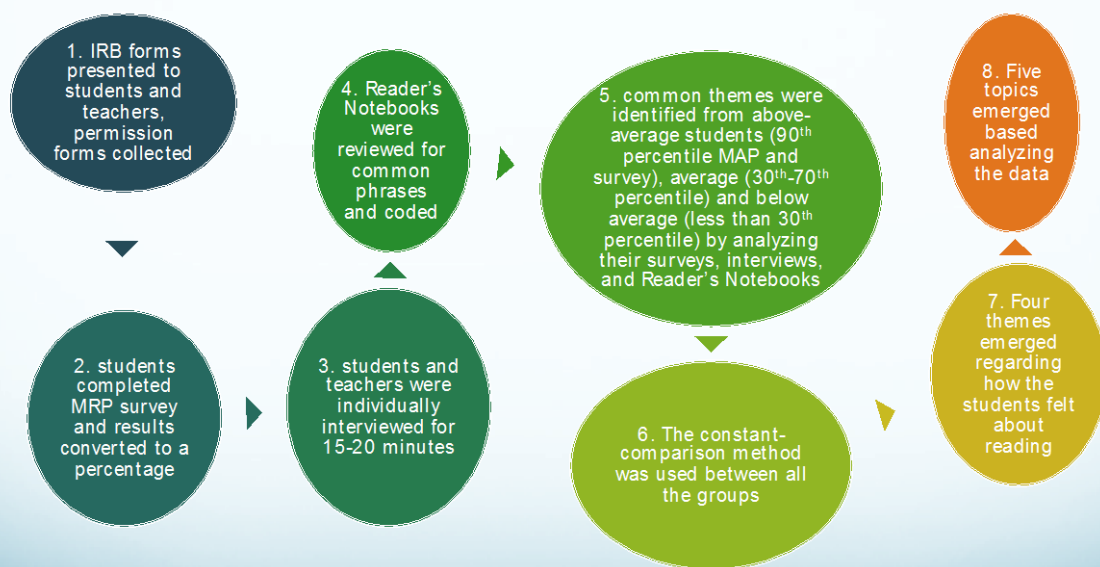
In qualitative research, the goal of coding is to organize the data and rearrange into categories that facilitate the comparison of data within and between these categories to aid in the development of theoretical concepts (Strauss, 1987). These codes or categories emerged generally from the data beginning with the field interviews (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Coding allowed the researcher the ability to manage the data by labeling, storing, and retrieving it.

Data analysis occurred throughout the data collection process. The first step was to analyze the data after the students completed their reading surveys. The next step was to have the students and teachers participate in the individual interview sessions. The interviews were audio recorded, transcribed, and member checked to ensure accuracy. Next, the researcher read the Reader's Notebooks and other field documents submitted by the students. The data was coded and organized into themes regarding how fifth grade students experienced reading. Helpful approaches by the leader include using examples of other school curricula, contemporary approaches to knowledge development, new approaches to curriculum design and development, evaluation and assessment, as well as hands-on-training in computer and technology use (Glatthorn et al., 2012).

Research studies also focus on teaching students thinking and learning routines that incorporate comprehension strategies as part of instruction (Pearson & Tierney, 1984). Palincsar's (1984) original work in reciprocal teaching showed how comprehension strategy instruction improved student learning from the text. Students need to be aware of what they read, to ensure that students have a deeper understanding, and higher level of retention of the material (Palincsar, 1984). The amount of print that students are exposed to over time has a significant effect on their reading level (Palincsar, 1984).

Statements were partitioned into units, grouped within a common category heading, analyzed, and summarized. Plausibility of subcategories was established by testing them with new information units until the relevant information was assigned to a category (Hancock & Algozzine, 2011). In this way, common codes were identified and differences between participants noted. Establishing information analysis credibility involved a) implementing inter-rater reliability coding checks, b) uncovering biases that might skew the researcher's perspective, and c) comparing obtained outcomes to previously published research findings (as cited in Hancock & Algozzine, 2011) and adapted from Lehman, 1998, pp. 130-133.)

Data Collection and Analysis



Collecting Data Protocol

The researcher contacted the potential participants, fifth grade teachers from two schools for the study, in person and via email. After reviewing the letter of explanation, the researcher collected the signed document for consent to participate from the teachers that allowed them to participate in the study. Next, the researcher scheduled an interview session with each teacher. The researcher then reviewed the student assent form with the three fifth grade teachers and scheduled a time to present the information to the class. The information was presented to each class and the script that was approved by the IRB committee from University of Montana-Missoula was followed. Finally, the students had the opportunity to ask questions and to take the student consent form home to review, along with a copy of the parental permission form.

After the information about the study was presented to the teachers and students in the three fifth grade classrooms at schools A and B, the researcher gathered the consent forms. There were three teachers who returned the forms and 22 students. The students who returned the forms participated in the reading survey as a small group in each classroom.

The students were interviewed individually in a classroom where each interview lasted about 15-20 minutes. The interviews were audio recorded with the participant's permission. At the beginning of each interview, the students were reminded that they were being audio taped and they could opt out at any time during the study. The audio recording of each interview was transcribed by an outside party and each participant was provided the opportunity to review drafts of the transcriptions for accuracy

The students in this study had the opportunity to explain why they enjoyed reading, how their enjoyment influenced their book selections, as well as the amount of time they read daily. By gathering information from most fifth grade students, it helped provide information about

what skills and strategies they currently use to read. After looking at the responses to their interview questions, a better understanding of what skills and strategies the students need was developed. After the interview information was collected and analyzed by the researcher, the information was presented to the teachers and staff to help facilitate a curriculum that allows students to increase reading progress in fluency, comprehension, and accuracy.

Field notes were handwritten during each interview, providing additional insight into the interactions with the participants, allowing the researcher to capture the context and meaning of each interview (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). The information recorded helped to identify themes to support other sources that triangulated the data. Each participant was asked the same number of interview questions, where follow-up questions were asked for a students or teacher to provide more information on a certain topic that emerged.

The students' Reader's Notebooks were collected after obtaining permission from the student and their teacher. The Reader's Notebooks provided a comprehensive reading reflection of their independent reading books, classroom reading assignments, daily reading reflections, Essentials Reading Units lessons, and written responses.

Participants

To ensure confidentiality, participants were given names that were pseudonyms. The following profiles of the actual fifth grade teachers provide background information on each participant. See Table 1 below for teacher reference codes.

TABLE 1

Title of table

<u>Teacher's Name</u>	<u>Code</u>
XXXX (School A)	Terry Jones

XXXX (School B)

Pat Smith

XXXX (School C)

Jess Nelson

Terry Jones

Terry Jones is a fifth grade teacher at school A and this teacher currently serves as the schools lead teacher, handling administrative duties when the principal is not available. Terry Jones worked on the district's math content team, a 2-year commitment, to evaluate curricular needs for the students in grades K-12, beginning in August of 2014. This teacher served on the Wilson School Writing Goal Team for two years and previously was a member of the Reading Goal Team. Terry Jones is a well-respected member of the school community who strives to empower students to be the best they can be, by holding them to high expectations.

Pat Smith

Pat Smith is a fifth grade teacher at school A and this teacher has a Master of Arts in Teaching. This teacher started as a Title I teacher in kindergarten and then taught inclusive second grade classes including gifted and talented, special education, bilingual learners, and general education students for six years. Pat Smith started an alternative education program and was the lead teacher and administrator for grades K-6 in a multi-age setting for two years. This teacher then joined school A as a first grade, and then became a fifth grade teacher. Pat Smith's mission is to instill a passion for life-long learning in each child. Pat Smith believes that each child makes a difference in this world and in this environment.

Jess Nelson

Jess Nelson worked in the field of education for 11 years. This teacher taught summer school for school B and recently finished a long-term substitute teaching position in a 5th and 6th grade classroom. Jess Nelson previously worked as the Elementary Enrichment Specialist,

teaching math and reading enrichment to kindergarten through second grade students in the district's elementary schools. This teacher also taught in the Gifted and Talented program in the district's outlying schools. Jess Nelson's background includes other long-term substitute teaching positions within the district that includes teaching all elementary grades at another school.

The students who participated in the study have pseudonyms. They are listed in the Table 2 below.

TABLE 2

Fifth Grade Students

<u>Student Number</u>	<u>Pseudonym</u>
ST 1	Allie
ST 2	Bruno
ST 3	Cici
ST 4	Dee Dee
ST 5	Emily
ST 6	Frank
ST 7	Gigi
ST 8	Holly
ST 9	Izzy
ST 10	Jane
ST 11	Kelly
ST 12	Lilly
ST 13	Molly
ST 14	Ned
ST 15	Oliver
ST 16	Peter
ST 17	Quincy
ST 18	Rose
ST 19	Steve
ST 20	Tom
ST 21	Wyatt
ST 22	Victoria

Table 3

Classroom Profiles

Comparison Categories	Terry Jones	Pat Smith	Jess Nelson
Students in Class	21	23	7
Reader's Notebook	21	23	7
MAP Test	21	23	7
Read Nightly	21	23	7
Students in Study	9	6	7
Prefer Fiction	9/9	6/6	5/7
Prefer Nonfiction	0/9	0/6	2/7

Themes and Topics

Once the data from the various sources were collected, four general themes emerged regarding how fifth grade students experienced reading; (a) they enjoyed discussing books with their peers, (b) they enjoyed when their peers helped them select new books, (c) the students felt the most excited to read fiction books in the action or adventure genre, and (d) all of the students reported that they thought reading was important regardless of their MAP Reading Test scores. Related to the themes are the relationships to the foundations of reading: fluency, comprehension, and reading strategy skill development that support individual student's reading excellence. The four themes are interconnected and related to the five areas that were studied during the interviews; (a) Reading MAP scores from spring of 2014, (b) individual Reader's Notebooks, (c) Motivation to Read Profile Surveys, (d) individual student interviews, and (e) individual teacher interviews.

The four themes were interconnected and related to the topics that evolved from the questions asked during the student interviews. The five topics included: (a) fiction books were the most popular; (b) their peers help them select books; (c) the students wanted to increase their text level; (d) the amount of time students read outside of the school day was not consistent; and (e) most students and teachers enjoy reading outside of the school day.

Topic 1: The Fiction Books Were Most Popular Genre in Fifth Grade

The first topic focused on why fiction books based on action and adventure were the most popular for students in the study. The following students scored above the 90th percentile on the spring Reading Measure of Academic Performance (MAP) Test during the spring of 2014, while they were in fifth grade. The students in the 90th percentile all mentioned in their interviews that the action and adventure genre was their favorite area.

The theme of *action and adventure* was mentioned during the students' interviews when they described the genre of book they liked to read through the words exciting, thrilling, and fighting. According to the International Reading Association (2009), the favorite books for fourth and fifth graders are in the adventure genre. For example, in the book *The Contest*, by Gordon Korman, 20 young mountaineers vie for four spots on Summit Quiet, the world's youngest team to ascend Mt. Everest. Erin Hunter, author of the popular *Warriors* series, wrote the book *The Quest Begins* that follows three young bears; a polar bear named Kallik, a black bear named Lusa, and a grizzly named Toklo.

The students in the study participated in the Reading MAP normed test in the spring of 2014 in their general education class, along with the MRP survey, where they also completed their Reader's Notebooks. The first student in the study, Emily, had a Reading MAP score in the 94th percentile and she earned 92.5% on the Motivation to Read Profile Survey. Emily scored the highest in those two areas out of 22 students that participated in the study.

The researcher asked Emily, "How did you find out about the book you are reading called Focused Riding?"

Emily said, "My friend Sally was reading it and I read the back. There's a movie coming out about it and I found out about it from that, too."

The researcher asked, “Why was this story interesting to you?”

“Because it’s very well written and I like action books and fantasy the most. This is more of science fiction, kind of in the future, so I just it keeps me hooked. My trainer Mindy gave it to me” she replied.

The researcher asked, “How did you find out about other books?”

Emily said, “Twilight was a book that I found out about from my babysitter a long time ago; she was kind of obsessed with them along with my friends. I found out the *Hunger Games* from the movies and kids who were reading them, and *Divergent* I just learned about from friends.”

Emily also mentioned another book, *Wildwood*, in her Reader’s Notebook entry that students in the fifth grade were reading. Some students mentioned that they would like to read this book in a guided reading group. Emily realized that once the character in the book, Curtis, moved to *Wildwood*, he could act like himself. He immediately knew what he was supposed to do and the purpose of living there.

