

**An Investigation of the Relationship Between Amount and Type of Reading of 5th Grade
Students and their Reading Achievement**

by

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Abstract

This study examined the relationship between amount and type of reading of 5th grade students and their reading achievement. To generate answers to the research questions, four variables were investigated: students' gender, students' self-concept as a reader, students' value of reading, and students' reading achievement. The type of reading and amount of reading were related to these variables. Fifty students completed a Daily Out-of-School Time Activity Log for a one-week period. They completed the Motivation to Read Profile (MRP) (Gambrell, et al., 1996) and a questionnaire about topics of interest to 5th grade students. The Stanford Achievement Test (SAT10), was used to determine students' reading level. The five most frequently selected materials were: novels, directions, Internet sites, electronic games, and something that the student wrote. The reading logs were analyzed to determine how many hours each student read during the 7-day time period. Approximately 36% of the students read at least one hour per day or more during this study. Thirty-eight (76%) of the fifty students read from 0 to 2 hours during the weekend and 15 (30%) students read from 0 to 2 hours during the weekday time period. There were no significant correlations found between amount of reading and any of the variables of self-concept, value of reading, total score on MRP, or SAT10. Above average readers had a tendency to score higher on value of reading and self-concept as a reader. There

were no significant differences found between boys and girls between amount of reading and any of the aforementioned variables. There was a tendency for girls to value reading more than boys. Boys identified the reading of electronic games significantly more often than did girls. Type of reading was not significantly related to any of the variables. There was not much difference between girls and boys in relation to total hours reading and any of the variables. The participants' favorite topics were: fantasy characters, sports, and characters who do amazing things. This study revealed the important place that technology has in the reading lives of adolescents. Reading from technologies should be considered when planning programs.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	X
1.0 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM	6
1.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY	8
1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	8
1.4 DEFINITION OF TERMS	9
1.5 DELIMITATIONS	10
2.0 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....	11
2.1 ADOLESCENT LITERACY.....	11
2.2 NEW LITERACIES	15
2.3 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE ADOLESCENT’S READING	18
2.3.1 Motivation to Read	18
2.3.2 Self-concept	22
2.3.3 Gender	26
2.3.4 Topics of Interest	27
2.4 SUMMARY	30
3.0 METHODOLOGY.....	32
3.1 SETTING.....	32

3.2	PARTICIPANTS	33
3.3	INSTRUMENTS	35
3.4	PROCEDURES.....	40
4.0	RESULTS	43
5.0	FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS..	57
5.1	FINDINGS.....	57
5.2	CONCLUSIONS	59
5.3	DISCUSSION.....	65
5.4	LIMITATIONS.....	68
5.5	IMPLICATIONS FOR INSTRUCTION	69
5.6	RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS	72
	APPENDIX A	75
	APPENDIX B	79
	APPENDIX C	81
	APPENDIX D	84
	APPENDIX E	88
	REFERENCES.....	89

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1-Participant’s Achievement Scores, Gender, & Ethnicity	34
Table 3.2-Research Study Time Line	41
Table 4.1-Kinds of Reading Over a 7-Day Period (In order of # of times chosen).....	45
Table 4.2-Total Amount of Hours Reading in a 7-Day Period.....	46
Table 4.3-Profile of Outliers	46
Table 4.4-Daily and Weekend Total Amount of Hours Read	47
Table 4.5-Relationship of Amount of Reading to the Following Variables: Self-concept as a Reader, Value of Reading, MRP Total Score, and SAT 10 Score.....	48
Table 4.6-Mean Scores-Hours of Reading, Self-Concept, Value of Reading, and Total Score on MRP	49
Table 4.7-Gender, Self Concept as a Reader, and Value of Reading – Mean Scores	50
Table 4.8-Relationship Between Gender and Mean Amount of Time Reading Most Popular Activities Boys.....	50
Table 4.9- Relationship Between Gender and Mean Amount of Time Reading Most Popular Activities Girls.....	50
Table 4.10- Relationship Between Type of Reading and Variables Pearson Correlations	52
Table 4.11- Reading From the Public Library – Number of Occasions	53

Table 4.12- Favorite Reading Topics.....	54
Table 4.13-Other Favorite Reading Topics	55

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Dedication

Dedicated in loving memory of my dad, James H. Gray, my first and best teacher.

Thank you for sharing your wisdom with us all.

FOOTPRINTS IN THE SNOW

by

Thomas Gray

I walked through the woods today and as the snow sparkled to life with every step,

I made my way around and came back to a set of footprints in the snow.

I wondered are these mine or are they of the man who came before me.

As I followed, I remembered the man and all the walks in the woods.

Some were for work, some for learning, but always they were for fun.

As I try to follow step by step, I know there will never be another man who can

fill the shoes of the man who left these footprints in the snow.

These footprints in the snow you say will melt and fade away.

But in my heart they will always be as fresh and alive as they were that day.

Proverb 13:20

He who walks with wise men will be wise

1.0 INTRODUCTION

More than 8 million students in grades 4 - 12 are struggling readers; every school day, more than 3,000 students drop out of high school; only 70% of high school students graduate on time with a regular diploma; 53% of high school graduates enroll in remedial courses in postsecondary schools (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004).

In *Reading Next – A Vision for Action and Research in Middle and High School Literacy*, Snow and Biancarosa (2004) state that adolescent readers do not comprehend what they read because they lack the strategies that would support comprehension.

A typical 5th grade student is considered an adolescent. Recent studies indicate that adolescents normally choose not to read on their own (Pitcher et al., 2007). How to motivate the adolescent student is a strong priority of teachers since reading motivation declines through middle and secondary school. Motivation is defined as “beliefs, values, needs and goals that individuals have” (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997).

According to recent research, there is a link between motivation and achievement (Gambrell et al., 1996). Because reading is an effortful activity that often involves choice, motivation is crucial to reading engagement. Motivation theorists attempt to understand the choices that individuals make among different activities available to them and their effort and persistence at the activities they choose (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Wigfield & Eccles, 2002). Even the reader with the strongest cognitive skills may not spend much time reading if he or she is not motivated to read.

Students will expend effort and maintain interest in literacy tasks and activities that match their values, needs, and goals. Adolescent students will choose not to read when they judge reading activities to be unrewarding, too difficult, or not worth the effort because they are uninterested or the task does not meet their needs. Research indicates a strong relationship between time spent reading, and writing competence; therefore, students who do not read in their free time will eventually lose academic ground (Worthy et al., 1999).

Access to large numbers of books and different types of books that match students' instructional needs and interests is imperative to motivate students to read. Students have preferences and often the school collections do not match their tastes (Worthy et al., 2002).

Results from the National Assessment of Educational Progress in Reading (NAEP) were summarized by the Alliance for Excellent Education, a policy group recognized for its expertise in adolescent literacy:

Students who took the reading assessment were also asked how often they read for fun. Between 1984 and 2004, there was no measurable change in the percentage of nine-year-olds who read for fun. However, at ages thirteen and seventeen, the percentage of students who said they read for fun almost every day was lower in 2004 than in 1984. This trend was accompanied by an increase over the same twenty-year period in the percentage who said they never or hardly ever read for fun. At all three ages, the students who indicated that they read for fun almost every day had higher average reading scores in 2004 than those who never or hardly ever read for fun.

These results tell us that something other than reading for fun is occupying the adolescents' time. Some of these activities could be working a part-time job, searching the Internet, or blogging. The everyday literacies of adolescents are largely unexplored despite their potential to engage the youth in academic reading tasks (Moje et al., 2000).

Due to the emergence of the Internet as a powerful new technology for information and communication, the definition of literacy has changed. Reading, reading instruction, and literacy

instruction are being defined by change in even more profound ways as new technologies require new literacies to effectively take advantage of their potential (Leu et al., 2004). Students who graduate from secondary school today started their school career with the literacies of paper, pencil, and book technologies but will finish having encountered the literacies demanded by a variety of information and communication technologies: Web logs (blogs), word processors, video editors, World Wide Web browsers, Web editors, e-mail, spreadsheets, presentation software, instant messaging, plug-ins for Web resources, listservs, bulletin boards, avatars, virtual worlds, and many others.

Reading comprehension has been defined as the construction of meaning from a fixed body of text. Reading comprehension has a very different and broader meaning on the Internet (Coiro, 2003). New skills and strategies are required in this context to comprehend search engine results; to make correct inferences about information that will be found at any hyperlink; to determine the extent to which authors “shape” information presented on a webpage; to coordinate and synthesize vast amounts of information presented in multiple media formats, from an unlimited set of sources; and to know which informational elements require attention and which ones can or should be ignored.

The importance of interest for motivation and learning has been established in educational and psychological research. Early pioneers of education consider interest to be of paramount importance in learning (Dewey, 1913; James, 1963; Herbart, cited in Krapp et al., 1992) and later researchers showed that when students are interested in what is being taught and have access to materials that interest them, learning, motivation, effort, and attitudes improve (Hidi, 1991; Schiefele, 1991). Csikszentmihalyi (1990) states “there cannot be any learning unless a person is willing to invest attention” (p. 119).

Many motivation theorists propose that individuals' competence and efficacy beliefs, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and purposes for achievement play a crucial role in their decisions about which activities to do, how long to do them, and how much effort to put into them. Motivated readers will engage more in reading and will have positive attitudes toward reading (Baker & Wigfield, 1999).

Children who are intrinsically motivated read more frequently than other children (Guthrie et al., 1999). Children's reading frequency is an important predictor of their reading comprehension (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Classroom efforts to increase children's reading motivation have important implications for student motivation, reading comprehension and achievement.

Although research attention has focused on the cognitive consequences of reading difficulties (e.g., Juel, 1988; Stanovich, 2000), less attention has been devoted to the impact of motivational and behavioral factors. B. J. Zimmerman (2000) looked at the essential motive to learn as self-efficacy in his research. Self-efficacy, a close construct to self-concept, represents the judgments that students form of their ability to organize and execute the actions that are needed to accomplish specific learning-related tasks, such as reading. Self-efficacy is positively related to self-rated mental effort and achievement during students' learning from text that was perceived as difficult. The greater motivation and self-regulation of learning of self-efficacious students produces higher academic achievement according to a range of measures. Students' self-beliefs about academic capabilities do play an essential role in their motivation to achieve (Zimmerman, 2000). As Vygotsky wrote: "The separation of the intellectual side of our consciousness from its affective, volitional side is one of the fundamental flaws of traditional

psychology” (Vygotsky’s study (as cited in Worthy et al., 2002). When children believe they are competent and efficacious at reading they are more likely to engage in reading.

Stanovich and Cunningham (1992) found that amount and breadth of reading predicted reading achievement. Both Anderson et al. (1988) and Cipielewski and Stanovich (1992) found that the amount of reading predicted growth of reading achievement during elementary school on different measures of reading comprehension. Children who are highly motivated to read increase their reading amount over time. Students who spend a large amount of time reading increased in their use of such cognitive strategies as applying prior knowledge, finding the main idea, inferencing, and building a causal model of the text (Guthrie et al., 1999). Since amount and breadth of reading contribute to students’ reading achievement, it is obvious that researchers must take a look at what motivates students to read.

In a study by Baker and Wigfield (1999), gender played a part in students’ motivation. Girls had higher competence beliefs in reading compared to boys, valued it more, and had more positive attitudes toward reading than boys. Boys and girls differed in their motivation for reading, with girls showing more positive motivation for reading (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997).

Brozo, author of *To Be a Boy, to Be a Reader* (2002), states, “Teachers can tell you the stories about boys in their classrooms. They say over and over again that the students who are hardest to motivate, who are most often in special education are boys. There is a global pattern of underachievement for boys.” He contributes these three practical solutions: find ways to bridge the competencies that boys have outside of school with skills they need to handle academic tasks, match reading materials to boys’ interests outside of school, and find men in the community to serve as reading mentors for boys.

The purpose of this study was to investigate what adolescents are motivated to read. Types of reading and amount of reading were examined using the variables of self-concept as a reader, gender, value of reading, and achievement. The results of this research have implications for language arts research, curriculum and instruction. Researchers interested in the area of motivation for reading may be able to build on the findings.

1.1 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Adolescents tend to read less frequently as they enter the teen years (Pitcher et al., 2007), and often have negative attitudes toward reading. Since time spent reading relates to reading competence, adolescents may lose academic ground. It is imperative to learn about adolescents' preferred reading materials and modes of instruction to improve their reading outcomes.

Given that amount of reading is strongly related to reading achievement, it is important to identify factors that motivate one to read. As Thomas and Moorman (1983) assert: "The student who can read, but chooses not to, is probably the most crucial concern confronting our educational institutions today." Wigfield et al. (2004) state that even the reader with the strongest cognitive skills may not spend much time reading if he or she is not motivated to read. Getting a better sense of adolescents and their reading habits may contribute to the design of classroom contexts that expand and strengthen frequent and enjoyable reading and the benefits it provides.

Very few studies have attempted to explain student reading amount and frequency as it relates to cognitive and motivational variables in reading (Guthrie et al., 1999). If reading amount predicts achievement in text comprehension, accounting for reading amount becomes an important theoretical and practical issue for researchers. Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) stated that reading motivation was found to be both antecedent and predictive of reading amount. The variables of reading amount, achievement, and motivation need to be measured simultaneously to examine their relationship.

Boys and girls differ in their motivation for reading, with girls generally showing more positive motivation for reading (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Males lose interest in reading by late adolescence (Pitcher et al., 2007). Children's reading performance is an important predictor of their school success (Madden et al., 1993); thus, boys' lower reading motivation is a concern.

