CORRELATION BETWEEN READING MOTIVATION AND ENGAGEMENT AND STUDENT READING OUTCOMES IN TITLE ONE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

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Liberty University
A Dissertation Presented in Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree
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ABSTRACT

The following research described a correlational study to examine whether there was correlation between reading motivation and reading engagement on students’ outcomes on the HMH Reading Inventory® in Title I schools for students reading below grade level in grades three through five. Additionally, the research indicated the importance of utilizing motivation and engagement to increase reading achievement. The purpose of this correlational study was to examine the relationship between reading motivation and reading engagement to reading outcomes in grades three through five for students who are not reading on grade level in Title I elementary schools in the Southeast section of Virginia. There was research available for reading achievement, motivation, and engagement; however, the research did not include reading outcomes related to the HMH Reading Inventory® or Title I schools for students in grades three through five. Therefore, the study examined the correlation of the reading motivation and reading engagement on reading outcomes for students in elementary Title I schools. The data collected for the study derived from surveys and HMH Reading Inventory® from Title I elementary schools in southeastern Virginia from approximately 66 students from grades three through five. The study used of the Pearson r analysis to analyze the data. The study indicated there was a correlation between reading motivation and reading engagement on student outcomes. Some of the recommendations for future research are review students who are proficient, consider a study for grades through five in Title I and non-Title I schools, identify the type of motivation and support needed, study the three types of engagements, and provide professional learning for teachers and reading coaches.

Keywords: reading outcome/achievement, relationships, self-efficacy, motivation, engagement
Dedication

I dedicate my dissertation to all children who find it difficult to read and lack the enjoyment of reading.
Acknowledgements

First, I give honor to God for allowing me to complete this process even when I wanted to stop. Second, I thank my husband, Enrique Wiggins, for his undeniable support through the process. Thank you for your encouragement and motivation to continue when I thought I needed to quit. Also, I thank Enrique and Taylor, my children, for their support and sacrifices of family time. Additionally, I thank my parents, siblings, family, and friends for their encouragement and support throughout the process. Finally, I truly appreciate my professors at Liberty University for their prayers and inspiration. I appreciate you!
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List of Abbreviations

Reading Engagement Inventory-(REI)
Motivation to Read Profile-Revised-(MRP-R)
HMH Reading Inventory®-(RI)
National Assessment of Educational Progress-(NAEP)
Virginia Department of Education-(VDOE)
Standards of Learning-(SOL)
Developmental Reading Assessment-(DRA)
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

This chapter focused on information relevant to predictable outcomes of reading engagement and reading motivation using the HMH Reading Inventory®. Therefore, the contents of this chapter include background information on the topic, problem statement, purpose statement, significance of the study, research question, hypotheses, and definitions.

Background

Research shows that reading is an essential skill for students to obtain before exiting public education. The demands of reading continue to become difficult for many children, but even more for children with economic disadvantages (Gladstone, Turci, & Wigfield, 2016; Handcock, Hicks, Sastry, & Pebley, 2018; Kaefer, Neuman, & Pinkham, 2018). Title I schools typically serve a high number of students who are eligible for free and reduce lunch; this typically represents 60 percent or higher depending on the school division and the grant program funded by the federal government (United States Department of Education, 2019). Schools with a high number of students who qualify for free and reduce lunch receive additional resources. Some of the resources include: additional staff to reduce class sizes, more faculty and staff to aid in the classroom to support students and teachers, more funding to assist with literacy and math needs; and opportunities for field trips and other learning experiences.

In Title I schools, students tend to struggle with reading, due to environmental factors such as lack of early learning opportunities, poverty, lack of basic needs, and other concerns such as health (Gladstone et al., 2016). Additionally, parental involvement reportedly does not occur as frequently, due to various reasons such as work schedules, fear due to a lack of knowledge that the school is in partnership with the family, and other reasons (Handcock et al., 2018).
Therefore, literacy may not appear as a focus for the family. The lack of parental engagement, at times, hinders schools’ abilities to provide effective reading strategies for parents to work with their students.