Emily also had an excerpt in her Reader’s Notebook entry regarding how she was intrigued reading the book, *The Enchanters*, because her thoughts changed, while she read the last part of the book. She said, “I loved how it went up in suspense and then down right where it needed to be.”

Emily thought that was probably the main reason why she is drawn to reading action and adventure books. She likes suspense, where she can identify if the book has the right amount of action during the first few chapters.

Another girl, named Quincy, also had much information to share. She had a Reading MAP score of 9he 7thth percentile, with a 98.75% on the MRP survey.

The researcher asked Quincy, “How did you find out about the Harry Potter Book number seven?”

She explained,

My friend, Alexia, recommended it to me and she is in sixth grade. I would also like to read *The Fault in Our Stars*, because a lot my friends have said the book is really good, and a movie’s coming out about it. My friend Dana told me about it; she and her sister have read all of the books by the author Sharon Creech.

Another student, Bruno, had a Reading MAP score in the 94th percentile, where he also earned an 88.75% on the MRP Survey. The researcher asked, “How did you know or find out about the story Tiger Claw?”

He replied,

One of my friends told me about this and said that I should read it. So, I read the first three books in two days each and then got to the fourth, and finished it in seven days. I liked the books, because they had a lot of action in them, suspense, and tension. I also found out about the fifth book of the Warrior series when one of my friends told me about them. Another book that I liked was *Jurassic Park* and my mom actually suggested that book. I read the first one and I really liked it and I wanted to read the second one. I started looking for more and I couldn’t find any so I decided to try the Warriors series. I am keeping my eye out for it, but I still haven’t found it.

The researcher asked Bruno, “What are some things that get you really excited about reading books?”

Bruno said, “Action, suspense, and tension, because I like books that have fighting.”

The researcher asked, “Why do you like books with fighting?”

He replied, “Probably because there’s a lot of action in the fighting, probably just the fact that I like to read. Adventure, that’s just that’s the genre I like the best.”

Topic 2: Their Peers Help Them Select Specific Books

Jane scored above the 90th percentile on the spring Reading MAP Test during the spring of 2014, while they were in fifth grade. She was actively involved in the reading discussion group in class, guided reading group, where she enjoyed writing in her Reader’s Notebook.

The researcher asked Jane, “How did you find out about the books that you want to read?”

Jane answered,

The book, *A Wrinkle in Time*, was recommended by my sister. She was reading them, she loved them so much, and she pushed me to read that book. The book called *Rick Riordan*, was suggested because of a bunch of friends. The book, *Grace Lin*, was another gift from my parents, and I thought it was pretty good. That author has written a lot of other books and that’s how I found out about her earlier books.

The researcher asked Jane, “What gets you really excited about reading books?”

Jane explained “excited, something that gets me excited. I guess when I see the opportunity to read it makes me excited to get reading. When there’s an open space where I’m not doing anything, just time, and when I have the time, that’s what makes me excited.”

Dee Dee, Steve, Tom, and Lilly also mentioned that if they hear someone talking about a book in class, they usually ask that person to explain the book. They will decide if they are

interested in reading the book that a peer suggests, after they hear about the main characters, the plot, and the genre of the book. Kelly and Rose thought it would be nice to have time on Friday afternoon to talk about books with their peers. They enjoy reading books that the other kids brought from home, where it would be nice to have small group discussions. Another term that was mentioned by many students in the study was *peer book selection*, because the students mentioned the words; *friends*, *sharing books*, *peer reading groups*, *guided reading groups*, and *reading popular books together*.

It is important for teachers to help students select the appropriate materials for students to be challenged, interested, and hooked on reading. The other students in the average range (around the 70th percentile) on the Reading MAP test and who earned average scores on the Motivation to Read Profile Survey reported that their teachers, parents, and peers helped them select books.

The researcher asked Oliver and Cici, “How did you know or find out about the book you are currently reading?”

Oliver said, “I was looking through Teacher D’s bookshelf, I couldn’t find a good book, and that teacher recommended the *Manny Files*. I read that and my friend recommended it, also.”

Cici explained,

My mom and my sister have read it and they really enjoyed it. I thought I’d make them happy and read the book. It’s funny and it’s not a boring book. It has a lot of feelings and it really puts you into the action scene. It is interesting because the main character has all these twists and turns. He has to think really hard to solve his problem and there’s a lot of conflict.

The researcher asked student Emily, “Who helps you get really interested and excited about reading books?”

She replied “probably my old teacher Mrs. Z, another person Teacher D, my auntie, and my friends. My auntie does book clubs and is my teacher, Teacher D’s, best friend. They all are very enthusiastic about reading books and they tell me what books are right and what books are probably not a very good fit for me.”

The researcher asked, “Please, tell me more about what they do.”

Emily said,

Well, Mrs. Z used to really get excited about what I was reading because she would get really into it and explained the characters. Teacher D recommends great books and wants you to keep them in your reading level range. This makes reading the book better because you can read easier and it’s still challenging, but it’s a good fit for you. My auntie probably knows every book, and she knows what’s in them, like, what I will like and what I won’t, because she’s read everything.

Quincy enthusiastically exclaimed, “My friends get me excited about books! They tell me about a book, and then they explain why I should read it.”

The researcher asked, “Please tell me more about what they do to emphasize it.”

Quincy answered, “They mention that this book is just so good and they explain the characters in detail. After a while, it makes me like want to read the book to find out what happens.”

While reading Quincy’s Reader’s Notebook entry, the researcher noted that she explained two life lessons that she gleaned from the book, *The Water Mirror*. The first was that the

character discovered if someone is blind they can make up for it in different ways because their senses may get stronger. The second lesson was that if someone is mean, it could be because they are afraid of that person if they are different.

Kelly wrote in her Reader's Notebook that theme of the book *Max*, by James Patterson, is "don't give up." Max was so set on finding her mom that every obstacle she had to defeat or cross, she conquered it. Kelly could make a connection because most moms are always there for their child. From personal experience, Kelly knows that there is a special bond from a parent to a child. When her mom or dad is helping her overcome a fear, they don't give up.

Bruno also explained how his family, friends, and teachers influenced his book selection. He explained,

My mom, my teacher, Mrs. D, and a lot of my friends that like to read mention books and influence my selection. Sometimes my dad helps me get interested in reading because he recommended the Patrick McManus books. Other family members, including my aunts, uncles, grandpas, and grandmas get me excited about reading books because they explain that they've read the book before and they thought it was really amazing. Then they gave me a couple of reasons why it was really interesting without spoiling the book.

Jane also mentioned, "That the person who influences her reading the most is her sister because we just read the Harry Potter series up to book four. I also get excited when my younger brother and sister ask me to read to them."

The students below had more than a 40 point difference between their Reading MAP score and their Motivation to Read Profile Survey score. These students did not score above the 31st percentile on their MAP tests and that put them in the low-average range on the normed test.

However they all value reading and their response percentile on their Motivation to Read Profile surveys was all above 67.5%. Therefore, their reading skills were low, according to the MAP Reading Test, however, they feel as though reading is important and beneficial according to their scores on their survey. It was noted that the students did not feel as though they struggled with reading, nor did they dislike reading. These specific students selected books based on suggestions from the librarians at the county library, from their parents, or by wandering around the library and picking up a book from the shelf. None of these students in the interviews revealed that they had read a book because a peer had recommended the book.

There may be a direct link between the reading level of text that a student's friends recommend and their individual score on the MAP Reading test. The students who scored low on the Reading MAP test did not have friends who suggested reading materials, nor did they mention participating in peer discussing groups. In the interviews, these students also did not mention that their relatives or family members recommended books to them.

The researcher asked the next student, Gigi, "How did you find out about your current book?"

Gigi explained, "Well, I went to the community library because I didn't have a book to read. So, I asked the librarian and she printed out the award-winning books for the year. I thought I could read *Rabbit Hill* or *Miss Hickory*. I chose *Miss Hickory* because it was there, or in, and that's how I found out that book."

In her Reader's Notebook entry, Gigi discussed another book that she read called *Secret*. In the book *Secret*, she wrote this allowed the friendship between Cass and Max to blossom because they went through a life-changing event together. Cass and Max Ernest trusted each other by rescuing Benjamin Blake from Dr. L and Ms. Mavis from sucking up his brain.

Allie said “Our librarian because she teaches us about books. She tells us how they are, and she tells us how she likes and what other people think about that book.”

Victoria said, “I try to get myself motivated to read by looking at *Shelfari*. We have a program called *Shelfari* in our classroom and I look at that center for new books.”

Victoria also said, “My teacher also helps me get excited to read because she tells us about fascinating books and she makes interesting statements.”

Time for students to talk about their reading and writing is perhaps one of the most underused, yet easy-to-implement, elements of instruction (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). The task of switching between writing, speaking, reading, and listening helps students make connections between, and thus solidify, the skills they use in each. This makes peer conversation especially important for English language learners, another population that we rarely ask to talk about what they read. The students who scored below the 30th percentile on the MAP reading test did not select books based on peer recommendation. Therefore, it is imperative for those students to have to participate in class with small book discussion groups in order for them to be motivated to read more, which will improve their literacy level.

For example, Izzy wrote in her Reader’s Notebook that “sometimes, something can work its’ way into your heart and change your mind forever. When Jack hated cats, but then he got a cat of his own, he now knows that he likes cats.” She also wrote in her Reader’s Notebook that in the book, *Leap of Faith*, it reminded her of when she does her horse shows. The connection with Annie was to keep going and it might work out. Emily wrote in her Reader’s Notebook that in the book *Divergent*, the main character shows that being brave is not hurting people for no reason but being selfless.

Izzy also said, “Even though I don’t read much at home I am a good reader because I read with my teacher.”

It was interesting that the students below the 30th percentile did not explain how they struggled with reading because they did not understand some vocabulary words, text features, transitions, character analysis, nor did they read much at home on their text gradient level.

Every child should talk with peers about reading and writing (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). Fall, Webb, and Chudowsky (2000) found better outcomes when kids simply talked with a peer about what they read, than when they spent the same amount of class time highlighting important information after reading. Similarly, Nystrand (2006) reviewed the research on engaging students in literate conversations and noted that even small amounts of such conversation (10 minutes a day) improved standardized test scores, regardless of students' family background or reading level.

Yet struggling readers were the least likely to discuss daily what they read with peers. This was often because they were doing extra basic-skills practice instead. In class discussions, struggling readers were more likely to be asked literal questions about what they had read, to prove they *got it*, rather than to be engaged in a conversation about the text (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). Providing struggling readers with 10 minutes per day of reading discussion would allow them to discuss interesting books and help propel them into a higher text level.

Topic 3: The Students Want to Increase Their Text Level

Teachers need to closely match texts to readers to help them experience effective reading. A gradient of text is a teacher tool used to assist in the selection of books and materials for guided reading (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). “Creating a text gradient means classifying books along a continuum based on the combination of variables that support and confirm reader’s

strategic actions that offer the problem-solving opportunities that build the reading process” (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996, p. 113). The level takes into account a composite of text factors described in other publications (Fountas & Pinnell, 2006; Pinnell & Fountas, 2008). Clay (2001) wrote about the way different kinds of learning come together and apply as children successfully process many texts on an increasing gradient of difficulty. Studies demonstrated that using children’s literature enhances both literacy development and children’s interest in reading (Hoffman, Roser, & Farest, 1988; Morrow, 1992; Morrow, O’Connor, & Smith, 1990).

The term, *leveled books* was repeated among many students in the study when they described selecting independent reading books when they chose a specific levels, like the level S. Leveled reading uses various assessment tools to determine how well a student reads, and then matches their reading level to books that challenge them to make progress. Books are categorized into levels of difficulty, which is how a perfect match, based on ability, can be made (Fountas & Pinnell, 2006).

Anderson and other researchers studied the relationship between growth in reading and the ways in which children spend their time outside of school (Anderson et al, 1988). Anderson et al. (1988) found that over a period of 26 weeks, “among all the ways children spend their time, reading books was the best predictor of several measures of reading achievement, including gains in reading achievement between second and fifth grade” (p. 285). However, on most days, most children did little or almost no reading outside of school (Anderson et al., 1988). If one examines these relationships, one can see that children who were in 98th percentile read 4,358,000 words over the 26 weeks, where children in 90th percentile read 2,357,000 words, but children at the 10th percentile read only 8,000 words (Anderson et al., 1988).

The researcher asked Quincy, "Please tell me about the most interesting book or story you have read this week or even last week. Take a few minutes to think about it."