Self-efficacy is a highly effective predictor of students' motivation and learning (Zimmermann, 2000). Self-efficacy has been positively related to higher levels of achievement and learning as well as academic outcomes such as higher levels of effort and increased persistence (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Students with positive self-efficacy beliefs are more likely to work harder, persist, and achieve at higher levels. Since self-efficacy plays such an important part in students' learning and motivation to achieve, schools should seek to develop positive self-efficacy beliefs in their students.

Reading comprehension has been defined as the construction of meaning from a fixed body of text. On the Internet, reading comprehension takes on a different and broader definition. New skills and strategies are required in this context to successfully comprehend information. Reading comprehension has a very different meaning on the Internet (Coiro, 2003). Very little

research exists on the new literacies the Internet requires for achieving high levels of reading comprehension (Leu et al., 2004).

1.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to gain a deeper understanding of the relationships that might exist between how students value reading, their self-concept as a reader, the amount of reading they do, what they read, and their reading achievement. It also provided insight into how frequently students read using new literacies. The results can lead to a better understanding of how to generate enthusiasm for reading and to create the motivation to read.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions that were investigated are:

1. What kinds of reading and what amount of reading do 5th graders do in a one-week period during out-of-school hours?
2. How is amount of reading related to the following variables: students' gender, students' self-concept as a reader, students' value of reading, and students' achievement?

3. How is the type of reading (genre, computer, etc.) related to the following variables: students' gender, students' self-concept as a reader, students' value of reading, and students' achievement?

- In addition, students were asked to identify topics which they were interested in reading about to obtain information about adolescents' areas of interest.

1.4 DEFINITION OF TERMS

Extrinsic motivation: Effort directed toward obtaining external recognition, rewards, or incentives (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991).

Intrinsic motivation: An emphasis on curiosity and interest in the activity one is doing and a mastery orientation toward tasks (Gottfried, A. E., 1990).

Motivation: The characteristics of individuals, such as their goals, competence-related beliefs, and needs that influence their achievement and activities (Guthrie, J., Wigfield, A., Metsala, J, & Cox, K., 1999).

New literacies: Literacies associated with new communications and information technologies (Lanshear, C., & Knobel, M., 2003).

Reading amount: The frequency and time spent reading a range of topics for various purposes (Guthrie, J. T., Wigfield, A., Metsala, J. L., & Cox, K. E., 1999).

Self-efficacy: Personal judgments of one's capabilities to organize and execute courses of action to attain designated goals (Bandura, A. ,1997).

1.5 DELIMITATIONS

This study examined a small sample of students in 5th grade in an upper-middle class school district. These students come to school with higher than normal expectations to succeed. This study was somewhat limited by the students' restricted range in achievement. Out of the 50 participants there were 2 students identified as below average, 19 as average, and 29 as above average. The population limited this study's results.

2.0 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this review, the researcher begins by examining adolescent literacy and how new literacies may influence what students read. Next, is a discussion on factors that influence adolescent's reading, such as motivation to read and amount of reading, self-concept, gender, and topics of interest. A summary follows concluding what we know and why this research benefits the reading field.

2.1 ADOLESCENT LITERACY

Teaching reading to middle and secondary students is challenging for many reasons. In middle schools and high schools, students take classes in a variety of content areas such as science, social studies, and literature. Content-focused teachers may feel that it is not their responsibility to teach complicated reading strategies. The texts in the content areas are mostly expository and not very user-friendly. Students have had little instruction in reading and learning with informational texts and textbooks in upper elementary school. Another problem in adolescent literacy is the wide range of competence and interests of students. Students can be disinterested in the demands of the content-area curriculum (Gambrell et al., 2007).

As students progress from primary to the intermediate grades, positive reading attitudes decline and voluntary reading is not as common, yet time spent reading is tied to reading and writing competence. Intermediate students who do not read in their free time may decline academically. A major challenge is reaching the upper intermediate student who has given up on reading. Some of the factors that positively influence students' motivation to read include: attention to students' interests, students' access to inspiring reading materials, and positive social interaction around literacy (Worthy et al., 2002).

Worthy et al., (2002) studied 24 struggling, resistant readers in grades 3 and 5 who were tutored one to two semesters by university graduate students. The tutors for the study were doctoral students and preservice teachers with classroom experience in a reading methods class. Assessments included the Qualitative Reading Inventory-II (Leslie & Caldwell, 1995), a developmental spelling assessment, analysis of a writing sample, and trade book reading; also an interest survey and an interview about reading attitudes, habits, and interests were given. All students made gains in reading achievement and also increased their motivation to read on their own. Some of the factors that appeared necessary to inspire voluntary reading were: social interaction around literacy and access to appropriate, relevant, and interesting reading materials. The greatest factor in increasing reading motivation were the tutor's willingness to take personal responsibility for their students' progress. The results showed that many intervention programs for the intermediate student might be inappropriate for students past the primary grades. The study also suggests that a personalized, responsive, relationship-based approach may be better for older readers who have struggled for years.

The research of Pitcher et al. (2007) demonstrates that few adolescents choose to read on their own. These researchers modified the Motivation to Read Profile (MRP) (Gambrell, et al.,

1996) to be used with adolescents and to appeal to teens. Eleven researchers at eight sites administered the Adolescent Motivation to Read Profile reading survey (AMRP) and engaged 384 adolescents in conversational interviews. They changed some language in the reading survey to be more adolescent friendly. Added to the conversational interview were items related to technology, family, and out-of-school literacies. As a result of the findings of this study, researchers suggested that educators; (a) recognize multiple literacies in which students engage outside of the classroom, (b) model their own reading enjoyment, (c) utilize engaging activities in regular instruction in the intermediate classroom, such as book clubs and literature circles, (d) include varied reading materials, levels, formats, and topics in the classroom, and (e) incorporate choice in reading projects. A limitation of this study was the definition that students had of reading. Students tended to define reading only in an academic context and were viewing their out-of-school literacies as reading and writing. Adolescents tended to reject literacy assignments without purpose; therefore, researchers must direct their attention to students' personal use of literacy and what is important to them.

Worthy et al. (1999) studied 426 sixth graders to discover their reading preferences and the materials available in their libraries and classrooms. Students' reading preferences and access were examined through a two-part survey, which was developed from previous preference studies, bestseller lists, and previous research on students' preferences. The findings of this study pointed to the conclusion that there is an ever-increasing gap between student preferences and materials that schools provide and recommend. This study did not examine reading habits; preferences may not translate to voluntary reading if preferred reading materials are not available. This study maintained that the definition of school reading should be broadened to include the use of materials that students read outside of school. These researchers believe that

encouraging students to follow their interests may be the answer to how we motivate the adolescent student. Since this study examined only reading preferences, reading habits were ignored. If preferred reading materials are not available, preferences may not translate to voluntary reading. This study has important implications for language arts research. Adolescents' interests and preferences may influence change in a school's curriculum and instruction.

Alvermann et al. (2007) devised a daily out-of-school time activity log, which was modeled after one developed by Giles (1994), to explore what struggling adolescents chose to read. They examined 60 student participants who were enrolled in grades 7 – 9. Thirty attended weekly out-of-school media club meetings (the intervention group); the other 30 were assigned to a comparison group and did not attend the media club meeting. All the participants kept a daily out-of-school time activity log for 14 weeks. One outcome of this study was that regardless of the label “struggling readers” the youths did not report activities one would expect of underachievers. They engaged in a wide range of literacy practices such as: searching the Internet; reading directions, song lyrics, and billboard advertisements; and some that did not require print literacy, such as video-gaming. Another unexpected finding was the large amount of time that participants spent reading out of school in both the intervention group (29.4 minutes per day) and the comparison group (33.9 minutes per day). The most interesting finding, given for its implication for educators, is that participants reported reading something after school because they heard about it and it sounded interesting. This was reported from the intervention group that attended media club meetings. It is possible that the adolescents in this study read something recommended by a peer because they were around other students who were engaged in a variety of literacy activities. This study looked at struggling readers who were so low on a

district-wide standardized reading achievement test that they were at risk of dropping out of school by their sixteenth birthday. A benefit to further research would be to examine the typical adolescent and their out-of-school reading habits.

Ogle and Lang (2006) examined these key challenges in adolescent literacy: no common pattern for instruction in content literacy, expository texts are not user-friendly, teachers are reluctant to incorporate reading instruction into their teaching, and there is a wide range of competence and interests of the students. Since Cassidy et al. (2006) ranked adolescent literacy as their hottest topic in the 11th annual survey, it is imperative that research be directed in that area.

2.2 NEW LITERACIES

Given the constant emergence of new technologies that affect literacy, a precise definition of the “new” literacies may never be possible (Leu, Jr. et al., 2004). The most important characteristic of new literacies is that they change regularly and rapidly. Leu, Jr., et al, (2004) defines new literacies as the skills, strategies, and dispositions necessary to use and adapt to the changing information and communication technologies (ICTs) that emerge in our world and influence our lives. Leu and his colleagues believe that the new literacies allow us to use the Internet and other ICTs to identify important questions, locate and evaluate information, synthesize that information to answer questions, and then communicate the answers to others. They include as ICTs: Web logs, word processors, video editors, World Wide Web browsers, Web editors, e-mail, spreadsheets, presentation software, instant messaging, plug-ins for Web

resources, listservs, bulletin boards, avatars, virtual worlds, and many others. These researchers clearly state that electronic environments must be added to the definition of literacy.

The term “literacies” refer to a range of concepts, including visual, digital, and others (Richards & McKenna, 2003). The term “new literacies” replaces the singular digital literacy to encompass the Internet and other electronic environments (McKenna et al., 2007). In this information age, demands for literacy require students to be adept users of electronic environments. Research has shown that integrating technology into literacy instruction, even with the youngest student, is efficacious. Electronic environments have the potential to engage and scaffold students. Technology often increases student motivation and may enhance confidence when children use technology successfully (McKenna et al., 2007).

Gambrell (2005) disagrees with the *Reading at Risk* (National Endowment for the Arts, 2004) report that states that the Internet fosters short attention spans, accelerated gratification, and passive participation. The report suggests that reading is at risk but fails to include or acknowledge the contribution of electronic media. Her experience suggests that reading of newspaper articles and websites would not have been reported in the *Reading at Risk* survey because such activities were not from a traditional book. Gambrell (2005) states that reading needs an expanded definition to include a balance between narrative and exposition, hard copy and electronic media.

The Internet has become an important context for teaching and learning. Nearly 75 percent of all United States households had Internet access in 2004, and 94 percent of teens used the Internet for school-related research. Also, 93 percent of K-12 classrooms in the United States now have at least one computer connected to the Internet, and in 1999, 66 percent of public school teachers reported using computers or the Internet for instruction during class time

(Coiro & Dobler, 2007). New literacies mean different things to different people. Some researchers define new literacies as social practices, new semiotic or cultural contexts, and discourses that emerge with new technologies (Coiro & Dobler, 2007). These researchers observed students reading on the Internet and used qualitative methods to explore new types of reading strategies necessary to learn in this new text environment. These researchers selected 150 sixth grade readers from three middle schools. Verbal protocols, interview, and field observation were the principal sources of data. The findings suggest that the greater complexities of online comprehension may lead to even greater gaps in reading performance between high and low achieving readers. Coiro & Dobler (2007) suggest that much more research is needed to broaden our understanding of online reading comprehension. Some limitations of this study were: no observation of students reading printed texts, the questioning that comprehension strategies may be more complex versions of traditional printed text literacies in lieu of new literacies, only used three of the five functions of the model of new literacies, and the online reading tasks focused on external assigned questions as opposed to self-selected topics. Researching the nature of online reading from other points of view such as identity, gender, stance, positionality, and sociosemiotic perspectives is recommended.

As new literacies emerge and develop, new theories and research must take place. Moreover, as new technologies for information and communication continue to appear, still newer literacies will emerge (Leu, Jr., et al., 2004). Very little research exists on the new literacies required for achieving high levels of reading comprehension. Research must examine the fine line that exists between technology and the human element: adolescents who struggle may still need to connect with their teachers before they will exert effort necessary for school success (Santa, 2006).

There is still disagreement as to what constitutes reading while adolescents are on the computer. Is electronic game playing literacy? This is something that continues to need further research.

2.3 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE ADOLESCENT'S READING

2.3.1 Motivation to Read

The issues of motivation and perseverance in learning are significant in the intermediate years (Gambrell et al., 2007). Much of the research on children's reading has focused on cognitive aspects such as comprehension and word recognition. Since reading is an effortful activity that children can choose to do or not to do, it also requires motivation. Teachers have long recognized that motivation is at the center of many of the problems we face in teaching young children to read. The value teachers place on motivation is supported by a robust research literature that documents the link between motivation and achievement (Gambrell et al. 1996). The results of these studies indicate the need to increase our understanding of how children acquire the motivation to develop into active, engaged readers. According to Guthrie (1996), highly motivated readers generate their own literacy learning opportunities, and, in doing so, they begin to determine their own destiny as literacy learners. There is recognition that students need both the cognitive skill and the motivational will to do well in school (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002).

When individuals are intrinsically motivated, they complete activities for their own sake and out of interest in the activity. Their motivation comes from inside themselves rather than

from external sources. Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) identified dimensions of intrinsic motivation such as reading curiosity and preference for challenge. Individuals who are intrinsically motivated to learn become deeply involved in their activity and devote much time and energy to it (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) found that students who were intrinsically motivated to read, as defined by their reading curiosity and preference for challenge, were much more likely to report that they engaged frequently in reading both in and out of school. Intrinsically motivated students seek to improve their skills and build on what they know. Intrinsic motivation can have strong cognitive as well as motivational benefits.