Since education sometimes becomes less of a priority for families who may experience or are experiencing economic difficulties, school personnel search for methods to ensure that students are literate. Educators find it challenging to motivate and engage students who struggle to read effectively (Cho, Ju, Lee, & Toste, 2018). However, educators are even more challenged by students who possess outside factors that may hinder them from obtaining success in the future and currently with reading (Burrowridge, Malloy, Parsons, & Parsons, 2015). It has become more apparent that educators should review data to determine the needs of students for reading engagement and motivation to improve reading outcomes along with analyzing the factors that cause disengagement and/or the lack of motivation.

According to the National Assessment of Education (NAEP), (2018), over the past 20 years or earlier, students’ abilities to read with comprehension have decreased. Many educators, parents, and community members attribute the decrease in reading comprehension to high-stakes testing prescribed by the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB). NCLB has been revised to the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA). ESSA requires students to receive an assessment every year in grades third through eighth in reading and math. Additionally, students in grades third through eighth require a writing assessment at least once during that time-frame. Moreover, history and science assessments are needed twice during grades third through eighth.

While in high school students are administered end-of-course assessments in math, English (reading and writing) history, and science classes. Because of the increase in assessments for accountability purposes, some educators believe that teaching students to
become literate has not been a focus. Due to the required assessments according to the past requirements of NCLB and current mandates of ESSA, teachers spend time preparing students for end-of-year testing instead of providing students with explicit instruction on how to read to assist them with success on the test (Ainsworth & Viegut, 2006). Consequently, it becomes necessary for educators to teach students to read in a manner that will ensure they will apply their reading knowledge to the assessment too (Ainsworth & Viegut, 2006).

Through the years, reading has evolved from phonics-based instruction, to the whole language approach, and now it has progressed to balanced literacy instruction which includes phonics and whole language. According to Fountas and Pinnell (2000), balanced literacy instruction includes read aloud, shared reading, guided reading, and independent reading.

Balanced literacy entered into education because phonics-based instruction focused on letter sounds without the use of authentic text; therefore, students did not connect the understanding of words to literature.

While the whole language approach engrossed students into only learning reading and writing using authentic text, the approach did not give an understanding of the way words and language work in unison. The changes with the teaching of reading lessened or diminished the focus on the importance of human interactions with integrating the social, cultural, and historical aspects into the methods of teaching (Piazza, Protaticio, & Rao, 2015). Due to many approaches to instruct students in the area of literacy, in the past, present, and future, educators tend to teach beyond the text to include other features of literacy such as visual, spatial, visual, and auditory (Piazza et al., 2015). Therefore, educators who extend beyond the text encourage motivation and engagement in reading.
As the economy evolved, the Internet has become another factor to impact reading in either a positive or negative way. Technology reportedly added another layer to the instruction of reading in the past 10 years or more. The purpose of the technology was to enhance instruction hoping to motivate and engage students and integrate reading too (Castek, Coiro, Henry, Kiner, & Leu, 2017). Because of the increased use of technology, high-stakes testing improved with the added ability to obtain scores to determine the reading outcomes of students in less time.

Therefore, to obtain the reading success required, teachers utilize their knowledge of theory-based instruction to integrate the sociocultural theory, social-learning theory, and achievement-goal theory into the classroom. Vygotsky (1978) discovered the importance of gradual release for learning. This model became useful in all academic areas, including reading. Additionally, the sociocultural theory allowed educators to gain a better understanding of students’ strengths and needs through modeling, guided practice, and independent practice. This practice has been essentially known as the gradual release model; I do, We do, and You do. Accordingly, the balanced literacy instructional approach incorporates the sociocultural theory. Piazza et al., (2015) reported that the social practice of the sociocultural theory involved the responsiveness to many needs of students to increase their learning.

Bandura’s (1977) social learning theory included learning and observing from other learners. The importance of positive environmental influences was noted to increase learning through effective relationships using Bandura’s theory. Hence, the utilization of social learning encompassed motivation with incentives to impact learning or change the behavior. Teachers who learn to make instruction personal for the needs of the students, especially with struggling readers, ensure that the delivery of instruction, lesson plans, and assessments of the learning are
student centered (Allington & Pressley, 2015). The personalization of learning encourages students to learn from one another to become better readers.