Quincy responded by saying,

Well, I finished the Harry Potter series last week and that's a really interesting book, and it's the seventh book. All the books are kind of like mystery novels, but they also have fantasy in them, which is awesome because I like mystery. I also really like fantasy, so that's a good combination. Harry Potter is interesting because he's nice, he can be arrogant at times because he's like the one who has to fight Voldemort all the time. I also like Hermione, kind of, because she reminds me of myself a little bit.

The researcher asked her, "How does she remind you of yourself?"

Quincy responded by saying, "She likes reading just like I do. She is super organized and she does well in school. I also like Hagrid because he's really nice and he is Harry's friend, even though he's a teacher and lets Harry confide in him."

The researcher asked Bruno, "What is your favorite book?"

Bruno said, "Probably the Warriors series specifically book number four. There is a lot of fighting a lot of tension, and it's really exciting. One of the characters names is Iron Heart he is the deputy of the clan. He's got kind of a mortal enemy named Tiger Claw and he kills a bunch of cats. It's sad."

The next student, Emily, said, "Divergent is pretty intense, and that's what I like because it keeps me hooked constantly and the writing in the story is really good. In the book, they call them factions and its different ways that people believe in wars and why war happens. There's the brave, which are tough people, and the selfless, and they tell the truth a lot."

Jane also described the book *Folk Keeper* by saying, “I actually just finished a book last night. *Folk Keeper* was very interesting, because I could connect it with another story I had just read called *Summer of Moonlight Secrets*. I really liked the book, because the creatures were cool and it was a fantasy book. The book was about this girl who passed herself off as a boy because she was a Folk Keeper and they take care of creatures that eat only meat, milk, and eggs. They are really mean creatures, they’re scary and it’s very intense, because the creatures can take their anger out on anything. Corinna is taken to a manor to take care of the Folk there and she keeps a record. She meets a lot of great people and Corinna finds out about a woman called Lady Rana who is a person who can wrap her skin or sealskin around herself and then turn into a seal.”

Ned said, “*Harry Potter and the Sorcerer’s Stone* is my favorite book, because I really like books with a lot of adventure. It was on my level, so that helped a lot because it wasn’t too easy and it wasn’t really hard.”

Holly was also a Harry Potter fan. She described her favorite book that is fourth book in the series by saying “Harry Potter is a wizard and he lives with his only relatives besides Sirius Black. He lives with his aunt and uncle who treat him very badly and they don’t like him and he doesn’t like them. So he’s at Hogwarts and that is a school for wizards. He is magically in a tournament that he didn’t sign up for and he wins.”

Frank described his favorite book that is fiction, called *Holes* by saying “Camp Greenlake is basically a place where bad kids go in the book *Holes*. They have to dig holes that are 5 feet wide and 5 feet low every day for 18 months, in the very hot sun in the desert. Camp Greenlake is actually a dried up lake. It used to be the biggest lake in Texas and now it is not even a lake at all. So, the main reason that they are digging, and the campers don’t know, is because the warden wants them to find a briefcase that was stolen and buried.”

Oliver said, “*Wonder* is my favorite book because it’s about a kid named August who was born with a face that looks different. His mom makes him go to school for the first time and he thinks he’s going to hate it but when he gets there, at the end of the school year, he actually thanks his mom for sending him there. Most of the kids interacted with him in the beginning and the middle of the year but near the end of the year they started to like him.”

Izzy also described her favorite book in detail. She said, “Right now I’m reading *Ace The Very Important Pig* and it’s a good book to read. In the book, there’s the pig, and he was kind of the oddball they decided not to slaughter that pig, Ace. They named him Ace, because of his birthmark that looked like an ace and he’s really important so he gets to go in the house. It’s a good book because I like pigs and farms.”

Emily also wrote in her Reader’s Notebook about the novel *Searching for Dragons*. The student identified that the author wrote about a character that changed dynamically throughout the book. Mendenbar hated princesses in the beginning and then in the end he asked Cimorene to marry him and this showed that he was a dynamic character.

Peter explained his favorite book, a non-fiction selection call *Under Fire in the Middle East*. He was the only student out of 22 who mentioned that a non-fiction book was his favorite. He said, “It is a series of stories about some courageous acts by soldiers in the Middle East. In the book, a dog saves a National Guard Base, and the dog wasn’t trained to sniff explosives. The dog sniffed the explosives anyway and he caught a man sneaking a backpack into the National Guard Base. The dog jumped on the person who attacked the base and saved more than 300 lives.”

Most of the students in the study mentioned in the interviews that they read fiction books during their independent reading time. Duke (2000) conducted a study of 20 first grade

classrooms and found that informational texts constituted, on average, just 9.8% of texts in classroom libraries. The mean number of informational books per child was just 1.2% in low-income districts and 3.3% in high-income districts. On average, students spent just 3.6 minutes with informational text each day. Lower-income students logged just 1.9 minutes of exposure to informational text (for example, during student reading, teacher read alouds, or writing activities) during an average school day (Duke, 2000).

However, researchers have begun to uncover that it is not just *how much* students read that matters, but also *what* they read (Duke, 2000). In particular, students need to read and comprehend informational texts as often and as fluently in narrative texts. Researchers noted another benefit of nonfiction reading: the potential to motivate young children to read by tapping into their interests (Caswell & Duke, 1998). This outcome may, in fact, be the most important insight to be gleaned from research. Although students may continue to find fiction appealing, nonfiction does not have to be boring. Allowing students to explore and pursue their interests within a broad array of informational texts can help them to see that the real world can often be just as surprising and intriguing as make-believe.

Topic 4: The Amount of Time Students Read Outside of the School Day is Not Consistent

The amount of independent reading students complete directly impacts their reading level. Students who read more tend to learn more vocabulary, become more proficient readers, find reading more enjoyable, and thus continue to read more and become even better readers (Stanovich, 1986). Poor readers, on the other hand, tend to read less and lose ground. Over time, these differences create a widening gulf in learning. Students at the 90th percentile of reading (reading 21.1 minutes a day) encounter 1.8 million words a year, while students in the 10th

percentile (reading less than one minute per day) read only 8,000 words a year (Cunningham & Stanovich, 2001).

The researcher asked Quincy, who scored in the 97th percentile on the MAP Reading test, “Did you read anything at home yesterday? For example, this could be anything, a textbook, a free read, a recipe, a newspaper article, a magazine, anything.”

Quincy answered, “Yesterday I read a book called *Max*. I really like the series, because it’s like an action movie. In the book the characters are crazy and they’re genetically enhanced. I also like that series because it’s not just sci-fi, it ties into the character’s love life and she tries to be normal.”

Emily, who scored in the 94th percentile on the normed Reading Map Test, explained she read the book *Divergent* at home. Jane mentioned at home yesterday she read the book *Folk Keeper*, some wolf articles, *Scholastic* newsletters, and the *Journal of Young Investigators*. She also read another New York Times article about the wolf debate for over 45 minutes. Jane scored in the 96th percentile on the MAP Reading test, where this score could reflect the diversity of her reading genre and the amount of time she spends at home reading.

Oliver discussed what he read at home yesterday, when he wrote “Well, I read a free read out of my book box and I read some of the newspaper.” Oliver did not mention how long he read, nor did he read a variety of text. He scored in the 68th percentile for reading on the MAP Reading test.

Bruno responded by saying “do instructions count? I read the instructions about how to play a game called dart ball last night. Instead of the rubber being on the slingshot, it’s on a ball that you shoot off the slingshot and you have to get it into a circular target. There are sections for 100 points 20 points 40 points 60 points and 80 points.”

Another student, Peter, mentioned that he had not read anything yesterday. He scored in the 49th percentile on the MAP normed Reading test. Victoria (41st percentile on the MAP Reading test) discussed a nonfiction piece that she read yesterday at home. She said, “I read the instructions about growing crystals. It was a kit and it was about how to start the process of growing crystals.”

Molly said, “I read the book *The Mocking Jay* for a little bit and I also looked at the news online. The book (*The Mocking Jay*) is about this girl named Katniss Everdeen. She just got out of the Quarter Quell, she’s at her District, and she’s there with her best friend Gail”

Molly scored in the 21st percentile on the MAP normed Reading Test. Although she read a variety of text, she did not mention how long she read. The book that Molly was reading, *The Mocking Jay* was at the 5.3 grade equivalency. She was reading a book that she could have read at the beginning of fifth grade, because it was written to target students in fifth grade, the third month of school, and it was the end of her fifth grade year.

Wyatt scored in the 30th percentile on the MAP normed Reading Test and he did not read a variety of text that was complex, which could be reflected in his MAP normed Reading Test score. He discussed how he read a fact box on a page from a book about fish the night before. Wyatt said “the box told me about how fishes’ fins work and how they don’t need to sleep.”

The average child in the United States spends roughly 4 hours and 29 minutes a day watching TV, 2 hours and 31 minutes listening to music, and 1 hour and 13 minutes playing video games (Goodwin & Miller, 2013). How much of their leisure time do students spend reading nonfiction? A national study sponsored by the Kaiser Family Foundation found it was less than 4 minutes a day (Rideout, Foehr, & Roberts, 2010). Sure, children are reading outside school, about 25 minutes a day according to the study (Rideout et al., 2010). Most of that reading

appears to be fiction. Another study found that juvenile fiction outsells nonfiction by more than four to one (Milliot, 2012).

One component that makes guided reading so successful is the teacher works in a small group setting (Marshall, 2014). Students quickly learn successful strategies to process and construct meaning of words (Marshall, 2014). Guided reading helps balance literacy instruction. As their reading skills strengthen, they gradually move on to more difficult reading with teacher guidance.

With guided reading, instruction can be streamlined to meet the individual needs of each student within a group. Instruction is easily managed in small groups and the teacher is able to give individual attention to the group members (Marshall, 2014). Tyner (2005) highlighted key points that make guided reading successful. The first is that small group instruction provides comprehensive coverage of the strategies required to move students to greater achievement in reading. Second, every group of students is given quality reading instruction and tasks that are worthwhile (Tyner, 2005). Third, assessment is ongoing and directly linked to instruction (Tyner, 2005). Fourth, teachers gather information from both formal and informal assessments about how their students are progressing in their learning at a given point (Tyner, 2005). Fifth, students are constantly evaluated and shuffled and reshuffled in flexible groups to best meet instructional needs (Tyner, 2005). Sixth, differentiated reading takes into consideration the individual characteristics of the children, capitalizes on the strengths they have, and expands and challenges their abilities (Tyner, 2005).

Independent reading that offers guided choice, teaches children how to select books that are at an appropriate reading level for them, and allows teachers to confer with students yields positive results (Kuhn et al., 2006; Moss & Young, 2010). It is critical to maintain the balance

between student choice and text demands. Independent reading is often referred to as reading practice, and the ways students interact with texts at this point in the gradual release of responsibility should echo those practiced in read-aloud, shared, and guided reading contexts (Burkins & Croft, 2010).

When students have independent reading time, the teacher should listen to each student read aloud to confirm reading level appropriateness (Burkins & Croft, 2010). After independent reading, gather the students to talk about their reading. There are myriad ways to engage students around their books, such as meeting in *book clubs* or by having students present commercials to interest others in their favorite books (Burkins & Croft, 2010).

Topic #5: Students and Teachers Enjoy Reading Outside of the School Day

The researcher asked Jane, Holly, and Oliver separately, “when do you read for pleasure outside of school?”

Jane said, “Mostly at bedtime. We’ll normally sit down to dinner at 7:30 p.m., or maybe even at 6:30 p.m., depending on what activity we’re doing that night. But we’re in bed by 9:00 p.m. and we all get to read for 15 minutes and we maybe get to read for about 30 minutes if we are in bed earlier. Sometimes, if I’m not feeling well, or if there isn’t an activity, I’ll read a lot longer in the evening.” She discussed who reads in her family by saying “my two sisters, my brother and my mom read almost every night. Some of us read during the day, some at night, and some in the morning.”

Holly replied, “My older sister reads a lot and she always suggests good books for me to read. She reads every night at our house and when she finishes a book she just starts talking about it. My sister tells my mom to read it, and then I overhear what she is saying. Then, I want to read the book she mentioned.

Oliver said, “My dad, he reads a book to me before bed. My mom reads at night, but my brother doesn’t read so much at home.”

To see if the teachers support reading outside of school for their students, it is important to gather information regarding their reading habits. The researcher also asked Mrs. D, “How often do you read outside of the school day?”

She replied, “Every night, and usually during the day on the weekends. I like to read humorous fiction and like to read anything by Carl Hiaasen. I also just read a young adult book called *The Familiars* that our librarian had asked me to read to preview the series. It was a little more fantasy and it was great. I have the second one to read but I haven’t started that yet.”