When extrinsically motivated, individuals perform activities to receive some benefit, such as a reward. Their motivation comes from what they will receive for performing the activity rather than from the activity itself. Recognition for reading and reading for grades is an important aspect of extrinsic motivation to read. Although extrinsic motivators are powerful forces in children's lives and often can be used effectively to engage children in different learning activities, there is concern that an over-reliance on them can interfere with children's intrinsic motivation under certain conditions (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Many children perform activities such as reading for intrinsic and extrinsic reasons (Leper & Henderlong, 2000). It is unreasonable that educators expect that children always will be intrinsically motivated to read or to perform different activities in school (Brophy, 1998). Students with high self-efficacy to read are more likely to be intrinsically motivated to read. The different aspects of motivation operate together and influence one another. Students who are intrinsically motivated to read and efficacious about their reading will be more engaged in reading than will students who are lower on these variables (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000).

In a study by Baker and Wigfield (1999), two theoretical positions, the engagement perspective and achievement motivation theory, were examined. Participants were 371 fifth- and sixth-grade students attending six elementary schools. The Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) was used for assessment (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Two questions assessing self-reported reading activity were included in the assessment. These were taken from the Reading Activity Inventory developed by Guthrie et al. (1994). The limitations of this study were: sample size due to limiting inclusion to those who completed data, participants may have completed measure in a way to make themselves look good, and possible additional dimensions of reading motivation that were not included. The most important outcome of this study is evidence that motivation is multifaceted. Students cannot be characterized as motivated or not. They are motivated to read for different purposes.

Wigfield et al. (2004) conducted a study regarding changes in students' motivations and strategies during CORI (Concept Oriented Reading Instruction) and SI (Strategy Instruction). Concept Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI) involves linking reading and science together to foster reading comprehension and motivation. Strategy Instruction (SI) consists of teaching multiple reading strategies. Approximately 150 third-grade children participated in CORI and 200 third-grade children participated in SI. Results of pre- and post-test analyses of children's responses to a reading motivation questionnaire showed that children's intrinsic motivation to read and reading self-efficacy increased only in the CORI group. The findings indicated that the often-observed decline in children's motivation can be reversed with instructional practices designed to foster children's motivation and that children who are intrinsically motivated read more frequently than do other children (Wigfield et al., 2004). A limitation of this study was the equal support given by the teachers in the SI and CORI groups. The increase in children's

reading motivation may have occurred because of science-reading links rather than solely because of reading instructional practices that support students' motivation. The CORI teachers established goals, supported autonomy, integrated hands-on science activities, and supported a positive social structure. Also, motivation could have resulted due to science-reading links rather than reading instructional practices that support students' motivation. The results of this study demonstrate the need to increase student's reading motivation, which leads to comprehension and achievement.

Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) explored different aspects of student's reading motivation and how motivation related to the amount and breadth of their reading. The participants in this study were 105 fourth- and fifth-grade students. The Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) was utilized to assess different aspects of reading motivation (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1995).

These researchers examined the extent to which reading motivation predicted growth in reading amount. Reading motivation predicted reading amount in the spring of an academic year, even when the contribution of reading amount from the previous academic year was entered as a control variable. Children who read more were likely to continue to do so, whereas children reading less frequently were less likely to increase their reading. Reading motivation in the spring of the academic year did not predict growth of reading amount from fall to spring during the year. Children who reported being highly motivated to read tended to increase their reading amount and breadth over time. Fifth graders were less motivated than the fourth graders. Girls showed more positive motivation for reading than boys. A limitation in this study is how to measure amount and breadth of reading. Diaries and questionnaire methods were used in this study. The disadvantage of utilizing children's diaries is their validity and inclusiveness.

Guthrie et al., (1999) suggest that motivation is a preeminent predictor of reading amount. This study extended the findings of Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) by statistically controlling past comprehension, prior knowledge, and reading efficacy. These researchers examined the results of two studies by looking at motivational variables that contribute to reading achievement and text comprehension. In Study 1, third and fifth grade students completed questionnaires to measure motivation and reading amount and performance tests to examine their text comprehension. In Study 2, the same variables were investigated using eighth and tenth grade students. The results of both investigations indicate that reading motivation increases reading amount. This linkage of reading motivation and reading amount is important to understanding the role of motivation in text comprehension. One of the major contributions of motivation to text comprehension is that motivation increases reading amount, which then can increase text comprehension. This research added to the literature by showing that reading motivation increases the reading amount of individuals, thereby facilitating their text comprehension. The major limitation in this study was measurement issues regarding reading amount and motivation. The print exposure measure was limited to fiction and not designed to capture school-related reading.

2.3.2 Self-concept

Self-concept can be defined as: the perceptions, knowledge, views, and beliefs that individuals hold about themselves as learners. William James (1890 – 1963) was one of the first psychologists to discuss the sense of self, or self-concept. He made the important distinction between the “self as knower” and the “self as object,” with the latter defined as an individual’s self-concept. Recent definitions of the self-concept are similar to James’s original definition.

Theorists define self-concept as an individual's representation of his or her self-knowledge or thoughts about the self (Wigfield & Karpathian, 1991). These perceptions and thoughts are said to be formed through experiences with the environment. Self-concept was defined as an individual's theory of the self as an experiencing, functioning being. Renewed interest in self-concept came along with the cognitive revolution in psychology in the 1970s. From 1975 to the present, great strides have been made in understanding the self-concept.

Academic self-concept, children's views of themselves as learners, has been suggested as an important predictor of achievement motivation and school performance. Reading self-concept is defined as the combination of three interrelated components: (1) perceptions of competence in performing reading tasks; (2) perceptions that reading activities are generally either easy or difficult, and (3) attitudes felt towards reading (Chapman & Tunmer, 1995).

Considerable research attention has focused on the cognitive consequences of reading difficulties (e.g., Juel, 1988; Stanovich, 2000); less attention has been devoted to the motivational and behavioral results. B. J. Zimmerman (2000) looked at the essential motive to learn as self-efficacy in his research. Self-efficacy, a close construct to self-concept, represents the judgments that students form of their ability to organize and execute the actions that are needed to accomplish specific learning-related tasks, such as reading. Self-efficacy is positively related to self-rated mental effort and achievement during students' learning from text material that was perceived as difficult. The greater motivation and self-regulation of learning of self-efficacious students produces higher academic achievement according to a range of measures (Multon et al., 1991). The evidence of self-efficacy as a mediator of student's learning and motivation confirms that students' self-beliefs about academic capabilities do play an essential role in their motivation to achieve (Zimmerman, 2000).

Reading-related self-perceptions have been viewed as increasingly important given the importance of learning to read and the influences on reading behaviors of a child's self-system (Chapman & Tunmer, 1997). Academic achievement has been shown to predict positive self-concept of ability. In turn, low achievement and learning disabilities have been found to lead to negative self-perceptions (Muijs, 1997).

Chapman, et. al. (2000) examined the relationship between academic self-concept and measure of reading-related performance. The participants, 129 five-year old children, were given the Perception of Ability Scale for Students. The PASS measures perceptions of attitudes toward school performance. There were several other measures utilized to determine prereading skills, such as: Letter Identification task, phoneme deletion task, sound matching task, Burt Word Reading Test, reading book level, and Reading Self-Concept Scale (Chapman, et. al., 2000). All instruments were administered individually to each child. The results showed that differences in reading self-concept appeared within the first two months of school. The researchers concluded that self-perceptions in reading might precede the development of more generalized academic self-concepts. As Spear-Swerling and Sternberg (1996) observed, "Once children have entered the 'swamp' of negative expectations, lowered motivation, and limited practice, it becomes increasingly difficult for them to get back on the road of proficient reading". This study was consistent with findings of other studies depicting the interrelationship of self-system factors and academic achievement. The young age of the participants was a limitation for the research, but nonetheless, gave background in the area of self-concept and achievement.

In a study conducted by Guay et al. (2003), it was found that students who felt competent were more motivated to pursue school activities, which in turn produced increased academic performance. The 385 participants were in grades two, three, and four. The Self-Perceptions

Profile for children was used to evaluate each child at the end of the grade. Teachers also completed a questionnaire assessing children's academic achievement (Guay et al., 2003). The results revealed that as children grow older, their academic self-concept responses become more strongly correlated with academic achievement. The limitations of this study were failure to: focus on the processes that intervene in the academic self-concept and academic performance relationship, assess academic self-concept in multiple school subjects, and test a larger age range to make a full test of developmental issues. The results of this study demonstrate the causal link from prior academic self-concept to subsequent achievement.

Chapman and Tunmer (2003) reviewed a number of studies on the development of achievement-related self-system factors in relation to children's reading acquisition. They reported that student's difficulties encountered due to failures and motivational problems was not insurmountable. The researchers believe that a comprehensive approach to remediation is required to overcome skill deficiencies in reading and negative reading- and achievement-related self-beliefs. The most important finding had to do with older struggling readers; these children who experience difficulty in word-decoding skills at early ages go on to develop comprehension problems, even if they eventually develop adequate word-recognition ability. Explicit instruction is important in developing comprehension skills.

“What is the relationship between self-concept and learning?” may be a better question for further research. Remaining issues that seem most critical are the relationships of different aspects of self-concept to one another and to general self-worth in different-aged children, individual and group differences in self-concept content and structure, and the relation of self-concept to different aspects of motivation.

Self-efficacy and literacy should not be seen as disparate elements in instruction, but as one integrated subject (Korat and Schiff, 2007). Turner (1995) suggests that teachers should consider their students as learners whose functioning is shaped by cognitive and affective factors. Worthy et al., (2002) quote Vygotsky: “The separation of the intellectual side of our consciousness from its affective, volitional side is one of the fundamental flaws of traditional psychology”. It is important that research continue to delve into the relationship that exists between self-concept/self-efficacy and reading achievement.

2.3.3 Gender

Considerable concern has been expressed in the past decade for the lack of literacy achievement of boys in the western world. Average scale scores on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) show that girls scored higher than boys in reading at ages 9 and 17. Viadero (2006) states in her article, “Concern Over Gender Gaps Shifting to Boys” that boys’ problems worsen in school as they move from elementary to middle school. Theorists suggests a range of possible causes such as: differences in the hard wiring of the brain; school practices that are not “boy friendly” and testing.

The reading achievement of adolescent African American males is a concern for educators. Self-concept and identity issues serve as barriers to achievement for African American males. Negative stereotypes and low socioeconomic status in high-risk neighborhoods compound the problems for the African American male adolescent. Tatum (2006) indicates that the role of text in literacy development needed to be addressed in research. Tatum suggests that appropriate reading materials should be selected to engage African American adolescent males with text, especially students who have not yet mastered the skills and strategies that lead to

positive life outcomes. A good literacy program should include texts that shape a positive life path and provide guidance in helping students resist nonproductive behaviors. Tatum believes that neither effective reading strategies nor comprehensive literacy reform efforts will close the achievement gap. There is a need for meaningful text at the core of the curriculum.

William Brozo suggests in *To Be a Boy, To Be a Reader* that boys are disenfranchised from reading. Brozo offers these suggestions to facilitate boy's engagement in reading: reading material must be tied to boys' interests, boys' interest must be honored when selecting texts, books with positive male archetypes are important, and adults must model engaged reading.

Research has shown boys' lack of success using traditional literacies but has failed to recognize their skill in using alternative digital literacies (Sanford, 2006). According to Marsh (2003) any analysis of gender literacy issues should also identify ways in which boys' literacy is often limited by their nonconformity to traditional conceptions of literacy that is propagated by schools. Literacy practices and children's out-of-school interests need to be better matched in order to motivate both boys and girls. It could ensure that girls are engaged in a wider range of literacy activities which is often not the case. Further research needs to take place in the area of gender and new literacies.

2.3.4 Topics of Interest

Since students' preferences and interests are related to motivation and engagement with learning, it is important to explore what influences students' preferences and the ways in which schools are influenced by students' preferences (Worthy et al., 1999). Studies show a correlation between success in school and the amount of leisure reading students do (Hughes-Hassell &

Rodge, 2007). Examining the topics that adolescents choose to read in their leisure time could help educators provide for preferred reading materials in classrooms.

A study conducted by Hughes-Hassell & Rodge (2007) examined the leisure reading habits of urban adolescents. The study was conducted in a low-income, urban middle school where the majority of students were Latino and African American in grades 5 through 8. A 20-item questionnaire focused on factors related to choice, such as: whether adolescents read in their leisure time, what they read, topics and types of characters they like to read about, how they obtain their reading material, and who encourages them to read. Seventy-two percent of the 584 respondents indicated that they engaged in reading as a leisure activity. Females read for pleasure more than males (78% versus 64%). Girls preferred reading realistic fiction, mystery, and fantasy, while boys preferred adventure and action-oriented texts. Both boys and girls had a strong preference for magazine reading. The most popular topics for respondents were celebrities, characters like me, sports figures, and musicians. The primary sources to obtain the students' reading material were: the school library (71%), the public library (53%), and the classroom (53%). Parents and teachers topped the list of who encourages the adolescent to read. A limitation of this study was the self-report questionnaire. Adolescents may not be reading as much in their leisure time as they report. This study raised an important question relating to reading scores remaining low even though adolescents reported that they engaged in leisure reading. A factor could be that magazine reading does not correlate positively with higher levels of literacy. Further research in the area of usage of preferred reading materials in classrooms and assessment instruments that can demonstrate the strengths of students who primarily read magazines and comic books is needed.