Literacy continues to evolve and change in many ways. The theories of the past provided educators with knowledge of the importance of relationships, modeling of expectations, the understanding of meaning, and the importance of achievement as it pertains to reading. Due to the need to improve reading for all students, many researchers analyzed the most effective strategies to increase reading motivation and reading engagement to ensure students are literate for the future to become productive citizens (Dole, Harris, & Springer, 2017; Frank, Mendez, & Pelzmann, 2015; Guthrie & Klauda, 2014). Therefore, it remains imperative to ensure that students are reading on or above grade level.

**Problem Statement**

According to the National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) (2018), many students in grade four did not read on or above grade level. By the second semester of grade four, 37% of students read on or above grade level in the nation (NAEP, 2018). Since the students lacked proficient reading skills, the improvement of reading outcomes continues to become a necessity. Reading success expands beyond standardized testing; but in life, students need reading to gain employment and to complete college. Prior to entering fourth grade, students should have met grade-level expectations by the end third grade. Reading engagement improves reading outcomes for students throughout elementary school (Donovan, Hemphill, Jones, Kim, Thomson, & Troyer, 2016). Reading engagement and motivation remain a focus to improve reading outcomes for all learners, especially those who struggle with reading.

Students identified as Black, English Language Learners, students with disabilities, and economically disadvantaged are typically in separate sub-groups for reading achievement. In
Title I schools, however, the subgroups possess a higher population of diverse students. It is imperative to understand the reading needs of students who attend Title I schools beginning in grades three through ten so that they increase their overall reading outcomes for future success (Adelson, Cunningham, & Dickinson, 2016). The research shows less prevalence for determining the correlational reading motivational and reading engagement strategies to improve reading outcomes for students in Title I schools. According to Adelson, Cunningham, and Dickinson (2016), future research for reading achievement should analyze Title I schools, since these schools encompass the various sub-groups.

Students require many strategies and resources to improve reading outcomes and demonstrate success. However, the gap in literature exists with how motivation to read and reading engagement relates to student outcomes for students in Title I elementary schools. In Title I schools, some of the students who attend do not only possess an economic disadvantage but also struggle to read on grade-level. According to Duncan, Griffiths, McGeown, and Strothard (2015), students who were identified as poor or struggling readers needed many types of resources during reading instruction such as various graphic organizers, incentives, and motivational techniques to increase reading achievement.

Struggling and advanced readers were also studied in various research to determine the level of motivation and engagement. However, the focus included only grade level reading (Guthrie & Klauda, 2014; Donovan et al., 2016). Additionally, students who participated in previous research studies in various grades, but not specifically in grades three through five in Title I schools, demonstrated improvement through the utilization of engagement and motivational strategies. The problem is a gap in literature of how reading motivation and reading engagement relates to student outcomes for students in Title I elementary schools.
Purpose Statement

The purpose of this correlational study was to examine the relationship between reading motivation and reading engagement to reading outcomes in grades three through five for students who are not reading on grade level in Title I elementary schools in the Southeast section of Virginia. Since there was a gap in the research on the correlational relationships of reading with motivation and engagement for Title I schools, this study adds to the literature on the relationship between reading motivation, reading engagement and reading outcomes for 3rd through 5th grade students attending Title I schools (Barnyak & McNelly, 2017; Gambell, Jacques, Korkemaki, Orellani, & Tafa, 2019).

Student participants were three months to one or more years behind in reading. The variables of interest were students’ reading motivation, reading engagement, and reading achievement. Reading motivation is the ability to provoke students to read for a variety of purposes (Guthrie, 2015). Reading engagement is the ability to assist students in gaining the desire to enjoy reading for different reasons (Guthrie & Klauda, 2014). The other variable of interest will be generally defined as students’ outcomes on the HMH Reading Inventory®. This means that students have the ability to understand and decode the reading of grade level texts.

Significance of the Study

When students do not possess the adequate reading skills, then other areas of their academic career become delayed, such as math and science. Reading is needed to problem solve correctly during math and science. When teachers utilize various strategies to engage and motivate students to read such as hands on activities, then reading outcomes improve (Guthrie, Ho, Klauda, 2013). Therefore, it is important to determine whether students require motivation and engagement to improve reading outcomes for students who attend Title I schools. Previous
studies have focused on adolescents in various schools (Blake, Eschenauer, Sinatra, & Varuzza, 2014). The current study will concentrate on and add to the literature for students who are served in Title I schools.