The next teacher, Mrs. F said, “It depends on what’s going on in life, and whether I have time to read or not. So, sometimes I read once a night, before bed however, sometimes I don’t read for a couple of weeks. I like to read a variety of things and I enjoy reading fiction. For example, I like to read short stories and comedy essays. I enjoy reading some informational text and magazines. I try to read the newspaper at least every week and I am in the middle of reading David Sedaris’ *Let’s Explore Diabetes with Owls*. I just finished a fiction story called *Tell the Wolves I’m Home* that was a coming of age story. It was about a girl in the 1980s whose best friend’s uncle died of AIDS.”

Another teacher, Mrs. E replied, “I am a reading fiend. It’s hard with having a little one, but it’s for my sanity. I read a ton of what my students are reading, so that I know the books intimately. Many of my students, I parallel read with them, so if they start a novel, I start it at the same time. Then I am thinking about questions to ask them and really hold them accountable. But, I love to read for myself, and the bigger and longer the series the better. That’s my pleasure. I don’t have TV, so I read a lot and I read every day, or at least I try to. It depends on my family

life. I especially read more on Friday nights, and going into the weekend. It depends on how tired I am on a weekday, and also on my needs of matching student reading. So, I would say, I read anywhere from half an hour to several hours a day.”

She also explained the type of novel that she likes to read and Mrs. E explained, “I am into six hundred page or seven-in-a-series type novels. I like historical fiction and right now I am getting into the Outlander series, which is fantasy historical fiction, with a little romance. It’s between England and Scotland, and England taking over Scotland at the same time that England was also in the American Revolution. I study the American Revolution with my students. I find that I like that perspective, it’s fiction, it’s fun, and it’s adult reading. Although, I am still getting historical information that I can share with the kids. I like grossing them out about the types of torture they did for treason. We talk about what the famous Americans did by risking their lives and what it looked like if they were caught. So, all the signers of the Declaration of Independence, I mean, they risked their lives, literally.”

Summary

Chapter Four contained a presentation of the summary of the findings that were based primarily on the analysis of interview transcripts, documents, MAP Reading scores, Reader’s Notebooks, and the Reading Surveys. The data analysis process was discussed, clarifying the identification of four themes: (a) they enjoyed discussing books with their peers, (b) they enjoyed when their peers helped them select new books, (c) the students felt the most excited to read fiction books in the action or adventure genre, and (d) all of the students reported that they thought reading was important. The five topics include: (a) fiction books are the most popular, (b) their peers help them select books, (c) the students want to increase their text level, (d) the amount of time students read outside of the school day is not consistent, and (e) most students

and teachers enjoy reading outside of the school day. The information in this study from the teachers and students provided data about how fifth grade students experienced reading.

Conclusions and recommendations for future research are presented in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER FIVE CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to examine how fifth grade students experienced reading. The information was gathered by collecting data through surveying students, interviewing students and teachers, and analyzing reading documents. The population and sample for this study used purposeful sampling. The teachers had to work at either School A or School B and they had to teach fifth grade. The students had to be enrolled at either School A or School B and they had to be in the fifth grade. There were three teachers that met these criteria and all of them participated. There were 51 students that met these criteria and 22 participated in the study. Audio-recorded interviews were transcribed, a survey was given to every student, and documents were collected including; MAP Reading Test scores, Reader's Notebooks and reading assignments. The multiple-case study allowed better understanding of how fifth grade students experienced reading. This information was used to triangulate the data, as well as provide validity and reliability. Each participant was provided the opportunity to review the findings of this study by member checking. Stake (1995) believed that member checking examines the report for accuracy and palatability.

Summary of Findings

The research question listed below was answered by four themes that emerged from the interviews from the fifth grade students, their teachers, the student's survey data, their reader's notebooks, and their MAP Reading Test scores. The four themes were; (a) that students enjoyed discussing books with their peers, (b) they liked having their peers help them select new books, (c) they were excited to read books in the action and adventure genre and, (d) all the students reported that reading was important. In order for a leader to recommend to the staff how they could change the fifth grade reading curriculum based on the data from the students the leader

must start with effective leadership. Fullan (2011) identified five characteristics of effective leadership for change: (a) moral purpose, (b) understanding the change process, (c) strong relationships, (d) knowledge sharing, and (e) coherence. Connecting new knowledge with existing knowledge served as the theoretical framework from which the data was viewed from this study.

Research Question: How did the fifth grade students experience reading?

Theme 1: Students Enjoyed Discussing Books With Their Peers

Researchers agreed that a comprehensive framework with peer discussion and more individual student reading time will improve how students feel about reading, while promoting reading proficiency. Extensive reading is critical to the development of reading proficiency (Krashen 2001; Stanovich, 2000). For students to read at grade level, a few key concepts must be introduced to all teachers. The volume of reading that students do must increase during the school day and at home (Allington, 2002). If children can choose the books they read, they will be more interested in building their reading skill base. Also, according to Allington (2002), crafting a supportive conversational environment where students talk to their teacher and to their peers about the books they are reading would be an important component for sustained and increased reading. Adding active teaching of useful reading strategies would expand the array of books that children could read (Allington, 2002).

Students in this study either mentioned that they discussed books with peers and read books they suggested or they did not discuss books with their peers at all. The students who scored in above the 80th percentile on the MAP Reading normed test reported that they

discussed books with peers and read those book selections. The students in the interviews discussed that they talked about the books that they were reading with their friends either at lunch or after school. The students who scored below the 40th percentile on the MAP Reading normed test did not discuss books with their peers, nor did they select their individual books based on peer recommendations. The data showed that students who scored below the 40th percentile on MAP did not read at home for over 20 minutes consistently every night, nor did they select books based on their F and P level. These students selected their books by walking around the library or buying the book at the book fair at the school. The librarian at our school helps students select “just right books” but may not know the specific F and P level of each student unless the general education teacher provides her that data. These students would feel better about reading if they could have support selecting books on their F and P level, discuss books with their peers, and use strategies that would make text meaningful in order to make reading more enjoyable.

Theme 2: The Students Enjoyed When Their Peers Helped Them Select New Books

In general, collecting data about how the fifth grade students felt about reading may give administrators and students useful information to help improve reading programs. This study found that some students discussed books with their peers and they also selected their individual reading materials based on peer suggestions. This aligns with the research Nystrand (2006) reviewed on engaging students in literate conversations and noted that even small amounts of conversation (10 minutes a day) improved standardized test scores, regardless of students' family background or reading level. Yet struggling readers were the least likely to discuss daily what they read with peers. This outcome was often because these students were doing extra basic-skills practice instead. In class discussions, struggling readers were more likely to be asked literal

questions about what they had read, to prove they *got it*, rather than to be engaged in a conversation about the text (Allington & Gabriel, 2012).

Emily, who scored in the 94th percentile on the MAP Reading normed test and a 92% on the Motivation to Read Survey, mentioned that “a ton of kids had recommended the book *Divergent* to me and Mrs. D also said I should read that book.”

The researcher asked, “why was the story interesting to you?”

Emily said, “Because they talked about how people should tell the truth and that made the book sound interesting.”

This study gathered information regarding students who scored between the 21st percentile and the 94th percentile on the MAP Reading normed test. The students who scored above the 85th percentile on the MAP Reading mentioned in the interviews that they collaborated with their peers on their book selections and recommendations. However, the students who scored below the 40th percentile on the MAP Reading normed test did not collaborate with their peers on their book selections. These students chose their books by walking around the library or asking a librarian at the school library, the librarian in town, or they brought their books from home. While the results from this study demonstrated that the students in the 85th percentile and above discussed books with their peers.

The teacher, Jess Nelson, discussed how the students participated in a reading system called Shelfari. This teacher explained that Shelfari was a small classroom library, where students could read books that were on the shelf and then meet in small groups, or with a peer, to discuss the book.

The other teachers, Terry Jones and Pat Smith, mentioned that their students collaborated when they selected books. However, there was not a scheduled time every day for students to

review and recommend books with their peers in their classrooms. The researcher recognized that using a systematic approach to scheduling peer discussion groups with their peers and also with students that read on the same F and P level may be beneficial academic progress. This strategy would motivate students to read more difficult text for a longer periods of time after they listened to their classmates review books.

Theme 3: The Students Were Excited To Read Books in the Action and Adventure Genre

Students prefer to read the action / adventure genre according to the Motivation to Read Profile Conversational interview. After the interviews, 82% of the students who participated in the study reported that the action / adventure was their favorite genre. Many students mentioned they enjoyed reading the Harry Potter series because of the interesting plots. Students revealed that the seventh book fascinated them, because the characters were complex and the plot was thought provoking. However, only four students out of 22 mentioned that they enjoyed reading non-fiction.

Terry Jones discussed the action and adventure series that many fifth grade students were reading called the Warrior series. This teacher said, “In the Warrior series, I read the first one because I really just needed to see what all the excitement was about. The whole series was about clans of cats, and I was not a huge fan, I have to admit, I mean I read it, I got through it, and I was kind of intrigued a little bit at the end to see what would happen next.”

Terry Jones also discussed the daily independent reading in the classroom. This teacher said, “I require the students to always have a book with them so that when they do finish an assignment ahead of their peers they can sit and read. It might only be 5 minutes or it might be 10 minutes of reading. However, it’s a little bit of a snippet of their day where they can enjoy the

book that they're reading. I always try to keep up with the current young adult literature so I can suggest books to students that I think might be appropriate for them, or a high interest level for them."

Terry Jones also said, "The Accelerated Reading Level of the action / adventure series called The Warriors was around 5.5 grade equivalency and the Rangers Apprentice series was between 7.0-7.3 grade equivalency."

Pat Smith discussed one of the focuses of the fifth grade reading block in the classroom. This teacher said, "About half the amount of time is focused on the students reading books for pleasure, and that is based on their interests and their reading ability. When kids come into fifth grade, they really haven't read many books before, and they really become readers for themselves because of that independent reading."

Pat Smith also explained how she promotes pleasure reading at the beginning of the year. This teacher said, "We do a lot of interest surveys that go into our data notebooks, both the students and the teachers can refer to those to look at what types of books they have read in the past. Then, our curriculum is starting with the meta-cognitive work about why do we read, how do we read, what you do as a reader, during our launch unit."

Pat Smith also discussed the fifth grade daily reading contracts that her colleague, Terry Jones, also has her class use. Pat Smith summarized that the expectation was for the students to read 20 to 30 minutes in school, and then to read 20 to 30 minutes at home, 7 days a week. This teacher said, "The kids come in and they have started a lot of books, but they haven't really completed them in other grades. So, they have never really had the satisfaction and enjoyment of finishing a book. The students are held to reading contracts throughout the year. Although, the

students can select what interests them, as long as they are choosing books that are a good fit for them.”

Pat Jones also discussed how the students choose what genre they were going to read. This teacher explained, “During Unit Three they are reading non-fiction, so the students are able to try on the skills and strategies that we are working on in class. Then the students have their researcher project about famous Americans later on in the school year. Sometimes there are some parameters around what the students can choose, but usually they can select their books.”

Pat Jones continued to discuss the style of peer discussion that happens during the reading block. This teacher explained, “I think one of the biggest things is the book sweep that is done in the classroom, based on interests. Kids talk to kids about books that they like. That’s great evidence that they are really reading for pleasure, because they are talking about it with their friends, by their own choice. I think it’s a big piece of how to choose books, good fit books, and that happens between the classroom and the library. There is that comes from recommendations from their friends. So, these guys are talking to each other at unscheduled times, and then, when selecting a new book, they are taking their friends’ recommendations. I think that’s a culture that’s just been established at our school. I’ve always wanted to try book talks, and it’s not something I’ve tried on. So, it’s not structured, and I guess that’s almost even better, because it’s just coming from the kids.”

Matthiessen (2014) suggested a few ways to help students become interested in reading non-fiction. The first was to pursue a passion, because students should select books that they are interested in reading (Matthiessen, 2014). Second, a teacher should offer lots of nonfiction reading material including; books, magazines, newspapers, and atlases (Matthiessen, 2014). Third, students should read a broad range of fiction and nonfiction, and talk about what they read

Citations after each statement. Fourth, a teacher should talk about connections between what your student is reading and current events. Fifth, a teacher should suggest writing letters to a relative or keeping a diary.

The action and adventure genre was the most popular for the students in the study. However, the fifth grade students also need to become proficient readers in the non-fiction genre to be successful in life. The global economy has also been cited as a reason to emphasize non-fiction (Cebelak, 2014). Some experts argued that non-fiction reading teaches kids how to develop more complex thinking. Bauerlein (2011) explained why this type of reading is so demanding, particularly for kids growing up in an age of distractions.