Ivey & Broaddus (2001) administered a survey to 1,765 sixth-grade students in 23 schools pertaining to reading activities they enjoy the most, how they find their reading materials, what types of books they like, and some of their favorite books. They also conducted individual interviews with 31 students from three classrooms in different schools. The interview protocol was designed to collect information that would further explain the responses on the survey. These researchers believed there is a mismatch between what students need and the instruction they receive. The results of this study indicate the students prefer two types of activities, free reading time and the teacher reading out loud. The response to what motivates the students to read resulted in 42 percent selecting, having a choice in the selection of reading materials, and to a lesser extent reports personal reasons, 28 percent, classroom contexts, 23 percent, and teachers or peers, 19 percent that motivated them to read in the classroom. Respondents reported that they often did not find the books they wanted to read in the classroom. The top six choices of the respondents for types of books they like to read were: magazines, adventure books, mysteries, scary stories, joke books, and animals. These researchers surmised that high-engagement reading classrooms would include time to read, time to listen to teachers read, and access to interesting materials. They concluded that determining how to use reading and reading instruction to attend to students' motivation to learn is a question for further research. Several limitations were found in this study. First, the requests for participating in the survey to schools were limited to a 100-mile radius of each research location. Second, information concerning classroom instruction and environment was gathered through teachers' self-reports. Third, surveys were administered by classroom teachers, which may have influenced how students responded to questions.

As mentioned previously, the study by Worthy, et al. (1999) presented the reading preferences and the materials available in school libraries and classrooms of middle school students. In this study, the researchers examined top reading preferences of sixth-grade students. The top seven in ranked order from one to seven were: scary books, cartoons/comics, magazines, sports, drawing books, cars/trucks, and animals. These researchers contend that encouragement of reading interests may be the answer to motivation of reading.

2.4 SUMMARY

Much research has been completed on reading difficulties in the primary grades, but there is less research in the area of the intermediate student. The No Child Left Behind Act (2001) requires annual testing of reading achievement of all children in grades 3 – 8, and funding has just recently been allocated to support the instruction of children who continue to experience difficulty beyond grade 3. G. Reid Lyon (1998) addressed the Committee of Labor and Human Resources with these words:

“By the end of the first grade, we begin to notice substantial decreases in the children’s self-esteem, self-concept, and motivation to learn to read if they have not been able to master reading skills and keep up with their age-mates. As we follow the children through elementary and middle school grades, these problems compound, and, in many cases very bright youngsters are unable to learn about the wonders of science, mathematics, literature and the like because they can not read the grade-level textbooks. By high school, these children’s potential for entering college has decreased to almost nil, with few choices available to them with respect to occupational and vocational opportunities. These individuals constantly tell us that they hate to read, primarily because it is such hard work, and their reading is so slow and laborious.” As one adolescent in one of the longitudinal studies remarked, “I would rather have a root canal than read” (p. 2).

In this literature view, the researcher examined studies that investigated factors that influence the decision to read. While previous studies looked at the variables that affect reading achievement, some researchers did not include the new literacies as a type of reading. They also did not relate the kinds of reading and amount of reading of a typical 5th grader to the following variables: students' gender, students' self-concept as a reader, students' value of reading, and students' achievement. In an effort to extend and enrich our understanding of what children choose to read outside of school and the amount they read, this study focused on these variables. A number of findings emerge from this body of literature concerning factors that influence the decision to read which have relevance for the present study of 5th grade student's out-of-school kinds of reading and amount of reading. Specifically it is imperative for researchers to seek information about students' use of multiple literacies in their out-of-school or voluntary reading.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research methodology used in the study. The purpose of this study was to gain a deeper understanding of the relationships that exist between how students value reading, their self-concept as a reader, the amount of reading they do, what they read, and their reading achievement.

Research shows that there is a strong relationship between reading amount and reading achievement (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). By investigating what students do read and how much they read, we should be able to learn more about what motivates them to read.

Descriptive research with a correlational research design was used in this study (Gay & Airasian, 2000). Correlational research attempts to determine whether, and to what degree, a relationship exists between two or more variables. Correlational studies are concerned with variables that are hypothesized to be related to each other (Gay & Airasian, 2000).

3.1 SETTING

The setting was Cleora Elementary School, which is one of the two elementary schools that make up the Homer School District (names used are pseudonyms). Homer School District is located along a river in western Pennsylvania. It consists of 11 municipalities with the area of 21

square miles. The total population according to the 2004 U.S. Census Bureau estimate is 13,225. The total school district enrollment for 2005/06 was 1,915 students. The community is primarily white, but also includes some ethnic, racial, and socioeconomic diversity. The population is: 87.1 % Caucasian, 8.0 % African American, 1.4 % Hispanic, 0.3 % Native American, 1.3 % Asian, and 1.9 % Multiethnic. Approximately 12.8 % of the population is economically disadvantaged. This stable population includes third and fourth generation Homer families, as well as those who have come from other states and other countries.

The schools mirror the cohesive, small-town atmosphere of the community they serve. Homer School District consists of four schools: Cleora Elementary School (School A) enrolls 349 students, Elementary School B, 451 students, Middle School, 474 students, and High School, 618 students. Homer is a small district with a reputation for quality. School and class sizes allow for a personal approach to instruction.

3.2 PARTICIPANTS

There were 96 students in the 5th grade at Cleora Elementary School: 51 male, and 45 female. The ethnic diversity of the 5th grade included: 85.4% Caucasian, 3.1% Multiethnic, 9.4% African American, and 2.1% Asian or Pacific Islander. These 96 fifth grade students from Cleora Elementary School were asked to participate in this study and permission was secured from them and their parents for consent to participate. In Table 1 the demographic information from the 50 students who agreed to participate is described. The student's achievement level was determined by looking at the Stanford Achievement Test, Tenth Edition (Stanford 10) stanine scores to determine achievement level (Above average – stanines 7, 8, 9; Average –

stanines 4, 5, 6; and Below Average – stanines 1, 2, 3). Achievement scores indicated that 58% of the students were in the above average, 38% average, and 4% below average. This researcher used the school district’s standardized test scores from the Stanford Achievement Test, Series 10 given in the Fall during their 5th grade year. National norms were used to compare student performance based on state reference group and the national standardization sample. Confidentiality was assured and identities protected. See Appendix A for the Parent Consent Letter. The study was reviewed by the Internal Review Board of the University and approved on all areas.

Table 3.1-Participant’s Achievement Scores, Gender, & Ethnicity

POPULATION	NUMBER	%
Gender		
Male	23	46%
Female	27	54%
Ethnicity		
Caucasian	41	82%
African American	5	10%
Asian or Pacific Islander	2	4%
Multi-ethnic	2	4%
Achievement Sample		
Above Stanines of 7, 8, 9*	29	58%
Average Stanines of 4, 5, 6*	19	38%
Below Stanines of 1, 2, 3*	2	4%

*Total reading on SAT10

3.3 INSTRUMENTS

In this section, the various data collection instruments are described. These instruments include: achievement tests, data from daily activity log, results from a survey, and reflexive journal and memos.

Reading achievement information - Reading achievement information was obtained for all participating students to identify their reading levels. Reading achievement was determined by the district's standardized achievement test scores from the SAT 10 test given at the beginning of 5th grade, specifically the total stanine scores on Total Reading section was used. The Stanford Achievement Test, Tenth Edition (Stanford 10) is a standardized test used to measure academic knowledge of elementary and secondary school students. Dating from its origin in 1926, the test is now in its tenth incarnation, or "Series". This test is one measure of the student's achievement. The report compares the student's performance to students in the same grade across the nation. The test is broken into subtest or strands covering the area of Total Reading. The Total Reading score is made up of these subtests: word study skills, reading vocabulary, and reading comprehension. The skills tested under each of these subtests are as follows: Word Study Skills – structural analysis, phonetic analysis – consonants, phonetic analysis – vowels; Reading Vocabulary – synonyms, multiple meaning words, context clues, thinking skills; Reading Comprehension – literary, informational, functional, initial understanding, interpretation, critical analysis, strategies, thinking skills. For each of these subtests and totals, the number tested, mean number correct, mean scaled score, national individual percentile rank-stanine, and mean national normal curve equivalent are reported. The report also breaks down the number of items and percent in each (below average, average, or above average) into content and process clusters. Performance on clusters is reported as Below

Average, Average, or Above Average. This reporting method enables the teacher to identify relative strengths and weaknesses within a content area. Clusters may be content clusters or process clusters. Number Possible, Number Attempted, and Number Correct for each cluster are also reported. Lexile measure is also reported. The Lexile measure, converted from the students' Reading Comprehension subtest score, is an indicator of the students' reading level and can be used to match the student to appropriate text. For this study, the stanine score for total reading was used to identify students as above average, average, or below average readers. The stanine was used because it is useful for interpreting score profiles. It is determined from the percentile rank which indicates the relative standing of a student in comparison with students in the same grade in the norm group who took the test at a comparable time.

Daily Activity Logs- All 5th grade students kept a Daily Out-of-School Time Activity Log (Alvermann et al., 2007) for a one-week period. The Daily Out-of-School Time Activity Log was modeled after one developed by Giles (1994), adapted for use with adolescents (Alvermann et al., 1999) and modified slightly to use in this study with 5th grade students (see Appendix B for the daily log & Appendix C for the weekend log). The logs consist of five questions about the following topics: types of out-of-school time activities in which the students engaged; whether or not students read materials checked out from the public library; types of materials they opted to read; and the amount of time they spent reading after school. Each question permits multiple responses.

The Daily Out-of-School Time Activity Log developed by Alvermann (2007) was adapted to make it easier for the 5th grade student. Since the participants in Alvermann's study (2007) were in grades 7th through 9th. The modifications included changes in format and content. An example of a format change is the addition of a table to chart times students read. An

example of a content change is the substitution of types of reading material read, e.g., “hardback or paperback book” was deleted and textbook, novel – fiction, and nonfiction book were added. In order to make the question of what activity they engaged in after-school more “student friendly” this researcher divided the activities into three columns of: quiet, active, and other activities. The long list of types of reading were also divided into three columns and placed in alphabetical order. Deleted from the logs were questions concerning places where the student read and the reasons for reading.

The Daily “Weekend” Out-of-School Time Activity Log was also adapted to make it easier for the 5th grade student. Modifications were made in format and content. Added to the Weekend Log were additional time slots to indicate the amount of time the student read. Since there is more out-of-school time during the weekend, time slots from 8:00 a.m. to 10:00 p.m. were added.

The Daily Out-of-School Time Activity Log provided the researcher with valuable information about the typical 5th graders’ after school reading habits for a 7-day time period. The log also provided the researcher with the types of reading the student did and if the material came from the public library. The log accounted for the time spent reading in 15-minute increments.

A pilot was conducted with four 5th grade students to determine usability of instruction and directions for completion. The students completed a daily and weekend log. The results indicated no need to change content in the logs. The feedback from the pilot study indicated the average time for completing each log was approximately one to two minutes, which the students felt was a comfortable time period for doing out-of-school work.

Research reported by DeLongis et al. (1992) indicated that retrospective self-reports were more accurate (and the data more reliable and valid) when collected over relatively short periods of time. A common time frame for diary-like recordings, such as the activity log, is “once-per-day assessments across a period of several weeks...usually before going to sleep for the night”.

Included in the daily out-of-school reading log was a wide range of literary experiences, such as: searching the Internet; reading directions, song lyrics, and billboard advertisements; and solving problems that do not require print literacy, such as in the semiotic domain known as video-gaming.

Topics of Interest Survey – Another instrument that was used was a questionnaire relating to the topics of interest of the 5th grade student (see Appendix E for Topics of Interest). The participants answered the question, “What do you like to read about?” in order to determine topics of interest to the adolescent student. There were 16 choices including “other”. Some examples of choices were: animals, sports, characters like me, and historical figures. Because research indicates a strong relationship between leisure reading and school achievement, it seemed important to determine what topics interested students (Hughes-Hassell & Rodge, 2007).

Reading Motivation Survey- All fifth grade participants completed the Motivation to Read Profile (Gambrell et al., 1996). The MRP consists of two basic instruments: The Reading Survey and the Conversational Interview (see Appendix D for MRP). This researcher used the Reading Survey, which is a self-report, group-administered instrument for this study. This survey was administered to students in each of the language arts classes participating in the study. The survey asked students to respond to 20 questions that revealed information related to how students’ perceive themselves as readers and whether or not they value reading. The items that focused on self-concept as a reader are designed to elicit information about students’ self-

perceived competence in reading and self-perceived performance relative to peers. The reading items designed to determine value of reading elicited information about the value students place on reading tasks and activities, particularly in terms of frequency of engagement and reading-related activities

In order to score the Motivation to Read Profile (Gambrell et al., 1996), the most positive response was given the highest number (4) while the least positive response was assigned the lowest number (1). Two subscores were computed for each student: one for Self-Concept as a Reader and one for Value of Reading. There was a possibility of obtaining from 10 to 40 points for each of these two sections. These data helped to determine a relationship between amount of out-of-school reading and self-concept and value of reading.

Gambrell et al. (1996) field-tested the Motivation to Read Profile to determine validity and reliability. The Reading Survey instrument was administered in the late fall and early spring to 330 third- and fifth-grade students in 27 classrooms in four schools from two school districts in an eastern U. S. state. To assess the internal consistency of the Reading Survey, Cronbach's (1951) alpha statistic was calculated; it revealed a moderately high reliability for both subscales (self-concept = .75; value = .82). In addition, pre- and post-test reliability coefficients were calculated for the subscales (self-concept = .68; value = .70), which confirmed the moderately high reliability of the instrument (Gambrell et al., 1996).