Because reading is utilized in all areas of life, it is essential to identify the correlation to improve reading outcomes for students in Title I schools in intermediate grades such as grades three through five. Evans, Ferron, Lindo, and Shaunessy-Dedrick (2015) studied students in grade four to determine if a school-wide reading enrichment program would increase the students’ reading achievement. Although the Evans, Ferron, Lindo, and Shaunessy-Dedrick (2015) study identified positive effects on reading outcomes, the study did not include motivation and engagement as variables on reading outcomes. Therefore, the current study not only included students in grade four enrolled in Title I schools, but also the study determined if there is a correlation of motivation and engagement on reading outcomes to add to the literature.

According to Bates, D’Agostino, Gambrell, and Xu (2016), the motivation impacted achievement with an effect size of .65. Students in the Bates, D’Agostino, Gambrell, and Xu (2016) study received motivation during their early invention which was Reading Recovery, and the study provided attention to motivation and achievement. The study found that motivation plays a role in language acquisition, and motivation assists children with the desire to read (Bates, D’Agostino, Gambrell, & Xu, 2016). Hence, the current study focused on student engagement and motivation and the correlation for students in Title I schools in grades three through five to add to the current body of literature. In the middle of the elementary school experience, which is approximately third through fifth grades, students’ motivation to read declines significantly (Applegate et al., 2018; Brand, May, Orkin, Pott, & Wolf, 2018; Gladstone et al., 2016). Furthermore, whether students read fiction or nonfiction, reading motivation
decreases from grades three to six. However, the lack of reading motivation becomes more prevalent in grades five to six (Applegate et al., 2018).

The decline in reading motivation demonstrated evidence in the lack of reading proficiency in grade four on the NAEP assessment (Brand et al., 2018; NAEP, 2018). Thus, the current study provides support for Title I schools to become intentional to motivate and engage students in reading grades three through five. When students demonstrate reading proficiency in elementary school and secondary school, which includes middle and high school, they transition more efficiently into career and college. Therefore, students who read on or above grade level on multiple data points or assessments show their preparation for higher education and future careers (Husband, 2014). Because reading encompasses many areas, reading continues to be essential in the workplace for all students.

Additionally, to meet the multiple requirements for reading proficiency, the study offered Title I schools research-based strategies that pertain to motivation and engagement to improve all aspects of reading such as decoding, vocabulary understanding, fluency, and comprehension, according to responses from teachers (Allington & Pressley 2015). Since reading involves more than the utterance of language or sounds, children need to understand various texts to ensure that reading to learn takes place.

Hochweber and Vieluf (2018) studied the relationships between gender differences, reading achievement, and the enjoyment of reading for students in grade nine. Additionally, Hochweber and Vieluf (2018) found reading achievement increased with a focus on all literacy competencies; however, the study did not emphasize students in Title I schools, motivation, or engagement as this current study will add to the literature. Once students’ reading outcomes improve, they will gain a desire to read more and will obtain the understanding of how texts are
organized (Duncan et al., 2015; Gladstone et al., 2016). Therefore, the current study is significant to determine if there is a correlation between reading engagement and motivation on students’ reading outcomes.

**Research Questions**

**RQ 1:** Is there a relationship between reading engagement as shown by the Reading Engagement Index and student reading outcomes as shown by HMH *Reading Inventory®* for third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade students who read below grade level?

**RQ 2:** Is there a relationship between reading motivation as shown by the Motivation to Read Profile and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH *Reading Inventory®* for third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade students who read below grade level?

**Definitions**

1. *Engagement* - The ability to participate actively in reading without avoiding reading (Guthrie & Klauda, 2014).
2. *Motivation* - The excitement, desire, joy to participate or remain focused on reading activities (Blake et al., 2014).
3. *Outcome/Achievement* - The success and increase of reading based on an assessment (Cho et al., 2018).
4. *Relationships* - Relationships are connections between individuals that allow others to work collaboratively to achieve goals (Husband, 2014).
5. HMH *Reading Inventory®* - Research based computer adaptive assessment to determine reading progress from kindergarten through college readiness (Houghton Mifflin Harcourt, 2019).
6. **Self-efficacy** - The way one believes or perceives themselves to overcome difficult tasks (Gladstone et al., 2016).

**CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

**Overview**

Literacy is the root of all learning. Without literacy, students may not achieve their full potential in life. Since reading comprehension is imperative for all learners, educators must understand strategies to effectively improve students’ abilities to read. Additionally, educators need to possess the ability to utilize research-based strategies to improve students’ reading abilities.

This literature review offers an understanding of the context of the study and the theoretical framework. Major research findings on the topic of literacy, reading engagement, and motivation are integrated into the theory. It provides information on student achievement as it relates to motivation and engagement. This body of literature provides an understanding and explanation of reading engagement and motivation. Also, the gap in the literature is addressed in the body of literature.

The sociocultural theory framed from Lev Vygotsky (1978) gave an understanding of the requirements for learners to become successful students with an emphasis on reading. The social learning theory from Albert Bandura (1977) provided a statistical impact on the relationships of students and teachers to demonstrate how students learn. The review of the literature provides information on student achievement connected to motivation and engagement related to student achievement.
Theoretical Framework

The two theories that support motivating students as well as building relationships are the social learning theory and sociocultural theory (Miller, 2011). The sociocultural theory and the social-learning theory support the research because both provide vital information to effectively work with students and to improve reading achievement for students. Both theories offer information to support reading achievement for students and a rationale for educators to build long-lasting, sustainable relationships to respond to students’ needs (Bandura, 1977; Vygotsky, 1978). The theories provide a focus on the teacher modeling explicitly during instruction to ensure that students gain an understanding of the skill prior to teachers expecting students to become responsible for the learning.

The social learning theory noted that educators must slowly give students responsibilities for learning a concept or skill by providing guided practice. This guided practice will provide students experience with assistance from the teacher as well as their peers, according to the social learning theory. Students need to believe they will have support prior to working independently, which aligns with the sociocultural and social learning theories.

Sociocultural Theory

According to Vygotsky (1978), the sociocultural theory embedded the social aspects of children in the learning process. Therefore, the social interactions between students and their cognitive abilities are connected to learning. Since the sociocultural theory includes the zone of proximity, educators can utilize various strategies to assist students’ learning such as modeling, scaffolding, collaborating with peers, and more. Sociocultural theory focuses on interacting with peers and the development of individuals to prepare people for higher order functions such as reading (Vygotsky, 1978).
The sociocultural theory connects with reading engagement because of the opportunities for students to learn from their peers. Students construct learning and gain knowledge by working in collaboration with peers according to the sociocultural theory. Communication is an effective component embedded in the sociocultural theory. The discussions students have in small groups allow students to problem solve and to obtain more understanding of the curriculum. Therefore, group discussions allow students to remain engaged in the learning, while learning from each other. Students enjoy learning from their peers.

The sociocultural theory continues to have an influence on educational practices today (Miller, 2011). According to research by Vygotsky (1978), the sociocultural theory provided educators more needed help to obtain information to meet students’ academic needs. Because the sociocultural theory strongly relates to relationships with all important stakeholders, to include teachers, students, and parents, it is essential to review the behaviors. It is evident in many classrooms today that the sociocultural theory continues to be utilized. The sociocultural theory has allowed students to work collaboratively with teachers to improve the unification of the classroom. Many states adopted the five Cs of education, and they are: citizenship, communication, collaboration, critical thinking, and creative thinking (Virginia Department of Education (VDOE), 2018). When the five Cs are integrated with the sociocultural theory, the hope is that these results will assist with the improvement of students’ reading achievement and overall academic achievement (VDOE, 2018).

Teachers who develop strong relationships with their students assist students with their progress in education. Sociocultural research indicates that various settings impact students’ performance, and a child’s performance changes depending upon the setting (Vygotsky, 1978). Students who are in structured classrooms with high expectations from teachers acquire more
learning and make greater gains in their education than students in unstructured classrooms. Additionally, students learn better in classroom settings that ensure students are safe and content. Teachers who gain an understanding of the needs, such as physical and emotional have students who perform at a higher rate. Also, it was noted in a study that the use of the sociocultural theory in the classroom improved the classroom management and organization because the physical and emotional safe classrooms was evident with more effective teachers (Barnyak and McNelly, 2015). Students learn better when the classroom exudes structure and routines.