Complex texts require a slower labor. Readers can't proceed to the next paragraph without grasping the previous one, they can't glide over unfamiliar words and phrases, they can't forget what they read four pages earlier, and complex texts force readers to acquire the knack of slow linear reading. (Bauerlein, 2011, p. 28)

In other words, complex texts require single-tasking, an unbroken and unbothered focus (Bauerlein, 2011). Digital activities foster multitasking and constant interaction. A text message that goes unanswered for an hour leaves the sender puzzled. Digital-age youths have grown accustomed to multiple inputs and steady stimuli that the prospect of 2 hours alone with one book and no connectivity would most likely strike them as a depleted occasion (Bauerlein, 2011).

The Common Core Standards calls for a shift in the balance of fiction to nonfiction as children advance through school (Bauerlein, 2011). The Common Core Standards recommend that by the end of fourth grade, students' reading should be half fiction and half informational.

By the end of 12th grade, the balance should be 30% fiction, and 70% nonfiction across all subject areas (Bauerlein, 2011).

Theme 4: All of the Students Reported That Reading Is Important

All students, even those who scored below 50th percentile on the MAP Reading normed test, reported that reading is either very important or important on their Motivation to Read Profile Survey. There were six students out of 22 who participated in the study who scored below the 50th percentile on the MAP Reading normed test. These students reported that they felt as though reading was either very important (4 out of 4 points on the survey) or important (3 out of 4 points). According to their reading surveys and the conversational interviews, students believed that reading was important, however all six students either selected the answer that they thought reading was an okay way to spend time (2 out of 4 points) or an interesting way to spend time (3 out of 4 points). No one thought that reading was a great way to spend time (4 out of 4 points). These students reported that reading a book was something they liked to do either sometimes (3 out of 4 points) or not very often (2 out of 4 points).

After collecting the data, there are specific areas that are causing the students to not progress in reading fluency and comprehension. They are not making gains on the MAP Reading normed test because they are not reading the right level book, nor are they reading enough non-fiction text. Students do not have enough independent reading time consistently throughout the week, nor day. They do they have enough time to participate in the peer book selection and discussion that will help increase their reading F and P level. To have an effective reading program it is imperative to follow a research based balanced literacy program and include all of the important components daily.

There are specific elements of an effective literacy program that supports all level of students. The six elements of effective reading instruction do not require much time, money, nor additional resources, just the educators' decision to put them in place (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). The first element is that every child should read something he or she chooses (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). The second daily element is that a child should read accurately (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). When students read accurately, they solidify their word-recognition, decoding, and word-analysis skills. Perhaps more importantly, students are likely to understand what they read and, as a result, to enjoy reading (Allington & Gabriel, 2012).

In contrast, struggling students who spend the same amount of time reading texts that they cannot read accurately are at a disadvantage in several important ways. First, students read less text; it is slow going when the student encounters many words they do not recognize instantly (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). Second, struggling readers are less likely to understand (and therefore enjoy) what they read. They are likely to become frustrated when reading these difficult texts, and therefore lose confidence in their word-attack, decoding, or word-recognition skills (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). Thus, a struggling reader and a successful reader who engage in the same 15-minute independent reading session do not necessarily receive equivalent practice, where they experience different outcomes. Sadly, struggling readers typically encounter too-challenging texts throughout the school day as they make their way through classes that present grade-level material (Allington & Gabriel, 2012).

The third element is that every child should read something he or she understands (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). Understanding what a student reads is the goal of reading. But too often, struggling readers participate in interventions that focus on basic skills in isolation, rather than on reading connected text for meaning (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). This common misuse

of intervention time often arises from a grave misinterpretation of what researchers know about reading difficulties.

The fourth element is that every child should write about something personally meaningful (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). In observations in schools across several states, researchers rarely see students writing anything more than fill-in-the-blank or short-answer responses during their reading block (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). Those who do have the opportunity to compose something longer than a few sentences are either responding to a teacher-selected prompt or writing within a strict structural formula that turns even paragraphs and essays into fill-in-the-blank exercises.

Writing provides a different modality within which to practice the skills and strategies of reading for an authentic purpose (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). When students write about something they care about, they use conventions of spelling and grammar, because it matters to them that their ideas are communicated, not because they will lose points or see red ink if they do not (Cunningham & Cunningham, 2010). Students have to think about what words best convey their ideas to their readers. They have to encode these words using letter patterns others will recognize. They have to make sure they use punctuation in a way that will help their readers understand which words go together, where a thought starts and ends, and what emotion goes with it (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). This process is especially important for struggling readers, because it produces a comprehensible text that the student can read, reread, and analyze (Allington & Gabriel, 2012).

The fifth element explains that every child should talk with peers about reading and writing (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). Research demonstrated that conversation with peers improves comprehension and engagement with texts in a variety of settings (Cazden, 1988).

Such literary conversation does not focus on recalling or retelling what students read. Rather, ask students to analyze, comment, and compare what other students have read.

The sixth element is that the student listens to a fluent adult read aloud (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). Listening to an adult model fluently reading increases students' own fluency and comprehension skills (Trelease, 2001). Also, student can increase their fluency by improving vocabulary, background knowledge, sense of story, awareness of genre and text structure, and comprehension of the texts read (Wu & Samuels, 2004).

Recommendations and Results of This Study

Recognizing how fifth grade students experience reading can help identify what strategies, methods, and curriculum could be improved to foster an even more balanced literacy program. For a literacy program to improve, it is imperative to follow a research based program and to also have support for the teachers through an instructional coach and a mentor. Allington (2002) and colleagues at the National Research Center on English Language Learning and Achievement studied some of the best teachers in the United States (Allington & Johnson, 2001; Pressley, Allington, Wharton-McDonald, Collins-Block, & Morrow, 2001). Over the course of the study, however, clarity emerged that the teachers studied developed academic proficiencies well beyond higher reading and writing achievement test scores, though the evidence gathered indicated that these teachers did produce significantly better standardized test performances as a matter of course (Allington & Johnson, 2001; Pressley et al., 2001).

Recommendation 1: The school should continue to improve their research based balanced literacy approach.

To assist teacher in developing a balanced literacy approach, Allington (2002) identified six common features of effective literacy instruction. The six T's of effective elementary

reading instruction that Allington (2002) identified were; time, texts, teach, talk, tasks, and test. The teachers who balanced their *time* for reading and writing developed a ratio far better than typical elementary classrooms (Allington, 2002). These teachers had the students reading and writing as much as half of the school day. This ratio was approximately 50/50, which means the students read and write 50% of the time, completing activities that include test-preparation workbook sheets, copying vocabulary definitions from a dictionary, and completing reading comprehension worksheets (Allington, 2002). In many classrooms, a 90 minute *reading block* produces only 10-15 minutes of actual reading, or less than 20% of the allocated reading time. Additionally, in many classrooms, 20 minutes of actual reading across the school day is a common event (Knapp, 1995). Thus, less than 10% of the day includes reading, where 90% or more is spent doing stuff (Allington, 2002).

In the *text* area, exemplary teachers focused on instructional planning, where their students did more guided reading, more independent reading, more social studies and science reading than students in less-effective classrooms (Allington, 2002). For students to be successful readers, they need to have a high level of reading accuracy, fluency, and comprehension. The exemplary teachers had the lower-achieving students spend their days with books they could successfully read (Allington, 2002). In some schools, the lower-achieving students receive appropriate materials only when they participate in special support instruction (special education, Title I, or a bilingual education block) (Allington, 2002). Therefore, the lower achieving students who do not qualify for special support in reading can participate in only an hour of appropriate reading instruction a day and also 4 hours of reading instruction with text that is above their reading level.

In the *teach* area of instruction, exemplary teachers do not follow a commercial instruction package, but they offer useful strategy models to support reading success (Allington, 2002). These models include decoding strategies, composing strategies, and self-regulating strategies, to the class, small groups, and individual students (Allington, 2002).

In the *talk* area of instruction, the teacher has more of a conversational nature than an interrogational nature (Allington, 2002). The teachers posed more open-ended questions that may include the question, what other story have you read that had an ending like this one? While there is evidence that more *thoughtful* classroom talk leads to improved reading comprehension (Fall et al., 2000; Johnston et al., 2001; Nystrand, 1997), especially in high-poverty schools (Knapp, 1995), interventions exist that focus on helping teachers develop the instructional expertise to create such classrooms, where few of the packaged programs offer teachers any support along this line. The students will feel better about reading if they participate in meaningful conversation because they will have the opportunity to understand how to apply reading strategies to make meaning of the text.

In the *task* area of instruction, exemplary teachers used longer assignments and reduced the number of multiple, shorter, assignments (Allington, 2002). The tasks often involved student choice for many long-term assignments. For example, students researched insects, but they could choose how they would present the information to the class (Allington, 2002). Choice has been documented to lead to increased student ownership of the work and increased engagement of work (Turner, 1995).

In the last area of instruction, the *test* area, exemplary teachers evaluated student work based more on effort and improvement rather than on achievement status (Allington, 2002). The exemplary teachers often used a rubric-based evaluation system to assign grades rather than on

achievement status. In the *test* area, where the best performances earn the best grades operates to foster classrooms where no one works very hard (Allington, 2002). The students will feel better because they will be graded on a rubric and the text gradient that they used will help them be more successful with specific reading questions about inference, prediction, setting, and summarizing. The higher-achieving students do not have to put forth much effort to rank well and the lower-achieving students soon realize that even working hard does not produce performances that compare to those of higher-achieving students. Hard work earns a student a C, for a low-achiever, in an achievement-based grading scheme (Allington, 2002).

Recommendation 2: Increase the staff collaboration in the area of curriculum development.

According to NAEP, on the United States' report card in 2013, 42% of the students in fourth grade that scored above the 75th percentile on the reading portion of the test reported that they read more than 20 pages per day. Students who scored below the 25th percentile reported that 32% of them read less than 5 pages per day (Nation's Report Card, 2013). A literacy coach can support teachers and suggest strategies that would provide students with specific skills to build reading stamina and accuracy. Researchers who examine issues related to teacher professional development are finding that the best-trained, most knowledgeable teachers have had substantial support from a strong mentor or coach who helped them to learn new concepts and practice new skills in the classroom (Darling-Hammond, 2000). These highly skilled teachers get some training through workshops and lectures, but the training that has influenced their instruction the most has been ongoing and job-embedded with the support of a knowledgeable mentor or coach (Darling-Hammond, 2000).

The fifth grade reading program would improve if the librarians, support specialists, instructional coaches, and the principal had time to collaborate every week. While the teacher,

Pat Smith, explained the parallel reading that occurs with the students in the class, this method could be used throughout the school if the teachers had time to collaborate on how to implement reading strategies throughout the day for individual students. The students would feel better about reading if they could apply specific reading strategies all teachers were familiar with and read text on their level while they finished on a report for P.E. or music class. Specifically, the teachers, and the librarian could help the instructional coach work with the principal to determine what areas in reading the students need to improve to earn higher test scores on state and district assessments. The literacy team could align the curriculum to the state and district benchmarks and support the areas that the students help with. They could provide specific lessons in reading during library, guided reading groups, or whole group instruction. For example, if students were not scoring high in the area of reading and analyzing non-fiction graphs, the general education teacher could work with the administrator to increase the amount of time during the literary block that they teach that skill. During the interview, Terry Jones, implemented a guided reading group in that fifth grade classroom after attending a reading conference on the Fountas and Pinnell literacy model. The data from this study showed that if a student participated in a guided reading group on their level, they read more text per day, moved through text gradient levels consistently, and had the opportunity feel better about reading while they applied reading strategies to master the text. Allington (2002) believed that school administrators should be crafting policies that ensure that more effective teachers are created each year by examining the teacher's daily practice along with long-term planning. The librarian could teach reading strategies for the students to use to master the non-fiction graph skill, and the instructional coach could design specific lessons to re-teach material to students who lack mastery of the concept.

Recommendation 3: The students should have uninterrupted independent reading time daily.

Studies of exemplary elementary teachers further supported the finding that more authentic reading develops better readers (Allington, 2002; Taylor, Pearson, Peterson, & Rodriguez, 2003). In these large-scale national studies, researchers found that students in more-effective teachers' classrooms spent a larger percentage of reading instructional time actually reading; students in less-effective teachers' classrooms spent more time using worksheets, answering low-level, literal questions, or completing before-and-after reading activities (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). In addition, exemplary teachers were more likely to differentiate instruction to ensure that all readers had books they could actually read accurately, fluently, and with understanding (Allington & Gabriel, 2012).