Responses to the survey and conversational interview were examined for consistency of information across the two instruments. The survey and interview responses of two highly motivated and two less motivated readers were randomly selected for analysis. 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) (Gambrell et al., 1996).

The validity of the Reading Survey as a means of establishing relationship between level of motivation and reading achievement was also studied (Ford, 1992; McKenna & Kear, 1990). Teachers categorized students as having low, average, or high reading performance. Statistically significant differences were found among the mean scores on the self-concept measure for high, middle, and low reading achievement groups, revealing that scores were positively associated with level of reading achievement. Statistically significant differences were also found between mean scores of 3rd and 5th grade students on the value measure, with younger students scoring more positively than older students (Gambrell et al., 1996).

Reflexive Journals and Memos - This researcher kept a detailed journal of all communication about the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), which included notes about contacts between researcher and the classroom teachers and principal, and memos of thoughts, comments, and wonderings about issues that emerged during data collection and analysis.

3.4 PROCEDURES

Permission letters were given to the superintendent, principal, teachers, and parents before conducting the research study. Collection of data took place over a one-week period. Data for this study came from these different sources: reflexive journals and memos, students' daily activity logs, researcher administered reading survey, and reading achievement information from state mandated assessment testing (see Table 2).

Table 3.2-Research Study Time Line

PROCEDURE	NOVEMBER				DECEMBER					JANUARY				
	Week 1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	5	Week 1	2	3	4	5
Talk to teachers		X	X											
Parent letters				X										
Student training				X	X									
Log activity					X									
Reading Survey						X								
Test data							X	X						
Analysis									X	X	X	X	X	X

This researcher took one day to train the students how to use the log. First, an introduction and a discussion concerning the interest in 5th grade students' out-of-school activities took place. The researcher told the students how important it is for adults to know what students are interested in doing when they are not in school so that teachers can do a better job of teaching.

Then the researcher modeled how to complete the log by discussing an Out-of-School Time Activities Log projected onto an overhead screen. The researcher used the previous day's out-of-school time to demonstrate. The students had a sample log in front of them to complete simultaneously. Using the model log, each question was completed by the researcher. The students followed along and inserted information onto their logs. It was necessary to make certain that the students understood that more than one statement could be circled, depending on the number of activities and items read. Careful observation took place to ensure that each student had a copy of an activity log and recorded the information from the screen onto their logs. A demonstration of how to check each 15 minute time period that they had read followed. Students were encouraged to ask questions about how to complete the log. Students were also

reassured that this would be a non-graded project and there was no pressure involved. All answers were acceptable and would not benefit nor harm their language arts' grades.

Each morning during the one-week period, the students turned in the completed activity log to their teacher or the researcher. During this one-week period in which students completed their logs, the researcher was available to assist and to monitor the progress. The researcher met with teachers to answer any questions that arose. A reward system for returning the daily activity log was set up. A treat was given each time students returned the log on the appropriate day. If all logs were returned at the end of the 7-day time period, students received a \$10 Border's gift card. Any student who had completed a weekend log and at least three daily logs were also considered for participation. An extrinsic reward system motivated the students to complete the out-of-school logs and return them daily.

The Motivation to Read Profile was administered on the last of the 7-day time period. The survey was given during the language arts block of the school day and took no longer than 15 minutes. Explanation of the purpose of this survey was given to the students. Reassurance was given that there were no "right" answers so students should respond honestly. The researcher read the survey aloud and asked students to mark one of the four answers that best represented their feelings about reading. Examples of questions that were asked included, "I am a poor reader, an OK reader, a good reader, or a very good reader, and Knowing how to read well is not very important, sort of important, important, or very important." The topics of interest page added to the Motivation to Read Profile was read to the students.

4.0 RESULTS

This study examined the relationship between amount and type of reading of 5th grade students and their reading achievement. To generate answers to the research questions, four variables were investigated: students' gender, students' self-concept as a reader, students' value of reading, and students' reading achievement. The type of reading and amount of reading were then related to these variables. This chapter discusses the analysis and interpretation of data, including the relationships of each of the four variables to students reading achievement.

Research question #1: What kinds of reading and what amount of reading do 5th graders do in a one-week period during out-of-school hours?

In order to answer this question, students completed daily and weekend logs for one week. Data from those logs were analyzed quantitatively to determine the amount of time that students read and also the kinds of reading materials used by students.

To determine the kind of reading that occurred, the logs of the 50 students were analyzed to obtain the number of times that each student selected a specific kind of reading material, e.g., one student may have chosen novels as reading material on 7 occasions. Then the total number of times that the specific kind of reading material was selected was calculated across all students, e.g. novels were chosen as reading materials 150 times, with a mean of 3.0. The number of

students who never selected a specific type of reading material was also identified, e.g., 16 students never read a novel. In Table 3, the kinds of reading of these 5th grade students is depicted.

The five most frequently selected materials were: novels, directions, Internet sites, electronic games, and something that the student wrote. Of the 50 participants, 16 students did not read a novel at all during the one-week period. The second highest category of materials selected by students was reading directions. Participants read on 135 occasions something that had directions; of the 50 participants, 17 students never read a set of directions during the one-week period. Sixty-six percent of the students read directions (mean = 2.7). Internet sites were viewed on 103 occasions with 16 participants never looking at an Internet site during the one-week period. Fifty-two percent of the students read electronic games on 101 occasions. Students also read their own writing; this was done on 88 occasions with 17 students never reading something they wrote in the one-week time period.

The items least selected were reference books, trading cards, and song lyrics. A reference book was read on seven occasions with 43 students never reading a reference book during the one-week study. Trading cards and song lyrics were chosen on 13 and 27 occasions respectively. Textbooks were selected only 77 times; in addition, 19 students never read a textbook. On 40 occasions, students chose other kinds of reading that were on the activity logs. These included: this log, calendar, guitar music, video game guide, and board games.

Table 4.1-Kinds of Reading Over a 7-Day Period (In order of # of times chosen)

Kinds of Reading	No. Times Selected	No. Students who Read (%)	No. Students Never Read (%)	Mean (SD)
Novel	150	34 (68)	16 (32)	3.0 (2.8)
Directions	135	33 (66)	17 (34)	2.7 (2.6)
Internet Sites	103	34 (68)	16 (32)	2.1 (2.2)
Electronic Game	101	26 (52)	24 (48)	2.0 (2.6)
Something you wrote	88	33 (66)	17 (34)	1.8 (2.0)
Textbooks	77	31 (81)	19 (38)	1.5 (1.9)
TV Guide	66	19 (38)	31 (62)	1.3 (2.2)
Magazine	63	20 (40)	30 (60)	1.3 (2.0)
Computer Activity	57	18 (36)	32 (64)	1.1 (1.9)
Billboard Advertisement	49	16 (32)	34 (68)	1.0 (2.1)
Other	40	14 (28)	36 (72)	0.8 (1.9)
Newspaper	36	18 (36)	30 (64)	0.7 (1.2)
Letter or Card	35	17 (34)	33 (66)	0.7 (1.4)
Comic Book	34	10 (20)	40 (80)	0,7 (1.7)
Nonfiction Book	31	14 (28)	36 (72)	0.6 (1.4)
Song Lyrics	27	13 (26)	37 (74)	0.5 (1.2)
Trading Cards	13	5 (10)	45 (90)	0.3 (1.1)
Reference Books	7	7 (14)	43 (86)	0.1 (0.4)

The logs of the 50 students were analyzed to determine how many hours each student read during all 7 days of the study. Then a frequency table was developed to illustrate the numbers of hours that students read during this 7-day period (see Table 4). A total of 14 students (28%) read between 3 and 4.9 hours during this one-week time period, which is approximately between .43 and .72 hours per day. There were 11 students (22%) who read between 5 and 6.9 hours. Approximately 36% of the students read on average at least one hour per day or more during this study. Only one student read less than one hour and one student read 19 hours during the week (see Table 5). It is noteworthy that reading is not an activity that is engaged in to a great extent by more than half of the students in this study in their after-school hours or on the weekend.

Table 4.2-Total Amount of Hours Reading in a 7-Day Period

Hours	Students No.	Percent (%)
<1	1	2
1 - 2.9	6	12
3 - 4.9	14	28
5 - 6.9	11	22
7 - 8.9	4	8
9 - 10.9	6	12
11 - 12.9	2	4
13 - 14.9	2	4
15 - 16.9	3	6
17 - 19	1	2
Total	50	100

Both students who read the most and least were boys. The student who read 19 hours scored considerably higher on the MRP total score, 82.5% compared to the student who read 35 minutes, 70%. It is interesting to note that the student who read 35 minutes had a higher achievement score; 88% compared to 83%. Both students are above average readers.

Table 4.3-Profile of Outliers

Variables	Student who read 19 hours Gender = boy	Student who read 35 minutes Gender = boy
Self-concept as reader	87.5%	77.5%
Value of reading	77.5%	62.5%
MRP total score	82.5%	70.0%
SAT 10 score	Above average	Above average
Kinds of reading (times during the 7-day time period)	Billboard (7), novel (7) electronic game (3)	Set of directions (2), something you wrote (1)

To analyze the difference between weekday and weekend reading, Table 6 depicts the weekday amount of hours read and the weekend amount of hours read in a 7-day period. The weekday time period consists of four days: Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday. The weekend time period consists of: Friday, Saturday, and Sunday. There is much less reading

taking place on the weekend time period, with a mean score of 4.6 hours for weekdays and 2.1 hours for the weekend. Thirty-eight of the fifty students read from 0 to 2 hours during the weekend and 15 students read from 0 to 2 hours during the weekday time period. Even though students have more time to read on the weekends, they do less reading. During the weekday time period, the students have approximately 6 hours per evening to read, from 3:30 – 9:30. This is a total of 24 hours possible reading time in the 4-day weekday time period. During the weekend time period, the students have approximately 34 hours of possible reading time; 6 hours Friday evening, 14 hours each on Saturday and Sunday. The weekend time period allows for more reading time, but there is considerable less reading done during that time period. Ten students read between 7 and 12 hours during the weekday time period and no students read between 7 and 12 hours during the weekend. There were 35 students who read 3 hours or more during the weekday time period and only 12 students who read 3 hours or more during the weekend.

Table 4.4-Daily and Weekend Total Amount of Hours Read

Hours	Weekday No. Students Mean=4.6	Weekend No. Students Mean=2.1
<1	1	12
1	7	15
2	7	11
3	12	3
4	6	4
5	4	2
6	3	3
7	4	0
8	1	0
9	1	0
10	1	0
11	2	0
12	1	0
Total	50	50

Research Question #2: How is the amount of reading related to the following variables: students' gender, students' self-concept as a reader, students' value of reading, and students' achievement?

In order to answer this question, Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to examine the relationship between type of reading and, self-concept, value of reading and reading achievement. An independent samples t-test was used to relate gender to type of reading. Table 7 illustrates the relationships between time spent reading and self-concept, value of reading, and total score on the Motivation to Read Profile, and score on the Stanford Achievement Test. The stanine score from the Stanford was used to identify students as; below average (stanines 1, 2, 3) average (stanines 4, 5, 6) or above average (stanines 7, 8, 9).

Table 4.5-Relationship of Amount of Reading to the Following Variables: Self-concept as a Reader, Value of Reading, MRP Total Score, and SAT 10 Score

Variable	Pearson Correlation
Self -concept as a reader	.08
Value of reading	.18
MRP total score	.17
SAT 10 score	-.02

As indicated in Table 7, there are no significant correlations between any of the variables of self-concept, value of reading, total score on MRP, or SAT 10.

It is important to note the number of students identified as below average, average, or above average readers. There were only two students identified as below average, 19 as average, and 29 as above average. Therefore, the restricted range in ability levels of readers certainly influenced the results of this study.

Table 8 provides additional analyses of these readers based on achievement. The two readers identified as below average read on average 6.5 hours per week; the average readers read approximately 6.6 hours per week and the above average readers read 6.7 hours per week. The Motivation to Read Profile shows mean raw scores on self-concept as a reader of 32 for below average students, 31.8 for average, and 33.6 for above average students. Means for students' value of reading is calculated from the MRP as: below average, 30; average, 26.3; and above average, 29. There is very little difference in scores of students' varying reading achievement levels and self-concept as a reader. The scores vary 1.4 points between the below average and above average students. There is a small but not significant difference of how the average and above average students value reading, e.g., above average students score 29 and average, 26.3. Above average students tend to score slightly higher on value of reading and self-concept as a reader.

Table 4.6-Mean Scores-Hours of Reading, Self-Concept, Value of Reading, and Total Score on MRP

Variables	Below Average (n= 2)	Average (n= 19)	Above Average (n=29)
Total hours of reading	6.5	6.6	6.7
Self -concept as a reader	32.0	31.8	33.6
Value of reading	30.0	26.3	29.0
MRP total score	62.0	58.1	62.6

Gender is examined as it relates to self-concept as a reader, value of reading, and achievement in Table 9. There are no significant differences between boys and girls on any variables. There is a tendency for girls to value reading more than boys. The mean score on value of reading for girls is 29.3 and boys 26.6.

Table 4.7-Gender, Self Concept as a Reader, and Value of Reading – Mean Scores

Variables	Boy (n=23)	Girl (n=27)	Whole Group (n=50)
Self-concept as a reader	32.7	32.9	32.8
Value of reading	26.6	29.3	28.0
Total MRP score	59.3	62.2	60.9
SAT 10 score	76.1	73.6	74.9

Table 10 and Table 11 illustrate the relationship of gender and amount of time reading the top five most popular reading activities from the Daily and Weekend Out-of-School Time Activity Logs. The results of independent sample t-tests indicate a significant difference (.001 level) between boys and girls on the reading activity of electronic games only. Boys report reading electronic games 3.1 hours per week while girls read these games 1.1 hours per week. Both boys and girls report reading directions about the same amount of time, boys, 2.8 hours per week and girls, 2.6 hours per week.