The gradual-release model by Vygotsky (1978) encourages teachers to take time to identify students’ abilities in order to increase the achievement. The gradual release of responsibility refers to Vygotsky’s theory because it is similar to children growing up from infancy to adulthood (Miller, 2011). In education, the gradual-release model includes explicit modeling of skills and concepts, focused guided practice with detailed explanations, and independent practice, which provides students an opportunity to work on the skill and concept. During each portion of the gradual-release model, teachers must formatively assess students to identify whether students are prepared to move to the next step, process, or skill (Vygotsky, 1978).

Teachers should model instruction especially with reading and the teaching of new reading skills prior to allowing students to participate with the guided practice. The modeling must be completed; then teachers shift to collaboration between students and teachers participating in the instruction. When children receive guided practice from teachers, they respond from the supportive instruction as well as from others while actively contributing to the learning (Miller, 2011). Students need involvement in the instruction to gain a deeper understanding of the skills and concepts taught. Teachers collect anecdotal notes from the
observations of students and the responses from the students (Vygotsky, 1978). These notes assist teachers with making informed decisions. The decision will determine whether students require additional instruction with differentiation to master the reading skill.

An essential component for the sociocultural theory includes teachers’ observations of students who can work without assistance or who require additional support (Vygotsky, 1978). It is imperative that teachers not assume all students will achieve mastery at the same time. Instead, learners must progress through the process based on their individual abilities. When students are not able to achieve mastery, teachers should remodel instructional strategies and provide more guided practice (Vygotsky, 1978). Once the students have mastered the skills, they will require frequent review of past skills to gain understanding of future skills.

**Social Learning Theory**

Bandura (1977) framed the social-learning theory that focused on learning through observation and direction instruction. Social-learning theory connected to the behavior theory because students required models to make progress with achievement (Bandura, 1977). When children observed one another, the acquisition of learning was evident (Miller, 2011). Hence, students must see their teachers as readers and learners as well as each other learning and reading in classroom community. The use of explicit direct instruction must be provided for students to gain success. Students must enjoy the types of books teachers read. This means teachers require an understanding and possess the ability to engage students in literature. Additionally, it becomes imperative for teachers to create a social learning environment, so students feel safe to make mistakes to obtain corrections from teachers as well as provide explicit instruction. The trust students gain from teachers also empowers the relationship between teachers and students.
The reciprocal interaction of cognitive, behavior, and surroundings within the classroom assists students with their learning. The use of heterogeneous classrooms with various ability levels remains essential to promote student modeling and peer tutoring. When teachers utilize students as models to explain key concepts, students begin to learn from one another (Bandura, 1977). Additionally, students who are given opportunities to share their thinking and learning typically demonstrate growth in learning from listening to their peers which is similar to the sociocultural theory by Vygotsky (1978).

An intricate part of the social-learning theory incorporated motivation (Bandura, 1977). The positive motivation, included into the social learning theory, means students require a reason to perform or willingness to show success toward learning. Also, the motivation integrates incentives into the learning (Bandura, 1977). Some incentives may be extrinsic or intrinsic to promote the learned behavior of the new skill or strategy. The modeling from peers and teachers allows motivation to continue because of the frequent reinforcement of individuals. Because of the frequent observations of model readers, the example would allow other students to desire to become a reader.

The class environment is another important component of the social learning-theory (Bandura, 1977). Class environments that promote reading with models through observation and engaging discussions assist students with the desire to read. Literature-rich classrooms with frequent promotion of motivating literature enhances the classroom environment for reading. Students who observe other peers indulging in reading become determined to read based upon the social aspect of wanting to become a part of a group. This connects the social-learning theory with the students socializing and learning to increase their knowledge and well-being for the future (Bandura, 1977). Also, Bandura (1977) emphasized the purpose of the classroom
environment as reciprocal determinism which means the importance of the world and behavior connected the education of oneself.

Sociocultural and social-learning theories are reportedly connected to motivation and engagement in reading based on the social collective aspect of reading in public schools. However, the value of reading motivation as related to the social learning theory connects to the outcomes of reading and self-efficacy. The social learning theory explores the causes and effects of the motivation. Today, students require observations, models, encouragement, feedback, and other supports in order to develop effective reading skills along with the knowledge of phonemic awareness, phonological awareness, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension (Allington & Pressley, 2015; Fountas and Pinnell, 2000). Therefore, these theories offer support to include motivation and engagement through reading by utilizing the gradual-release model with the observation and modeling for reading instruction and expectations. The sociocultural and social-learning theories also focus on the development of strong relationships with students to enhance reading.