Educators often make decisions regarding instruction to alter the kind of experiences children need to become successful readers. This outcome is especially true for struggling readers, much less likely than their peers to participate in the kinds of high-quality instructional activities that would ensure that they learn to read (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). When students read accurately, they solidify their word-recognition, decoding, and word-analysis skills. Perhaps more importantly, students are likely to understand what they read, and, as a result, enjoy reading (Allington & Gabriel, 2012).

Recommendation 4: Students should read non-fiction and fiction text daily based on their Fountas and Pinnell reading level.

Guthrie and Humenick (2004) found that the two most powerful instructional design factors for improving reading motivation and comprehension were (a) student access to many books and (b) personal choice of what to read. The experience of choosing in itself boosts

motivation and offering choice increases the likelihood that every reader will be matched to a text that he or she can read well (Guthrie & Humenick, 2004). If students initially struggle with choosing texts that match their ability level and interest, teachers can provide limited choices to guide them toward successful reading experiences (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). Numerous other studies supported that comprehensive reading instruction correlates with changed activation patterns that mirror those of typical readers (Aylward, Richards, Berninger, Nagy, Field, Grimme, Richards, Thomson, & Cramer, 2003; Krafnick, Flowers, Napoliello, & Eden, 2011; Shaywitz et al., 2004).

Research shows that reading at 98% or higher accuracy is essential for reading acceleration (Allington & Gabriel, 2012). Anything less than this rate slows the rate of improvement, and anything below 90% accuracy does not improve reading ability at all (Allington, 2012; Ehri, Dreyer, Flugman, & Gross, 2007). Some teachers find difficulty to provide a wide selection of texts because of funding. Research demonstrated that access to self-selected texts improves students' reading performance (Krashen, 2011). Although the idea that students read better when they read more has been supported by studies for the last 70 years, policies that simply increase the amount of time allocated for students to read often indicate mixed results (National Reading Panel, 2000).

Fountas and Pinnell (2006) offered a different approach to determining text difficulty, which includes the length of sentences, length of words, and complexity of letter-sound patterns, and many other characteristics. The Fountas and Pinnell text level gradient evaluates 10 areas: (a) genre, (b) text structure, (c) content, (d) themes and ideas, (e) language and literary, (f) features, (g) sentence complexity, (h) vocabulary, (i) illustrations, and (j) print features.

Regardless of their focus, target population, or publisher, interventions that accelerate reading development routinely devote at least two-thirds of their time to reading and rereading rather than isolated or contrived skill practice (Allington, 2011). These findings have been consistent for the last 50 years, although the typical reading intervention used in schools today has struggling readers spending the bulk of their time on tasks other than reading and rereading actual texts.

Recommendation 5: The students should read self-selected complex text daily.

In other words, complex texts require single tasking, an unbroken and unbothered focus (Coleman, 2012). Digital activities foster multitasking and constant interaction. Digital-age youths find comfort and have grown so accustomed multiple inputs and steady stimuli that the prospect of 2 hours alone with one book and no connectivity would most likely strike them as a depleted occasion (Coleman, 2012). Coleman (2012) indicated that teachers must encourage students to read more high quality informational text as well as books of increasing complexity as students increase in age or mature. The single most important predictor of student success in college is their ability to read a range of complex text with understanding (Coleman, 2012). Coleman (2012) mentioned,

If you examine the top 40 lists of what students are reading today in 6th–12th grade, you will find much of it is not complex enough to prepare them for the rigors of college and career. Teachers, parents, and students need to work together to ensure that students are reading far more challenging books and practicing every year reading more demanding text. Students will not likely choose sufficiently challenging text on their own; they need to be challenged and supported to build their strength as readers by stretching to the next level. (p. 2)

One hour a day of slow reading with print matter, an occasional research assignment completed without Google; any such practices that slow down and intensify the reading of complex texts will help (Coleman, 2012). The more high school teachers place complex texts on the syllabus and create slow, deliberate reading exercises for students to complete, the more students will internalize the habit (Coleman, 2012). The key to student success is to make slow reading exercises a standard part of the curriculum (Bauerlein, 2011).

Recommendations for Future Research

This study increased understanding regarding how fifth grade students experienced reading. There was a general lack within the literature regarding how fifth grade students experienced reading. The qualitative multiple-case study methodology utilized the information to present finding and future recommendations based on information reported from the experiences of 22 fifth grade students and three teachers.

This study represents a starting point for developing a larger body of research regarding how fifth grade students experience reading. In addition, there are five future areas of study that would gather more information that could improve students' scores on the Reading MAP test by providing the correct interventions and curriculum.

The first recommendation is that a future study should focus on collecting information from the teachers regarding how effective they believe their current literacy block is according to MAP Reading test progress. Successful schools have educational leaders who work collaboratively with teachers, instructional coaches, and staff members. Sergiovanni (2009) believed that principals who practice enabling leadership when they help teachers, students, and staff function better on behalf of the school and its purposes, engage more effectively in the work and play of the school, and promote the achievement of the school's objectives. The

administrator must portray a positive attitude about the ability of staff to accomplish substantial tasks (Sergiovanni, 2009). Elmore (2000) agreed with those who promote instructional leadership emphasizing the importance of understanding effective practices in curriculum, instruction, and assessment and the ability to work with teachers on the problems related to these topics. The school must use the distributed model of leadership, as opposed to models that look to the principal to provide all leadership functions for the school (Elmore, 2000).

After gathering data, the teachers, staff, and the administrator could determine what areas could be improved to target specific skill deficits. For example, the 90-minute literacy block could be evaluated and divided into specific reading skill sessions. These sessions could include; (a) 30 minutes of whole group instruction and guided reading; (b) 20 minutes of non-fiction reading time; (c) 15 minutes of uninterrupted reading time; (d) five minutes of peer book discussion; (e) five minutes peer book selection; and (e) 15 minutes of small group reading strategy practice and writing about reading.

The second recommendation would be to collect more information regarding increasing the amount of difficult fiction and non-fiction text that students read. More research would allow teachers to develop additional lessons to support students. Specific skills that students who are not reading at grade level could be taught during small group reading intervention sessions.

Students could also be grouped by level in order for teachers to differentiate and provide challenging text everyone. Flexible grouping of students should be consistently used (Glatthorn, Boschee, Whitehead, & Boschee, 2012). Students could be selected for guided reading groups based on their Fountas and Pinnell (2006) level to have specific instruction in higher level non-fiction text during reading and social studies. Learners are expected to interact and work together as they develop knowledge of new content. As one of the foundations of differentiated

instruction, grouping and regrouping must be a dynamic process, changing with the content, project, and ongoing evaluations (Glatthorn et al., 2012).

The third recommendation would be to create a comprehensive database that the teachers, librarians, staff, and administrators could use. This database would measure the impact of the new fifth grade literacy block template. This data system could measure a student's Fountas and Pinnell (2006) level for the whole group lesson, non-fiction reading book levels selected along with independent reading book selection level. This database may prove useful for the librarian and the instructional coach to evaluate student progress with their teachers in their text level to provide differentiated instruction to increase fluency, comprehension, and accuracy.

To increase the reading volume in classrooms every day, there are 10 strategies that administrators and teachers can use (Fountas & Pinnell, 2006). They can examine the scheduling and ensure that there is uninterrupted time for reading every day. A plan could be used to construct reading time studies across the school. Administrators can use time studies to coach classroom teachers to maximize student engagement in real reading, as well as support classroom teachers' learning in implementing independent, guided, and shared reading.

The fourth recommendation is for the administrator, instructional coach, and teacher to examine the text level that the fifth grade literacy block uses during their whole group lesson to determine proper alignment with the reading F and P level of most students. Determining this level may explain why some students are frustrated when they read during the whole group lesson. Some students mentioned that reading was too difficult and it was not their favorite academic area in school. The Fountas and Pinnell (2006) level system could be used throughout the day in science, social studies, and during the media center lessons to support reading proficiency.

Conclusion

How the fifth grade students experienced reading offers value to teachers, instructional coaches, staff members, and administrators. Not all teachers, instructional coaches, and administrators may agree that looking at normed test data will provide enough specific information to improve the literacy block. However, examining the data from this research, along with individual student Reading MAP test results divided into specific reading strands, may provide some information to allow the staff to work collaboratively to improve the literacy block. Having consistent results from 22 students and three teachers in the areas of peer book selection, peer book recommendations, uninterrupted reading time, participation in reading non-fiction text, and increased text levels, may provide information for program analysis.

The data from the interviews and surveys in this multiple-case study generated many topics for discussion, including using a school-wide uninterrupted reading block, providing more non-fiction text in the classrooms and in the library, and scheduling peer book discussions in classes that could even occur across grade levels. To successfully analyze the research, a Professional Learning Committee (PLC) could be developed to focus on the literacy block. In a PLC curriculum leaders must be able to provide staff members and related publics with a clear framework of the concept they desire to implement (Glatthorn et al., 2012).

For schools to promote reading success for every student, the teachers, the instructional coach, and the administrator must collaborate to continually improve instruction. Leaders will increase their effectiveness if they continually work on the five components of leadership; a) if they pursue moral purpose, b) understand the change process, c) develop relationships, d) foster knowledge building, and e) strive for coherence with energy, enthusiasm, and hopefulness (Fullan, 2001).

The results of this research suggest that even though the school may have implemented a research based balanced literacy approach for the reading block, the teachers, leaders, and administrators must examine the program to determine what areas could be improved to promote student success. Addressing the literacy needs of all of the students in the fifth grade can begin when school leaders discover that all of the components of a research based balanced literacy must be evaluated and adjusted to meet the individual needs of every student.

End Note

The research from this study provides information for teachers, leaders, and administrators to review and analyze how fifth grade students experience reading. It will be important to adjust or change the strategies to promote reading and / or the curriculum for fifth grade students. Fullan (2011), a noted change theorist, identified five characteristics of effective leadership for change: (a) moral purpose, (b) understanding the change process, (c) strong relationships, (d) knowledge sharing, and (e) coherence, or connecting new knowledge with existing knowledge that served as the theoretical framework from which the data was viewed. The information from this study is instrumental for teachers, leaders, and administrators to begin the process of change by connecting new knowledge with existing knowledge to create the most appropriate reading opportunities fifth grade students.

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APPENDIX A**PARENTAL PERMISSION FORM****RESEARCH TITLE: A MULTIPLE-CASE STUDY ON HOW FIFTH GRADE STUDENTS FEEL ABOUT READING**

INVESTIGATOR: Tiffany Tate, University of Montana Education Leadership doctoral student, University of Montana Department of Education Leadership phone number: 406-243-5586.

SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONS: This form may contain words that are new to you. If you read words that are not clear to you, please ask the person who gave you this form to explain them.

May 4, 2014

Dear Parent or Guardian,

PURPOSE: I am a teacher at Wilson Elementary School and I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Montana in the Education Leadership department. To complete the program requirements, it is necessary for me to conduct and complete a doctoral dissertation. The dissertation involves gathering data to more fully understand how fifth grade students feel about reading.

PROCEDURE: I am requesting your permission to give them a reading survey and questionnaire from the Motivation to Read Profile (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, & Mazzoni, 1996) at the school. I would also like to look at their reader's notebook and Essential Reading tests. In addition, Mrs. Poduska, the school principal, three fifth grade teachers, Mrs. Shibuya, Mrs. Kitto, and Mrs. Chudzick, have all agreed to cooperate with this project. Your child's grade will not be affected whether or not he or she participates.

With your permission, your child can take a 20 question Motivation to Read survey that asks basic questions regarding their reading habits (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, & Mazzoni, 1996). Then, a 14-question interview session from the Motivation to Read Profile Conversational Interview would take about 15-20 minutes will be conducted. With your permission, I would like to audiotape the interview. I will have exclusive access to the tapes, which I will transcribe and erase. During the transcription, I will remove any information that may allow your child to be identified. For reporting purposes, your child will be assigned a pseudonym. Your child's identity will not be revealed at any time during the research or in the final manuscript.

RISKS/DISCOMFORTS: Participation in this project is completely voluntary and you and your child may withdraw at any time without penalty or prejudice. There is minimal risk/discomfort associated with this study because they are just filling out a survey and answering questions during an interview.

BENEFIT: Your child's help in this study may help determine how fifth grade students feel about reading and what strategies could be used to help their teachers and researcher. If you have any questions regarding the project, please feel free to contact me at 307-690-6189. My faculty advisor is Dr. Frances O'Reilly at the University of Montana and she may be contacted at 1-406-243-5586 or through email at frances.oreilly@umontana.edu .