Table 4.8-Relationship Between Gender and Mean Amount of Time Reading Most Popular Activities Boys

Popular Activity	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Novel	23	3.1	3.1
Directions	23	2.8	2.6
Internet sites	23	1.9	1.9
Electronic game	23	3.1	2.8
Something you wrote	23	2.3	2.3

Table 4.9- Relationship Between Gender and Mean Amount of Time Reading Most Popular Activities Girls

Popular Activity	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Novel	27	2.9	2.5
Directions	27	2.6	2.6
Internet sites	27	2.2	2.4
Electronic game	27	1.1	1.8

Something you wrote	27	1.3	1.6
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Question #3 – How is the type of reading related to the following variables: students’ gender, students’ self-concept as a reader, students’ value of reading, and students’ achievement?

Two steps were involved in answering this research question. Data were summarized for the sample to determine which activities were circled most frequently on the Daily and Weekend Out-of-School Time Activity Logs. Based on the percentage of students who circled them at least once, the top five most popular activities were identified. They were novel, directions, Internet sites, electronic game, and something students wrote. Students read novels 50 times, directions 135 times, Internet sites 103 times, electronic games 101 times, and something they wrote 88 times. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to analyze the relationship between number of times during the week (which could range from 0 to 7) students read each of the five most popular types of material with total hours of reading, self-concept, value of reading, and achievement. Independent samples t-tests were used to relate gender to number of times which each of the most popular activities were circled.

Table 12 represents the relationship between type of reading and the variables of total hours, self-concept, value of reading, and achievement. Type of reading was not significantly related to any of the variables.

Table 4.10- Relationship Between Type of Reading and Variables Pearson Correlations

Variables	Novel	Directions	Internet sites	Electronic game	Something you wrote
Total hours	.21	-.12	.15	.24	.05
Self-concept as a reader	.19	.11	-.07	.05	-.13
Value of reading	.06	.03	-.21	-.19	-.0
MRP total score	.13	.07	-.18	-.12	-.11
SAT 10 score	.17	.20	-.06	-.23	.06

Table 10 and Table 11 illustrate how gender relates to mean amount of time each of the most popular activities were chosen. The tables show a significant difference between boys and girls on the reading activity of electronic games. Boys report reading electronic games more often, 3.1 hours per week than girls 1.1 hours per week. There is not much difference between girls and boys in reading novels, directions, Internet sites, or something the student wrote. Only one student read less than one hour and one student read 19 hours during the week. Both students who read the most and least were boys. The student who read 19 hours scored considerably higher on the MRP total score, 82.5% compared to the student who read 35 minutes, 70%. It is interesting to note that the student who read 35 minutes had a higher achievement score; 88% compared to 83%. Both students are above average readers.

In addition to addressing the three research questions, other questions about students reading habits and interests were analyzed. First, data from question #2 on the Daily and

Weekend Out-of-School Activity Logs, “Did you read anything today from the time you awoke until you went to sleep that you got out of the public library?” were analyzed with descriptive statistics to determine the extent to which students used the public or community library. Table 13 indicates that students read something from the public library a total of 31 times. A total of 14 boys and 17 girls read something during their 7-day period from the public library. Reading something from the public library is an extremely small, 8.8% of their total reading activities in a one-week time period. Since reading a novel is their top reading activity, it appears as though students do not get those materials from the library.

Table 13

Reading From the Public Library – Number of Occasions

Table 4.11- Reading From the Public Library – Number of Occasions

Gender	Occasions read from public library	Percent of reading materials
Boy	14	4.0%
Girl	17	4.8%
Total	31	8.8%

Second, data from students’ response to the question, “What do you like to read about?” were analyzed (See Table 14). These data came from a questionnaire administered at the same time as the Motivation to Read Profile. There were 16 choices from which to select. Seventy-four percent of the students chose to read about fantasy characters. Some other favorites were: reading about sports, 52%; reading about characters who do amazing things, 48%; and reading about characters like me, 44%. The topics that were seldom chosen were: reading about

musicians, transportation, and romance. Given the emphasis on expository and information text in elementary schools, it is interesting to note that science was not chosen by many students (20%).

Table 4.12- Favorite Reading Topics

Topics	Number of students	Percent
Fantasy characters	37	74%
Sports	26	52%
Characters my age who have done some amazing things	24	48%
Characters like me	22	44%
Characters who have overcome great obstacles	21	42%
Animals	19	38%
Celebrities	18	36%
Characters from other countries	16	32%
Historical figures	13	26%
Other	11	22%
Science	10	20%
Characters a lot different from me	9	18%
Science Fiction	8	16%
Romance	6	12%
Transportation	4	8%
Musicians	2	4%

Twenty-two percent chose “Other” and some of the topics they added are displayed in Table 15. The topic, mystery was chosen by 22%. Only one or two students chose the other topics.

Table 4.13-Other Favorite Reading Topics

Topic	Number of students	Percent
Mystery	11	22%
Diaries of long ago people	1	2%
Dancers my age	1	2%
Characters that can do magic	1	2%
Series	1	2%
Adventure	2	4%
Science Fiction	1	2%
Action	1	2%
Fairy tales	1	2%
Comedy	1	2%
Biographies of scientists	1	2%
Ancient countries	1	2%
People living an exciting life	1	2%
Funny books	1	2%
Inventors	1	2%
Mythology	1	2%
Scary book	1	2%

In summary, this study examined the relationship between amount and type of reading of 5th grade students and their reading achievement. These were the findings:

- Reading logs of 50 students were analyzed to obtain the number of times that each student selected a specific kind of reading material. The five most frequently selected materials were: novels, directions, Internet sites, electronic games, and something that the student wrote. Reading is not an activity that is engaged in to a great extent by more than half of the students in this study in their after-school hours or on the weekend. Even though students have more time to read on the weekends, they do less reading.

- There were no significant correlations between any of the variables of self-concept, value of reading, total score on MRP, gender, or SAT 10. There is a significant difference between boys and girls on the reading activity of electronic games, with boys reading these more frequently.

- The relationship between type of reading and the variables of gender, self-concept, value of reading, and achievement was analyzed. Data were summarized for the sample to determine which activities were circled most frequently from the Daily and Weekend Out-of-School Time Activity Logs. Based on the percentage of students who circled them at least once, the top five most popular activities were identified. They were novel, directions, Internet sites, electronic game, and something students wrote. Type of reading was not significantly related to any of the variables of self-concept as a reader, value of reading, gender, or achievement.

- Whether students used the public library to obtain their reading material and the topics they choose to read was investigated. A total of 14 boys and 17 girls read something during their 7-day period from the public library. Reading something from the public library was not done frequently, 8.8% of the total reading activities in a one-week time period.

- Seventy-four percent of students in the study chose to read about fantasy characters. Some other favorites were: reading about sports, 52%, reading about characters who do amazing things, 48%, and reading about characters like me, 44%. Twenty-two percent chose “Other” and some of the topics they added were: mystery, adventure, scary books, and fairy tales.

5.0 FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 FINDINGS

In this chapter the findings, conclusion, implications, and recommendations of this study are discussed. The goal of the study was to examine the relationship between amount and type of reading of 5th grade students and their reading achievement.

Research question #1 asked, What kinds of reading and what amount of reading do 5th graders do in a one-week period during out-of-school hours? The top five kinds of reading chosen were: novel, directions, Internet sites, electronic games, and something the student wrote.

To analyze the amount of time that students read, the logs of the 50 students were analyzed to determine how many hours each student read during all 7 days of the study. Approximately 36% of the students read at least one hour per day or more during this study. A breakdown of weekday and weekend amount of reading showed a mean score of 4.6 hours for the weekdays and 2.1 hours for the weekend. There is much less reading taking place on the weekend time period.

Research question #2 asked, How is amount of reading related to the following variables: students' gender, students' self-concept as a reader, students' value of reading, and students' achievement?

There were no significant correlations between any of the variables of self-concept, value of reading, total score on MRP, or SAT 10. There was very little difference in scores of students at varying reading achievement levels and self-concept as a reader.

Gender was examined as it related to self-concept as a reader, value of reading, and achievement. There were no significant differences between boys and girls on any variables.

The relationship of gender and amount of time reading the top five most popular reading activities from the Daily and Weekend Out-of-School Time Activity Logs was investigated. There was a significant difference (.001 level) between boys and girls on the reading of electronic games. Boys reported reading electronic games 3.1 hours per week while girls read these games 1.1 hours per week.

Research question #3 asked, How is the type of reading related to the following variables: students' gender, students' self-concept as a reader, students' value of reading, and students' achievement? Data were summarized to determine which activities were identified most frequently from the Daily and Weekend Out-of-School Time Activity Logs. Based on the percentage of students who identified them at least once, the top five most popular activities were: novel, directions, Internet sites, electronic games, and something the student wrote.

There were no significant relationships between type of reading and the variables of total hours, self-concept as a reader, value of reading, total MRP score, and SAT 10 scores.

Data obtained from the questions, Did you read anything from the time you got out of school today until you went to sleep that you got out of the public library? and What

topics do you like to read about? were analyzed descriptively. Students read something from the public library a total of 31 times. A total of 14 boys and 17 girls read something during their 7-day period from the public library. Reading something from the public library was an extremely small percent (8.8%) of their total reading activities in a one-week time period.

Data from students' response to the question, "What do you like to read about?" were analyzed. Seventy-four percent of students in the study chose reading about fantasy characters as being their favorite subject. Some other favorites were: reading about sports, 52%; reading about characters who do amazing things, 48%; and reading about characters like me, 44%.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

Based on the findings from this study, a number of conclusions were drawn relative to the relationship between amount and type of reading of 5th grade students and their reading achievement.

The first conclusion is that students are reading from print and from sources other than traditional print sources, that is, they are reading from sources identified as new literacies (Richards & McKenna, 2003; Coiro & Dobler, 2007). Participants in this study read from Internet sites and electronic games as their 3rd and 4th choice from 18 different kinds of reading. These findings are similar to results of previous research, which indicate that students are reading from sources such as digital texts or electronic contexts (Coiro & Dobler, 2007; Sternberg, et al., 2007; Leu, Jr. et al., 2004; Gambrell, 2005). Students in this study read the Internet and electronic games more often than reference books, nonfiction books, newspaper,

magazines, or textbooks. This is consistent with recent research that indicates that changes in technology continues to alter the ways in which adolescents use language to communicate and to think (Sternberg et al., 2007). McKenna et al. (2007) indicates that technology often increases student motivation and may enhance confidence. He also noted that the Internet in particular is capable of engaging students because they can self-select their reading materials. Because technology plays an increasingly central role in adolescent's reading, tools of technology should be incorporated into literacy programs for adolescents.

Related to this finding is that fact that there is a need for more research to broaden our understanding of online reading comprehension. The students 3rd choice in out-of-school time reading activities in this study was that of Internet reading. The Internet reading encompasses a variety of types and genres of reading such as: newspapers, e-mails, role-playing games, research articles, electronic text, and many more. Reading comprehension takes on a different and broader definition on the Internet. New skills and strategies may be required to successfully comprehend information from these sources. Coiro & Doblers' (2007) findings suggest that the greater complexities of online comprehension may lead to even greater gaps in reading performance between high and low achieving readers. Comprehension strategies required to efficiently locate information and respond to Internet comprehension tasks (e.g., inferential reasoning and active self-monitoring) are precisely the same strategies that most challenge our weakest adolescent readers (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004). Data from the work of Coiro and Dobler (2007) suggested that higher achieving sixth-grade readers with Internet reading experience are aware of and demonstrate strategic online reading processes to a higher degree than their less skilled peers with Internet reading experience. Internet text introduces new

complexities to the process of on-line comprehension and may be transforming the nature of reading, writing, and communicating (Coiro & Dobler, 2007).

Second, research showed that reading is not an activity that students engage in for long period of time when not in school. Specifically, 62% of the students read between 1 hour and 6.9 hours during their one-week out-of-school reading time. Sixty-two percent of the students in this study read on average (33.9) minutes per day in out-of-school hours during a one-week time period. This finding is consistent with Alvermann's et al. (2007) study of 60 seventh, eighth, and ninth graders in which the adolescents completed daily logs of out-of-school time activities each day for 14 weeks. With the exception of three boys of European American ancestry and one girl from Mexico, all other participants were of African American heritage and 90% of them had scored in the lowest quartile on the city's district-wide standardized test of reading. In Alvermann's study (2007), there were two groups: an intervention group which consisted of 30 students who attended weekly meetings of an out-of-school time media club and kept a daily out-of-school time activity log for 14 weeks. This group met at the public library and had access to seven Internet-connected computers. The other 30 students were assigned to a comparison group and did not attend the weekly media club meetings but did keep a daily out-of-school time activity log for the same 14-week period. Students in the intervention group reported that they spent 29.4 minutes per day reading out of school; the comparison group reported reading 33.9 minutes per day in the comparison group. Literacy practices included: searching the Internet; reading directions, song lyrics, and billboard advertisements; and solving problems through video-gaming. The time spent reading in both studies indicate that adolescents are reading approximately 30 minutes per day in after-school hours.