CONFIDENTIALITY: All records will be kept confidential and will not be released without your consent except as required by law. For example, only the researcher and my supervisor will have access to the files. You and your child's identity will be kept private. If the results of this study are written in a scientific journal or presented at a scientific meeting, neither you nor your child's name will be used. The data will be kept in a locked file cabinet in my office. Your child's signed assent form, as well as this parental permission form, will be stored in a locked

cabinet separate from the data. The audiotape will be transcribed without any information that could identify your child and the tape will be deleted.

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION/WITHDRAWAL: Your decision to allow your child to take part in this research study is entirely voluntary. You may withdraw your child from this study at any time without penalty or loss of benefit. Your child may leave the study for any reason. Your child may be asked to leave the study for any of the following reasons:

1. Failure to follow the researcher's instructions.
2. The researcher thinks it is in the best interest of your child's health and welfare.
3. The study is terminated.

QUESTIONS: You may wish to discuss this with others before you agree to allow your child to take part in this study. If you have any questions about the research now or during the study contact: Dr. Frances O'Reilly at 406-243-5586. If you have any questions regarding your child's rights as a research participant, you may contact the Chair of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of Montana Research Office at 406-243-6672.

PARENT'S STATEMENT OF PERMISSION: I have read the above description of this research study. I have been informed of the risks and benefits involved, and all my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. Furthermore, I have been assured that a member of the research team will also answer any future questions you may have. I voluntarily agree to have my child take part in this study. I understand that I will receive copy of the permission form.

Printed Name of Participant (Minor)

Signature of Parent or Legally Authorized Representative

Date

STATEMENT OF PERMISSION TO BE AUDIOTAPED:

I understand that audio recordings will be taken during the study. I understand that all audio recordings that are used for presentations of any kind, names or other identifying information will not be associated with them. I understand that audio recordings will be destroyed following the transcription, and that no identifying information will be included in the transcription.

Signature of Parent or Legally Authorized Representative

Date

Sincerely,

Tiffany J. Tate

APPENDIX B**PARENTAL PERMISSION FORM****RESEARCH TITLE: A MULTIPLE-CASE STUDY ON HOW FIFTH GRADE STUDENTS FEEL ABOUT READING**

INVESTIGATOR: Tiffany Tate, University of Montana Education Leadership doctoral student, University of Montana Department of Education Leadership phone number: 406-243-5586.

SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONS: This form may contain words that are new to you. If you read words that are not clear to you, please ask the person who gave you this form to explain them.

May 4, 2014

Dear Teacher,

PURPOSE: I am a teacher at Wilson Elementary School and I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Montana in the Education Leadership department. To complete the program requirements, it is necessary for me to conduct and complete a doctoral dissertation. The dissertation involves gathering data to more fully understand how fifth grade students feel about reading.

PROCEDURE: I am requesting your permission to give your students a reading survey and questionnaire from the Motivation to Read Profile (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, & Mazzoni, 1996) at school. I would also like to look at their reader's notebook and Essential Reading tests. In addition, Mrs. Poduska, the school principal, three fifth grade teachers, Mrs. Shibuya, Mrs. Kitto, and Mrs. Chudzick, have all agreed to cooperate with this project. Your student's grade will not be affected whether or not he or she participates. After I obtain the consent forms that

they students sign along with their parent I can give them the survey and interview them individually.

With your permission, you student can take the 20 question Motivation to Read survey that asks basic questions regarding their reading habits (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, & Mazzoni, 1996). Then, a 14-question interview session from the Motivation to Read Profile Conversational Interview would take about 15-20 minutes to complete. With your permission, I would like to audiotape the interview. I will have exclusive access to the tapes, which I will transcribe and erase. During the transcription, I will remove any information that may allow your student to be identified. For reporting purposes, your student will be assigned a pseudonym. Your student's identity will not be revealed at any time during the research or in the final manuscript. I would like to ask you some reading questions during the teacher interview session and they will be audiotaped.

RISKS/DISCOMFORTS: Participation in this project is completely voluntary and you may withdraw at any time without penalty or prejudice. There is minimal risk/discomfort associate with this study because they are just filling out a survey, answering questions during an interview, and you are answering interview questions about reading.

BENEFIT: Your help in this study may help determine how fifth grade students feel about reading and what strategies could be used to help their teachers and researcher. If you have any questions regarding the project, please feel free to contact me at 307-690-6189. My faculty advisor is Dr. Frances O'Reilly at the University of Montana and she may be contacted at 1-406-243-5586 or through email at frances.oreilly@umontana.edu .

CONFIDENTIALITY: All records will be kept confidential and will not be released without your consent except as required by law. For example, only the researcher and my supervisor will

have access to the files. Your identity will be kept private. If the results of this study are written in a scientific journal or presented at a scientific meeting, your name will be used. The data will be kept in a locked file cabinet in my office. Your signed consent form will be stored in a locked cabinet separate from the data. The audiotape will be transcribed without any information that could identify you will be deleted.

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION/WITHDRAWAL: Your decision to take part in this research study is entirely voluntary. You may withdraw from this study at anytime without penalty or loss of benefit. You may leave the study for any reason. You may be asked to leave the study for any of the following reasons:

1. Failure to follow the researcher's instructions.
2. The researcher thinks it is in the best interest of your health and welfare.
3. The study is terminated.

QUESTIONS: You may wish to discuss this with others before you agree to take part in this study. If you have any questions about the research now or during the study contact: Dr. Frances O'Reilly at 406-243-5586. If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Chair of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of Montana Research Office at 406-243-6672.

STATEMENT OF PERMISSION: I have read the above description of this research study. I have been informed of the risks and benefits involved, and all my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. Furthermore, I have been assured that any future questions you may have will also be answered by a member of the research team. I voluntarily agree to participate in this study. I understand that I will receive copy of the permission form.

Printed Name of Participant

Signature of Teacher

Date

STATEMENT OF PERMISSION TO BE AUDIOTAPED:

I understand that audio recordings will be taken during the study. I understand that all audio recordings that are used for presentations of any kind, names or other identifying information will not be associated with them. I understand that audio recordings will be destroyed following the transcription, and that no identifying information will be included in the transcription.

Signature of Teacher

Date

Sincerely,

Tiffany J. Tate

APPENDIX C**RESEARCH TITLE: A MULTIPLE-CASE STUDY ON HOW FIFTH GRADE STUDENTS FEEL ABOUT READING**

INVESTIGATOR: Tiffany Tate, University of Montana Education Leadership doctoral student, University of Montana Department of Education Leadership phone number: 406-243-5586.

SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONS: This form may contain words that are new to you. If you read words that are not clear to you, please ask the person who gave you this form to explain them.

May 4, 2014

Dear Student,

Why am I here?

I am a teacher at Wilson Elementary School and I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Montana in the Education Leadership department. To complete the program requirements, it is necessary for me to conduct and complete a doctoral dissertation. The dissertation involves gathering data to more fully understand how fifth grade students feel about reading.

Why am I doing this study?

I am writing a paper for my doctoral program about how fifth grade students feel about reading.

I am requesting your permission to give you a reading survey and questionnaire from the Motivation to Read Profile (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, & Mazzoni, 1996) at the school. I would also like to look at your reader's notebook and Essential Reading tests. In addition, Mrs. Poduska, the school principal, three fifth grade teachers, Mrs. Shibuya, Mrs. Kitto, and Mrs. Chudzick, have all agreed to cooperate with this project. Your grade will not be affected whether you participate or not.

What will you do?

I would like you to take a 20 question Motivation to Read Profile survey that was designed by several researchers in the education field (Gambrell, L.B. Palmer, B.M., Codling, R.M., & Mazzoni, S.A. (1996) and this should take around 10-15 minutes. The Motivation to Read Profile survey asks you some basic questions about your interest in reading and your daily reading schedule.

You will then participate in the Reading Motivation Conversational interview. An interview session would take about 15-20 minutes and will be conducted at school. With you and your parent/guardian permission, I would like to audiotape the interview. I will have exclusive access to the tapes, which I will transcribe, which means type, and then I will delete them. During the transcription, I will remove any information that may allow you to be identified. For reporting purposes, you will be assigned a false name. Your identity will not be revealed at any time during the research or in the final manuscript

Will the study hurt?

Participation in this project is completely voluntary and you may withdraw at any time without penalty. There will be no direct benefit, no direct risk, nor discomfort involved in the participation of this survey.

Will the study help me?

The study may allow you to reflect on how you feel about reading in 5th grade or you may not end up doing any self-reflection.

What if I have questions?

If you have any questions regarding the project, please feel free to contact me at school. You can ask any questions you may have about the study.

Do my parents know about this study?

This study was explained to your parents or your guardian and they said you could participate.

You can talk this over with them before you decide.

Do I have to be in the study?

You do not have to be in the study. No one will be upset if you don't want to do the study. If you don't want to be in the study, you just have to tell me. You can say yes now and even change your mind later.

Writing your name on this page means that you agree to be in the study, and know how you will participate. If you decide to quit the study all you have to do is tell the researcher.

If you want to participate, please sign and return a copy of this letter by_____. I will provide a second copy for your records.

Sincerely,

Tiffany J. Tate

Name of Minor (printed)

Date

Signature of Minor

Date

Signature of Researcher

Date

APPENDIX D

SCRIPT

My name is Ms. Tate, and, in addition to being a teacher, I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Montana-Missoula, Montana. I need your help with a project and paper that I am working on. Your parents have agreed to let you participate in this project, but I want to make sure you agree.

I am very interested in knowing more about fifth graders ideas about reading. I want to know how you really feel about reading, what you like to read when you aren't in school, what topics you like to read, and where you like to read.

I will be choosing a few students to interview after you complete the Motivation to Read Profile 20 question survey on paper. During this interview, I will ask you questions regarding your ideas and opinions about reading. It will be important for me to listen to the areas you like about reading and the areas you don't. I will audiotape the interview and the tapes will be deleted after I have transcribed the information. Your identity will be protected and you will be assigned a false name in the written dissertation.

I will be listening to an audiotape and after we meet I will listen to it and type out what you have said. Even though I will use your information in my paper, I will not use your name. If you do not want to participate in this project, at any time, you may quit. It is important that you feel comfortable. Your grade in your fifth grade classroom will not be affected if you chose to participate in this project or not.

I look forward to learning more about your opinion regarding reading and how motivation affects your reading performance. This will be an informative process and I am

excited to be learning about fifth grade reading topics, interest, and the dynamics of independent reading at your level.

Are you interested in helping me with this project? I will give you a form to review, sign, and return.

Thanks,

Tiffany J. Tate

APPENDIX E

Motivation to Read Profile Survey and Conversational Interview

The research for this dissertation was from a valid and reliable Motivation to Read Profile and Conversational Interview (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, & Mazzoni 1996). This was designed to provide teachers with an efficient and reliable way to assess reading motivation qualitatively and quantitatively by evaluating students' self-concept as readers and the value they place on reading (Gambrell et al, 1996). The Motivation to Read Profile (MRP) has two instruments: the Reading Survey (Likert Scale, group administered and student self-reported) and also the Conversational Interview (which is administered on an individual basis).

The information from this assessment can be used to plan instruction and activities to facilitate reading development. Item selection for this assessment was based on a review of research and theories related to motivation and included an analysis of existing instruments designed to assess motivation and attitude toward reading (Gambrell et al., 1996). Participating in the interview allows a child to describe their reading experience and motivation (Denzin, 1970).

Questions 1-10 of the MRP reading survey are about how the student reflects on their self-concept as a reader. The next 10 items are how they value reading. There are twenty total questions and there is a four point Likert scale.

TEACHER DIRECTIONS: MRP READING SURVEY

Distribute copies of the Reading Survey. Ask students to write their names on the space provided.

Say:

I am going to read some sentences to you. I want to know *how you feel about your reading*. There are no right or wrong answers. I really want to know how you honestly feel *about reading*.

I will read each sentence twice. Do not mark your answer until I tell you to. The first time I read the sentence, I want you to think about the best answer for you. The second time I read the sentence, I want you to fill in the space beside your best answer. Mark only one answer. Remember: Do not mark your answer until I tell you to. Okay, let's begin.

Read the first sample item. Say:

Sample #1: I am in (pause) 1st grade, (pause) 2nd grade, (pause) 3rd grade, (pause) 4th grade, (pause) 5th grade, (pause) 6th grade.

Read the first sample again. Say:

This time as I read the sentence, mark the answer that is right for you, I am in (pause) 1st grade, (pause) 2nd grade, (pause) 3rd grade, (pause) 4th grade, (pause) 5th grade, (pause) 6th grade.