In an earlier study, Taylor et al. (1990) tracked 259 students in grades 5 and 6 kept daily reading logs for a 17-week period and reported reading on average of 15 minutes per day. The 13-year olds in Walberg and Tsai's (1985) large-scale study showed that the adolescents read on an average of 7.2 minutes per day. It could be speculated that the difference between the earlier and more recent studies are the choice of literacy-related activities such as: the Internet and video game magazines and the broader definition of what counts as literacy. Mentioned in both earlier studies was reading as reading a paperback or basal as assigned reading. The expansion of the Internet in 1992 allowed students to use personal computers and electronic e-mail. Before that time, print sources were the only literacy option for adolescents. The results are fascinating in that most homework activities such as reading; a textbook, nonfiction book, or reference book, were not the top reading activities chosen by adolescents in these studies. A speculation as to why the students are not reading as much is that other activities are taking them away from the usual type of homework assigned. Students may be taking lessons, playing sports, or participating in an after-school activity.

The National Endowment for the Arts published a survey stating that Americans are spending less time reading (2007). The report on adolescents declared that 54% of 9-year-olds and only 30% of 13-year-olds read almost every day for fun. The average time spent reading for students, ages 15 to 14 years was 20 minutes on weekdays and 26 minutes on weekends and holidays. This report indicated that literary reading declined significantly in a period of rising Internet use and when reading did occur, it competed with other media. This multi-tasking suggested less focused engagement with a text. Fifty-eight percent of middle and high school students used other media while reading. Twenty percent of their reading time was shared by

TV-watching, video/computer game playing, instant messaging, e-mailing, or Web surfing. This report blames electronic media for the lack of reading among adolescents.

Independent reading is the reading students choose to do on their own and reflects the reader's personal choice of material as well as time and place to read it. According to Anderson et al. (1988), students who begin reading a book in school are more likely to continue to read outside of school than students who do not begin a book in school. Teachers must model reading in school to encourage out-of-school time reading.

A third conclusion is that using preferred reading materials may lead to student's increased motivation. Pitcher et al. (2007) in her study of 384 sixth through twelfth graders, demonstrated that using adolescents' preferred reading materials and modes of instruction leads to increased motivation, and perhaps to improvements in reading outcomes. Her sample consisted of approximately 22% African American, 37% Caucasian, 30% Afro/Indo-Trini (from Trinidad and Tobago), 10% other, and 1% did not specify ethnicity. She utilized the motivation to Read Profile (Gambrell et al., 1996) and revised the language of the instrument to appeal to teens. More questions were included about using electronic resources, schoolwork and projects that students enjoyed, and what students choose to read and write on their own. She found that adolescents do choose to read on their own, but often define "reading" as a school-based activity. Since Guthrie et al. (1999) suggests that motivation is a predictor of reading amount and Greaney (1980) found a positive relationship between the amount of time spent reading at home and reading achievement, it seems necessary to take a greater look into what motivates students to read. Some of the students' topics of interest from this study were reading about; fantasy characters, sports, characters their age who have done some amazing things, characters like themselves, and characters who have overcome great obstacles. These results were similar to

Huges-Hassell & Rodge (2007) in that their most popular topics were reading about; celebrities, characters like themselves, sports figures, and musicians. We need to examine what adolescents choose to read, including the new literacies, which could result in increased motivation to read leading to a greater amount of reading.

Finally, in this study, the relationships between the variables of self-concept, value of reading, gender, and achievement were not what had been expected. The only relationship found was between gender and amount of time or type of reading, with the only significant difference being in the reading of electronic games (boys reporting reading electronic games significantly more often than girls). This specific finding about electronic games is consistent with Stanford (2006) who stated that research has shown boys' lack of success using traditional literacies but has failed to recognize their skill utilizing alternative-digital literacies. In her study, she examined issues of school-based and out-of-school literacy as they relate to gender in two adolescent classrooms consisting of 50 students. The participants reported considerable use of playing video or computer games by both girls and boys. The boys reported different types of games such as: racing, war, and fantasy role-playing games. The girls' choices included adventure role-playing games and games of skill. Boys reported using computers to create games and download them from the Internet and to play online hockey; girls reported using computers to type paragraphs and homework, do word processing, create collages, and watch movie trailers. What needs to be investigate further, however, is the nature of reading when using electronic games. To what extent is such an activity a literacy activity as compared to using the computer to do word processing or to search for information about various topics.

Baker and Wigfield (1999) found that gender played a part in students' motivation. Girls felt more competent in reading compared to boys, valued reading more, and had more positive

attitudes toward reading than boys. This study did not show as much difference between girls and boys in how they valued reading and how they felt about their ability to read. This could be due to the demographics of this group from a suburban community in which almost all of the sample were average to above readers. Moreover, the students typically have a great deal of parental involvement and encouragement to do well in school.

Another possible explanation is the nature of the instrument, that is participant's self-report. A possible limitation of using self-reports is that the data collected relies upon the memory and accuracy of each participant completing the log. Therefore, some students may have misrepresented themselves intentionally or accidentally. Given that the researcher was one of the teachers of these students, they may have chosen to respond in a way that would be socially appropriate and meet the expectations of the researcher.

5.3 DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to gain a deeper understanding of the relationships that might exist between how students value reading, their self-concept as a reader, the amount of reading they do, what they read, and their reading achievement. It was also hoped that the study would provide insight into how students use the new literacies, with results leading to a better understanding of how to generate enthusiasm for reading and to create the motivation to read.

The findings from this study suggest that the new literacies are read more often than other choices such as: reading textbooks, reference books, nonfiction books, newspapers or magazines. In a one-week time period, students read Internet sites on 103 occasions and electronic games on

101 occasions. The Daily Out-of-School Time Activity Log was modeled after one developed by Alvermann et al. (1999). These researchers explored what struggling adolescents chose to read. Their study revealed the top kinds of reading as: searching the Internet, reading directions, song lyrics, and billboard advertisements. The findings from this study suggests that students engaged in a wide range of literacy practices such as: reading directions, Internet sites, electronic games, computer activity, and billboard advertisements. Demands for literacy require students to be adept users of digital literacies. The Internet has become an important context for teaching and learning. Other researchers (McKenna et al., 2007) who have also investigated new literacies, feel that integrating technology into literacy instruction is efficacious. Coiro and Dobler (2007) suggest that much more research is needed to broaden our understanding of online reading comprehension. Are the various components of meaning construction the same when comprehending books and contexts of the Internet? Slow readers are challenged within traditional literacies; within the new literacies of the Internet these individuals may be left behind. The gap between highly literate and literacy challenged individual may be exacerbated.

Since the computer has become an integral tool in culture and classrooms, how has the definition of reading changed? There has been a shift to “googling” a topic rather than looking through traditional encyclopedias and other resource books. This has brought about an increase in reading informational text. McKenna (2007) believes that an expanded definition of reading should be developed that encourages a balance between narrative and exposition, hard copy and electronic media. There are many unanswered questions: Is the reading of classic literature a thing of the past/or should it be? Does the Internet foster short attention spans? How much instruction is given to young students on determining validity of the information they get from the Internet? How does an online environment affect reading comprehension or writing

achievement? Are there certain online instructional strategies that provide for greater student success in literacy achievement than others?

An unresolved issue is in the area of self-concept and achievement. Guay et al. (2003) discovered that students who feel competent are more motivated to pursue school activities, which in turn produces increased academic performance. As children grow older, their academic self-concept responses become more strongly correlated with academic achievement. Several researchers (Korat and Schiff, 2007; Turner, 1995; Worthy et al., 2002) agree that self-concept and literacy should not be disparate elements in instruction, but one integrated subject. When a teacher and student develop a trusting relationship together, it can influence the cognitive growth that takes place (Worthy et al., 2002).

Even though there were no relationships between type of reading and the variables being investigated, it is important to note that type of reading and topics of interest are related to motivation and engagement with learning. Studies by Worthy et al. (1999) and Hughes-Hassell and Rodge (2007) show a correlation between success in school and amount of leisure reading students do. Most educators agree that motivation plays a central role in literacy development. Examining the topics that adolescents choose to read in their leisure time could help educators provide for preferred reading materials in classrooms. The top five choices of reading activities in this study were reading: novels, directions, Internet sites, electronic games, and something the student wrote. It is important to increase our understanding of how children acquire the motivation to develop into successful readers.

Students' preferences and interests are related to motivation and engagement with learning. Worthy et al. (1999) explored influences on students' preferences and the ways in which schools are influenced by students' preferences. The top seven in ranked order were:

scary books, cartoons/comics, magazines, sports, drawing books, cars/trucks, and animals. In this study, there were consistent results in that these fifth grade students chose as their top preferred reading topics: fantasy characters (74%), sports (52%), characters their age who have done some amazing things (48%), characters like themselves (44%), and characters who have overcome great obstacles (42%).

Ivey and Broaddus (2001) administered a survey to sixth-grade students and found their favorite types of book to be: magazines, adventure books, mysteries, scary stories, joke books, and animals. Similarly, Huges-Hassell and Rodge (2007) examined the leisure reading habits of urban adolescents and found these topics to be most popular: celebrities, characters like themselves, sports figures, and musicians.

5.4 LIMITATIONS

Several limitations of this study should be acknowledged. First is the sample. Specifically, this study was somewhat limited or restricted by its relatively restricted range in achievement. There were only 2 students identified as below average, 19 as average, and 29 as above average.

Second, there are concerns regarding several of the measures or the nature of the instruments used in this study. Self-report measures have inherent limitations. The disadvantage of using children's diaries and questionnaire methods is their validity and inclusiveness. A major concern is that children are predisposed toward socially desirable responses, which would reduce response variance and lead to underestimation of the association with reading beliefs and attitudes. It is impossible to determine from self-report instruments alone whether or not

students actually feel, believe, or do the things they report (Gambrell et al., 1996). One must be careful when interpreting responses to individual items due to the contextual nature of reading motivation. A student might feel competent as a reader when reading high-interest, self-selected narrative materials and yet feel less competent when reading content area materials.

A limitation of this study is the definition that students may have of reading. Students tend to define reading only in an academic context and may not be viewing their out-of-school literacies as reading.

Finally, locally mandated reading achievement tests were used as the criterion to determine whether or not these fifth grade students were reading above average, average, or below average readers. The Stanford Achievement Test, Tenth Edition (SAT 10) is a standardized test used to measure academic knowledge of elementary and secondary school students. Another limitation is the reliance of one test score to evaluate the student's ability. Since this test is only one measure of the student's achievement, it may be beneficial to ascertain pertinent information from teachers' perceptions of the students in other content areas.

5.5 IMPLICATIONS FOR INSTRUCTION

The findings in the present study appear to have several important implications for instruction. First, differences in volume of reading outside of school have been linked to children's reading and writing achievements at school (Stanovich, 2000). Because amount of reading correlates with reading achievement, it is possible that motivation is a consequence of reading achievement (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Understanding reading motivation better

could contribute to the design of classroom contexts that expand and strengthen frequent and enjoyable reading and the benefits it provides. Instructors need to plan for in-school and out-of-school reading for their students and discover what sustains adolescent's engagement with text. Since Anderson's, et al. (1988) research revealed that students who begin reading a book in school are more likely to continue to read outside of school, Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) or DEAR (Drop Everything and Read) can be a tool for developing reading in-school that motivates students to continue out-of-school reading. Sustained Silent Reading is a period of uninterrupted silent reading based upon the principle that reading is a skill and the more you use a skill, the better you get at it. Trelease (2006) reported in the *Read Aloud Handbook* that students do not read very much. He reported that 90% of students devoted about 1% of their free time to reading and 30% watching television. Fifty percent of students read for an average of four minutes or less per day, 30 % read two minutes per day and 10% read nothing at all. John Goodlad (1984) conducted a comprehensive seven-year study and reported that only 3 percent of class time is occupied by the act of reading in the middle school. Silent Sustained Reading can be implemented in individual classrooms or school wide. Follow-up activities can provide motivation such as: keeping logs, sharing projects, working in pairs, or keeping dialogue journals. Teachers reading aloud to students can provide a literary model for vocabulary development, comprehension strategies, or just plain enjoyment. Reading an entire book to students allows them to experience how positive reading can be. Reading part of a book may motivate students to complete the reading of that book.

Carefully chosen rewards can foster a culture of reading motivation. Rewards offered for reading should be a natural extension of a literacy-rich classroom culture (Marinak & Gambrell, 2008). Since the goal is to read more, books are appropriate reading rewards.

Children's reading frequency is an important predictor of their reading comprehension, thus classroom efforts to increase children's reading motivation have important implications not just for student motivation but also for student reading comprehension and achievement (Wigfield et al., 2004).

Second, school leaders must help teachers match reading materials with the preferences of the adolescent student. Children read more when there are more books in their classrooms, when the books are physically accessible, and when they can take books home (Worthy et al., 2002). So it would be important to make available in classroom libraries a variety of reading genres and types of reading such as: magazines, mysteries, scary stories, books about animals, and books about sports figures. Designating time for book talks would also be an excellent way for students to share what they have read with their peers. It is also beneficial to the teacher to listen to their students to get a better sense of which titles, topics, and genres to add to the classroom library.

Third, it is important for educators to use the new literacies as a way to generate enthusiasm and create motivation to read. Two of the top five reading activities engaged in by the 5th graders in this study were Internet sites and electronic games. Technology is readily available to most adolescents in the form of cell phones, Internet-connected computers, portable music and video players. Technology must be integrated into the literacy curriculum. New forms of adolescent literature, written by students themselves, are emerging as the Internet makes possible new publishing opportunities. Teachers need to know how best to support the integration of these new opportunities for literacy and learning in school classrooms. Teachers must help students "learn how to learn" new technologies of literacy. The ability to learn continuously changing technologies for literacy is critical.

Finally, instructors need to positively influence students' social interaction around literacy. Teachers should think of the children in their classrooms as learners whose functioning is shaped by cognitive and affective factors (Korat & Schiff, 2007). A personalized, responsive, relationship-based approach may be better for older readers especially those who struggle to read.

5.6 RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS

This study suggests these several avenues for future research:

- 1. To more thoroughly examine the kinds and amount of reading completed by a typical 5th grade student, an interview type questionnaire such as the Adolescent Motivation to Read Profile Conversational Interview (Pitcher, et al., 2007) or the Motivation to Read Profile Conversational Interview (Gambrell, et al., 1996) might provide more reliable information. The MRP authors indicated that the conversational interview flexibility provides for more in-depth understanding and authentic insights of students' reading experiences, attitudes, and motivations. Conversational interviews can be used to glean information that might otherwise be missed or omitted in a more formal, standardized interview approach. As Alvermann (1998) states, even though adolescents' perspectives are valued in literacy research, most often their voices are missing in most studies.

- 2. More research in the area of new literacies is needed. Much more research is needed to understand online reading comprehension. Very little research exists on the new literacies required for achieving high levels of reading comprehension. Research must examine the fine line that exists between technology and the human element. Sanford (2006) states that as boys continue to increase their confident engagement with technology, it is possible that they will decrease their engagement with the people in their lives, that the virtual world will further remove them from caring for the real world around them. Further research needs to continue to delve into the relationship that exists between self-concept and reading achievement or self-concept and learning.

- 3. Ongoing study about gender issues should be considered. The role of gender as it relates to the new literacies is certainly an important topic. Due to our ever-changing digital world, girls may now be at a disadvantage. Literacy practices and children's out-of-school interests need to be better matched in order to motivate both boys and girls. This could ensure that girls are engaged in a wider range of literacy activities.

- 4. Further examination of the topics that adolescents choose to read in their leisure time could help educators provide for preferred reading materials in classrooms. Research in the area of usage of preferred reading materials in classrooms and assessment instruments that can demonstrate the strengths of students who primarily read magazines and comic books is needed. Adolescents reject literacy assignments without purpose; researchers must direct their attention to students' personal use of literacy and what is important to them.

- 5. In order to build upon this research, a recommendation for further studies would be to explore this issue in communities in which there is a more diverse population with a

wider spread of achievement scores. Related to this recommendation is the need to look at out-of-school reading for a longer period of time, possibly one week a month – for the entire school year. Alvermann, et al. (2007) states that adolescents' personal literacies remain unstudied despite the decreased voluntary reading in the upper grades.

APPENDIX A

PARENT CONSENT LETTER

PARENTAL CONSENT TO ACT AS A SUBJECT IN A RESEARCH STUDY

This study will give me the opportunity to understand more about what motivates your child to learn. I will be looking at your child's out-of-school activities, amount of reading, and types of reading. By learning more about what students read and like to read, educators can gain a better understanding of how to generate enthusiasm for reading and to create the motivation to read.

- Each participant will complete an activity log for a one-week period outside of school, both a daily and weekend log. This should take them approximately 5 - 10 minutes per day.
- Each participant will complete a survey that includes questions about how they value reading, their self-concept as a reader, and the topics of interest to them,

(e.g., do they enjoy reading about animals, sports, science, etc.). This will only take approximately 15 minutes of their language arts class.

- Access to student's SAT-10 scores from Fall 2007 will be obtained. Scores will be coded and no individual will be identified. I will use these scores to get a better understanding of the relationship between amount of time spent reading, motivation to read, gender, and reading achievement.

There are no foreseeable inconveniences or risks to your child participating in this study. It will not cost anything for your child to join the study. When your child is done with all the sessions he/she will get a \$10.00 Border's gift card. This study is completely voluntary.

Any information about your child taking part in this study will be kept private in a locked file cabinet. Nobody will know your child joined the study. The principal and teachers will not be told how your child did on the reading survey or activity logs.

If you have any questions about this study you can call the researcher on the first page of this consent form. If you have questions about your child's rights while they are in this study, please contact the Human Subjects Protection Advocate at the University of Pittsburgh IRB Office.

PARENTAL CERTIFICATION

- I have read the consent form for this study and any questions I had, have been answered to my satisfaction. A copy of this consent form will be provided to me.
- I understand that I am encouraged to ask questions about this study during at any time, and that those questions will be answered by the researchers listed on the first page of this form.
- I understand that my child’s participation in this study is strictly voluntary and that I can refuse to have my child participate or remove my child from the study at any time without any effects.
- I agree to have my child participate in this study.

_____	_____	_____
Child’s Name (PLEASE PRINT)	Parent’s Signature	Date

(Parents please do not sign below this line)

I certify that I have carefully explained the purpose and nature of this research study to the child in age appropriate language. He/She has had an opportunity to discuss it with me in detail. I have answered all of his/her questions and he/she has provided affirmative agreement (i.e. assent) to participate in this study.

Assent for participation _____

Investigator's signature

Date

APPENDIX B

DAILY OUT-OF-SCHOOL TIME ACTIVITY LOG

Study Code 001

Date _____

1. While out of school today until I went to sleep, I . . . (Complete this statement by circling all that apply.)

Quiet Activities

Active Activities

Other

- | | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Composed e-mail | 8. Played video games | 14. Babysat |
| 2. Did homework | 9. Played or practiced a sport | 15. Listened to music |
| 3. Read a book, magazine, etc. | 10. Shopped | 16. Visited with a friend |
| 4. Read a set of directions | 11. Rode a bike | 17. Went to a lesson |
| 5. Typed a paper | 12. Did household chores | 18. Talked on the phone |
| 6. Searched on the Internet | 13. Played with or cared for a pet | 19. Had an appointment |
| 7. Watched TV | | |

2. Did you read anything from the time you got out of school today until you went to sleep that you got out of the public library? (Circle yes or no)

1. Yes
2. No

3. Circle anything listed below that you read from the time you got out of school today until you went to sleep.

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Billboard advertisements | 7. Magazine | 13. Something you wrote |
| 2. Comic book | 8. Newspaper | 14. Song lyrics |
| 3. Computer activity | 9. Nonfiction book | 15. Textbook |
| 4. Electronic game | 10. Novel | 16. Trading cards |
| 5. Internet sites | 11. Reference book | 17. TV Guide |

6. Letter or card

12. Set of directions (for recipes or games)

18. Other (describe) _____

4. Select the amount of time below that you think best describes how long you spent reading since getting out of school.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. None | 6. About 30 minutes |
| 2. About 2 minutes | 7. About 1 hour |
| 3. About 5 minutes | 8. About 1 ^{1/2} hours |
| 4. About 15 minutes | 9. About 2 hours or more |
| 5. About 20 minutes | |

5. Circle the day of the week and place an X in any of the boxes that tell when you read since getting out of school.

I READ DURING THESE TIMES				
Today is:	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday
Friday				
AFTERNOON	EVENING		NIGHT	
3:30 – 3:45 pm <input type="checkbox"/>	5:00 – 5:15 pm <input type="checkbox"/>	8:00 – 8:15 pm <input type="checkbox"/>		
3:45 – 4:00 pm <input type="checkbox"/>	5:15 – 5:30 pm <input type="checkbox"/>	8:15 – 8:30 pm <input type="checkbox"/>		
4:00 – 4:15 pm <input type="checkbox"/>	5:30 – 5:45 pm <input type="checkbox"/>	8:30 – 8:45 pm <input type="checkbox"/>		
4:15 – 4:30 pm <input type="checkbox"/>	5:45 – 6:00 pm <input type="checkbox"/>	8:45 – 9:00 pm <input type="checkbox"/>		
4:30 – 4:45 pm <input type="checkbox"/>	6:00 – 6:15 pm <input type="checkbox"/>	9:00 – 9:15 pm <input type="checkbox"/>		
4:45 – 5:00 pm <input type="checkbox"/>	6:15 – 6:30 pm <input type="checkbox"/>	9:15 – 9:30 pm <input type="checkbox"/>		
	6:30 – 6:45 pm <input type="checkbox"/>			
	6:45 – 7:00 pm <input type="checkbox"/>			
	7:00 – 7:15 pm <input type="checkbox"/>			
	7:15 – 7:30 pm <input type="checkbox"/>			
	7:30 – 8:00 pm <input type="checkbox"/>			

APPENDIX C

DAILY “WEEKEND” OUT-OF-SCHOOL TIME ACTIVITY LOG

STUDY CODE 001

DATE _____

1. While out of school today until I went to sleep, I . . . (Complete this statement by circling all that apply.)

- | <u>Quiet Activities</u> | <u>Active Activities</u> | <u>Other</u> |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Composed e-mail | 8. Played video games | 14. Babysat |
| 2. Did homework | 9. Played or practiced a sport | 15. Listened to music |
| 3. Read a book, magazine, etc. | 10. Shopped | 16. Visited with a friend |
| 4. Read a set of directions | 11. Rode a bike | 17. Went to a lesson |
| 5. Typed a paper | 12. Did household chores | 18. Talked on the phone |
| 6. Searched on the Internet | 13. Played with or cared for a pet | 19. Had an appointment |
| 7. Watched TV | | |

2. Did you read anything today from the time you awoke until you went to sleep that you got out of the public library? (Circle yes or no)

1. Yes
2. No

3. Circle anything listed below that you read from the time you got out of school today until you went to sleep.

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|--|----------------------------|
| 1. Billboard advertisements | 7. Magazine | 13. Something you wrote |
| 2. Comic book | 8. Newspaper | 14. Song lyrics |
| 3. Computer activity | 9. Nonfiction book | 15. Textbook |
| 4. Electronic game | 10. Novel | 16. Trading cards |
| 5. Internet sites | 11. Reference book | 17. TV Guide |
| 6. Letter or card | 12. Set of directions (for recipes or games) | 18. Other (describe) _____ |
-

4. Select the amount of time below that you think best describes how long you spent reading today.

- | | |
|---------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. None | 6. About 30 minutes |
| 2. About 2 minutes | 7. About 1 hour |
| 3. About 5 minutes | 8. About 1 ^{1/2} hour |
| 4. About 15 minutes | 9. About 2 hours or more |
| 5. About 20 minutes | |

5. Circle the day of the week and place an X in any of the boxes that tell when you read today.

I READ DURING THESE TIMES		
Today is:	Saturday	Sunday
MORNING 8:00 – 8:15 am <input type="checkbox"/> 8:15 – 8:30 am <input type="checkbox"/> 8:30 – 8:45 am <input type="checkbox"/> 8:45 – 9:00 am <input type="checkbox"/> 9:00 – 9:15 am <input type="checkbox"/> 9:15 – 9:30 am <input type="checkbox"/> 9:30 – 9:45 am <input type="checkbox"/> 9:45 – 10:00 am <input type="checkbox"/> 10:00 – 10:45 am <input type="checkbox"/> 10:45 – 11:00 am <input type="checkbox"/> 11:00 – 11:15 am <input type="checkbox"/> 11:15 – 11:30 am <input type="checkbox"/> 11:30 – 11:45 am <input type="checkbox"/> 11:45 – 12:00 am <input type="checkbox"/>	AFTERNOON 12:00 – 12:15 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 12:15 – 12:30 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 12:30 – 12:45 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 12:45 – 1:00 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 1:00 – 1:15 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 1:15 – 1:30 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 1:30 – 1:45 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 1:45 – 2:00 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 2:00 – 2:15 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 2:15 – 2:30 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 2:30 – 2:45 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 2:45 – 3:00 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 3:00 – 3:15 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 3:15 – 3:30 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 3:30 – 3:45 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 3:45 – 4:00 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 4:00 – 4:15 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 4:15 – 4:30 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 4:30 – 4:45 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 4:45 – 5:00 pm <input type="checkbox"/>	EVENING 5:00 – 5:15 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 5:15 – 5:30 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 5:30 – 5:45 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 5:45 – 6:00 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 6:00 – 6:15 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 6:15 – 6:30 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 6:30 – 6:45 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 6:45 – 7:00 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 7:00 – 7:15 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 7:15 – 7:30 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 7:30 – 7:45 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 7:45 – 8:00 pm <input type="checkbox"/> NIGHT 8:00 – 8:15 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 8:15 – 8:30 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 8:30 – 8:45 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 8:45 – 9:00 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 9:00 – 9:15 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 9:15 – 9:30 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 9:30 – 9:45 pm <input type="checkbox"/> 9:45 – 10:00 pm <input type="checkbox"/>

APPENDIX D

MOTIVATION TO READ PROFILE

Figure 2
Motivation to Read Profile

Reading survey

Name _____ Date _____

Sample 1: I am in _____.

- Second grade Fifth grade
 Third grade Sixth grade
 Fourth 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.

(continued)

Figure 2
Motivation to Read Profile (cont'd.)

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

(continued)

Figure 2
Motivation to Read Profile (cont'd.)

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

APPENDIX E

TOPICS OF INTEREST

What do you like to read about? Check all that apply.

- 1. Science
- 2. Animals
- 3. Sports
- 4. Fantasy characters
- 5. Musicians
- 6. Celebrities
- 7. Historical figures
- 8. Romance
- 9. Science Fiction
- 10. Transportation (cars, airplanes, etc.)
- 11. Characters my age who have done some amazing things
- 12. Characters from other countries
- 13. Characters who have overcome great obstacles
- 14. Characters a lot different from me
- 15. Characters like me
- 16. Other (describe) _____

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