Read the second sample item. Say:

Sample #2: I am a (pause) boy, (pause) girl.

Say:

Now, get ready to mark your answer.

I am a (pause) boy, (pause) girl.

Read the remaining items in the same way (e.g., number ____, sentence stem followed by a pause, each option followed by a pause, and then give specific directions for students to mark their answer while you repeat the entire item).

MOTIVATION TO READ PROFILE

READING SURVEY

Name _____ Date _____

Sample #1: I am in _____ .

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <input type="radio"/> 1st grade | <input type="radio"/> 4th grade |
| <input type="radio"/> 2nd grade | <input type="radio"/> 5th grade |
| <input type="radio"/> 3rd grade | <input type="radio"/> 6th grade |

Sample #2: I am a _____ .

- boy
 girl

1. My friends think I am _____ .

- a very good reader
 a good reader
 an OK reader
 a poor reader

2. Reading a book is something I like to do.

- Never
 Not very often
 Sometimes
 Often

3. 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

4. My best friends think reading is _____ .

- really fun
- fun
- OK to do
- no fun at all

5. When I come to a word I don't know, I can _____ .

- almost always figure it out
- sometimes figure it out
- almost never figure it out
- never figure it out

6. I tell my friends about good books I read.

- I never do this.
- I almost never do this.
- I do this some of the time.
- I do this a lot.

7. When I am reading by myself, I understand _____ .

- almost everything I read
- some of what I read
- almost none of what I read
- none of what I read

8. People who read a lot are _____ .

- very interesting
 - interesting
 - not very interesting
 - boring
-

9. I am _____ .

- a poor reader
 - an OK reader
 - a good reader
 - a very good reader
-

10. 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
-

11. I worry about what other kids think about my reading _____ .

- every day
 - almost every day
 - once in a while
 - never
-

12. Knowing how to read well is _____ .

- not very important
 - sort of important
 - important
 - very important
-

13. When my teacher asks me a question about what I have read, I _____ .

- can never think of an answer
 - have trouble thinking of an answer
 - sometimes think of an answer
 - always think of an answer
-

14. I think reading is _____ .

- a boring way to spend time
 - an OK way to spend time
 - an interesting way to spend time
 - a great way to spend time
-

15. Reading is _____ .

- very easy for me
 - kind of easy for me
 - kind of hard for me
 - very hard for me
-

16. 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
-

17. When I am in a group talking about stories, I _____ .

- almost never talk about my ideas
 - sometimes talk about my ideas
 - almost always talk about my ideas
 - always talk about my ideas
-

18. I would like for my teacher to read books out loud to the class _____ .

- every day
 - almost every day
 - once in a while
 - never
-

19. When I read out loud I am a _____ .

- poor reader
 - OK reader
 - good reader
 - very good reader
-

20. When someone gives me a book for a present, I feel _____ .

- very happy
 - sort of happy
 - sort of unhappy
 - unhappy
-

SCORING DIRECTIONS: MRP READING SURVEY

The survey has 20 items based on a 4-point Likert scale. The highest total score possible is 80 points, which would be achieved if a student selects the most positive response for every item on the survey. On some items, the response options are ordered least positive to most positive (see item #2 below), with the least positive response option having a value of 1 point and the most positive option having a point value of 4. On other items, however, the response options are reversed (see item #1 below). In those cases, it will be necessary to **recode** the response options. Items where recoding is required are starred on the Scoring Sheet.

EXAMPLE: Here is how Maria completed items 1 and 2 on the Reading Survey.

<p>1. My friends think I am _____.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> a very good reader</p> <p><input checked="" type="radio"/> a good reader</p> <p><input type="radio"/> an OK reader</p> <p><input type="radio"/> a poor reader</p> <p>2. Reading a book is something I like to do.</p> <p><input type="radio"/> Never</p> <p><input type="radio"/> Not very often</p> <p><input type="radio"/> Sometimes</p> <p><input checked="" type="radio"/> Often</p>

To score item 1, it is first necessary to recode the response options so that

a poor reader equals 1 point,
an OK reader equals 2 points,
a good reader equals 3 points,
a very good reader equals 4 points.

Since Maria answered that she is a *good reader* the point value for that item, 3, is entered on the first line of the Self-Concept column on the Scoring Sheet. See below.

The response options for item 2 are ordered least positive (1 point) to most positive (4 points), so scoring item 2 is an easy process. Simply enter the point value associated with the response that Maria chose. Because Maria selected the fourth option, a 4 is entered for item #2 under the Value of Reading column on the Scoring Sheet. See below.

Scoring Sheet	
Self-Concept as Reader	Value of Reading
*recode 1. <u>3</u>	2. <u>4</u>

To calculate the Self-Concept raw score and Value raw score, add all student responses in the respective column. The Full Survey raw score is obtained by combining the column raw scores. To convert the raw scores to percentage scores, it is necessary to divide student raw scores by the total possible score (40 for each subscale, 80 for the full survey).

MRP READING SURVEY SCORING SURVEY

Student Name _____

Grade _____ Teacher _____

Administration Date _____

recoding scale
1 = 4
2 = 3
3 = 2
4 = 1

Self-Concept as Reader

- *recode 1. ____
- 3. ____
- *recode 5. ____
- *recode 7. ____
- 9. ____
- *recode 11. ____
- 13. ____
- *recode 15. ____
- 17. ____
- 19. ____

SC Raw Score: ____/40

Value of Reading

- 2. ____
- *recode 4. ____
- 6. ____
- *recode 8. ____
- *recode 10. ____
- 12. ____
- 14. ____
- 16. ____
- *recode 18. ____
- *recode 20. ____

V Raw Score: ____/40

Full survey raw score (Self-Concept & Value): ____/80

Percentage Scores

Self-Concept
Value
Full survey

Comments: _____

TEACHER DIRECTIONS: MRP CONVERSATIONAL INTERVIEW

1. Duplicate the *Conversational Interview* so that you have a form for each child.
2. Choose in advance the section(s) or specific questions you want to ask from the *Conversational Interview*. Reviewing the information on students' Reading Surveys may provide information about additional questions that could be added to the interview.
3. Familiarize yourself with the basic questions provided in the interview prior to the interview session in order to establish a more conversational setting.
4. Select a quiet corner of the room and a calm period of the day for the interview.
5. Allow ample time for conducting the conversational interview.
6. Follow up on interesting comments and responses to gain a fuller understanding of their reading experiences.
7. Record students' responses in as much detail as possible. If time and resources permit, you may want to audiotape answers to A1 and B1 to be transcribed after the interview for more in-depth analysis.
8. Enjoy this special time with each student!

C. Emphasis: General Reading

1. Did you read anything at *home* yesterday? _____ What?

2. Do you have any books at school (in your desk/storage area/locker/bookbag) today that you are reading? _____ Tell me about them.

3. Tell me about your favorite author.

4. What do you think you have to learn to be a better reader?

5. Do you know about any books right now that you'd like to read? Tell me about them.

6. How did you find out about these books?

7. What are some things that get you really excited about reading books?

Tell me about . . .

8. Who gets you really interested and excited about reading books?

Tell me more about what they do.

APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL-TEACHERS (SESSION 1)

Interviewer: Thank you for your time and your valuable input. I'm going to be asking you some questions. The reason for this group interview session instead of an individual interview is so you can be spurred on by other's thoughts and ideas. Please explain why you answer something in a certain way. Make your answers as complete as possible. I may use your answers in my paper, but your name will not be used.

Question 1: Do you read for pleasure?

Probe: How often do you read?

Probe: What do you like to read?

The questions above are important because a dynamic teacher should be an amazing reader and have excellent fluency, comprehension, and know how to teach reading effectively. Instead of telling students important information, many teachers have begun teaching students to use and access information independently while reading (Harvey & Goudis, 2007). The teacher models how to access information in the text; guiding students in large groups and pairs, providing large blocks of time for students to read independently, and practicing using and applying strategies (Harvey & Goudis, 2007).

Question 2: What value do you see in children's pleasure reading?

Question 3: In what ways do you, as a teacher, promote pleasure reading?

Probe: What results do you see?

Question 4: How do you think children perceive reading for pleasure?

Question 5: How do you explain differences in students' desires to read for pleasure?

If a student knows that they will be reading the passage to a reading partner, paraprofessional, parent, or a teacher, they will practice the passage in order to do well on the task. Specific passages like dialogues, poetry, song lyrics, letters, and journal entries are good reading passages for students to practice (Rasinski et al., 2005).

Probe: Would you expect any special traits in a child who likes to read for pleasure? Probe: Would you expect any special traits in a child who does not like to read for pleasure.

Students read for pleasure if they have acquired specific reading skills and in order to know if a teacher has done that, they know how to teach the skills to the students who do not read for pleasure. An effective teacher must teach meaningful, challenging, and dynamic reading lessons daily while building in independent reading time (Cunningham & Stanovich, 2003). If a teacher ignores the need for specialized instruction and dynamic reading programs, the future of many students is bleak (Cunningham & Stanovich, 2003).

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR TEACHERS- (SESSION 2)

Interviewer: I appreciate your willingness to meet again and I have a few more questions to ask you. Remember to make your answers as complete as possible.

Question 1: How do you teach reading in your classroom?

Question 2: Tell me about the most motivated reader in your class. Follow-up: What sets them apart?

Probe: Tell me about the least motivated reader in your class. Follow-up: What sets them apart?

There are many demands on a teacher that make reading instruction difficult: lack of curriculum, state standards that adjust, short reading time frames, and diverse academic levels in the classroom (American Federation of Teachers, 2004). Children's' interests in reading must be stimulated through regular exposure to interesting books and through discussions in which students respond to many kinds of texts (American Federation of Teachers, 2004).

Question 3: Imagine yourself reading for pleasure. Describe your setting.

Probe: What are you reading?

It is important to gather data about how often the fifth grade teachers read for pleasure in order to see how it can affect their reading level and instruction. It is proven that reading offers hours of enjoyment and decreases the possibility of depression, unemployment, and low self-esteem (McGuinness & McGuinness, 1998)



Wilson Elementary School
5200 HHR Ranch Rd.
Wilson, WY 83014
February 4, 2014

Dear Dr. O'Reilly,

This letter is to confirm that I have read Chapters 1-3 of Tiffany Tate's dissertation, and had the opportunity to discuss them with her. I have approved the study Tiffany is proposing in her dissertation, which will be completed at Wilson and Alta Elementary Schools.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Tracy Poduska".

Tracy Poduska

2/4/14

Gmail - Permission to use Reading Motivation Profile



Tiffany Tate <tiffanytate1@gmail.com>

Permission to use Reading Motivation Profile

Jackie Malloy <jjoymalloy@gmail.com>

Mon, Feb 3, 2014 at 6:16 PM

To: LINDA B GAMBRELL <LGAMB@clemsun.edu>, tiffanytate1@gmail.com

Dear Tiffany,

We are more than happy to give you permission to use the MRP-R, and wish you the best in your research. Please keep us posted on what you find!

I'm attaching a zipped file with the documents and an excel file with the formulas inserted for data keeping.

Best,

Jackie, Linda, Barbara and Susan

On Mon, Feb 3, 2014 at 1:48 PM, LINDA B GAMBRELL <LGAMB@clemsun.edu> wrote:


Jax, would your respond to email below. Linda

Linda B. Gambrell
Distinguished Professor of Education
Co-editor, *Reading Research Quarterly*
Clemson University
409E Tillman Hall
Clemson, SC 29634

Phone: 864-650-2259
email: LGAMB@clemsun.edu

From: Tiffany Tate <tiffanytate1@gmail.com>**Date:** Monday, February 3, 2014 1:34 PM**To:** "Linda B. Gambrell" <LGAMB@clemsun.edu>**Subject:** Permission to use Reading Motivation Profile

[Quoted text hidden]

 **MRP-R for classrooms.zip**
279K

2/4/14

Gmail - Permission to use Reading Motivation Profile



Tiffany Tate <tiffanytate1@gmail.com>

Permission to use Reading Motivation Profile

Tiffany Tate <tiffanytate1@gmail.com>
To: lgamb@clemsn.edu

Mon, Feb 3, 2014 at 11:34 AM

Dr. Gambrell,

I am a doctoral student at the University of Montana in the Education Leadership Department. I would like your permission to use the Motivation to Read Profile in my qualitative grounded theory study. The study is on what motivates students in 5th grade to become excellent readers and how the administration can support teachers.

Thanks for your ongoing reading research in this ever-changing and important field.

Sincerely,
Tiffany Tate