To determine the predictable relationships between reading engagement and motivation on reading outcomes, as measured on the HMH Reading Inventory®, it is essential to analyze the gradual release model, observations, relationships with adults and peers, encouragement, and other motivational and engagement strategies to determine whether there is a correlation. Hence, incorporating the sociocultural and social-learning theories into reading instruction may assist teachers with another strategy to promote reading success for all students, especially students in Title I schools.
Related Literature

The following section outlines with details the focus of literature associated with the relationships of reading engagement and motivation on students’ outcomes. The review of literature explains and identifies the gap in literature as it pertains to students in third-fifth grades in Title I schools. This section ties previous studies to reading motivation and engagement by utilizing various assessments for outcome results.

Reading Achievement

In order for students to become successful with reading achievement, students must be able to comprehend literature on grade level. Reading is more than calling words; however, reading includes students possessing the ability to encode, decode, comprehend, understand vocabulary, and read fluently. Thus, improvement in reading achievement remains a goal in the United States. However, to improve reading, schools’ reading culture must be addressed (Daniels & Steres, 2011). Schools must review how often and the number of minutes students spend time reading in school. Each school must identify and analyze the amount of independent reading, small group reading, the modeling of metacognitive strategies, and integrating literacy in writing, and other content areas of instruction in order to build the school’s reading culture (Husband, 2014). Although reading comprehension is a key component of reading achievement, teachers must analyze the strategies utilized to make reading-achievement gains.

Since expectations continue to increase for reading, educators should identify effective strategies to increase reading achievement to meet the new challenges (Cho et al., 2018). Teachers must identify the aspect of comprehension, if any, that caused a student not to meet the target score for comprehension. Schools need to provide school-wide standardized assessment of reading utilized in order to plan and set goals to effectively plan and identify needs for
students, according to Fletcher, Greenwood, Grimley, and Parkhill (2013). Students require explicit teaching of reading skills to analyze data sufficiently. Explicit teaching encompasses the social-learning theory and sociocultural theory utilizing Vygotsky (1978) and Bandura’s (1977) methods by incorporating the social community of reading within the school by possessing an environment for students to take ownership with a desire to read.

According to Husband (2014), reading achievement impacts all aspects such as academics, social development, and emotional development for schools. School leaders must make reading a priority in schools. Also, school leaders who require and have an expectation to ensure reading remains the focus often make growth in reading achievement. Teachers are willing to enforce more independent reading when the administrator supports the teachers because students are not accustomed to the practice. The support to increase reading achievement includes time, money, prioritizing, and professional development.

**Professional Development**

Research proves that teachers require explicit professional development to assist with the increase of students’ reading achievement. According to Dubeck, Jepkemei, King, Piper, and Zuilkowski (2018), when teachers are provided with professional development along with instructional supports, this results in improvements of literacy. However, the learning from the professional development should be used with fidelity to determine the effectiveness as well as the professional development should demonstrate value to teachers. Value in this instance means the professional development is important and worthy of teachers’ time. Teachers who positively respond to professional development will likely implement the strategy they learned (Aelterman, Haerens, Naeghel, Van Keer, & Vansteenkiste, 2016).
The teacher’s growth mindset impacts the effectiveness of the professional development too. A growth mindset means a person’s belief in developing their abilities through hard work, persistence, and dedication through perseverance (Dweck, 2006). Hence, a growth mindset for a teacher who actively participates in professional development demonstrates that the teacher desires to learn effective strategies to enhance the ability to teach. Also, teachers enjoy “make and takes” and resources to reference when planning to use information obtained from the professional development learning.

First, it is essential that reading or literacy coaches establish relationships with teachers. Teachers must view the literacy coach as a partner or a collaborator to improve student achievement (Zoch, 2015). Thus, administrators should clearly define the role of the literacy coach. Teachers should understand that literacy coaches do not evaluate, but serve as a support to the teacher and students. Literacy coaches who establish trusting supportive relationships have proven to positively impact reading outcomes (Dubeck, Jepkemei, King, Piper, & Zuilkowski, 2018; Zoch, 2015). Since literacy encompasses many skills such as letter-sound recognition, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension, teachers may have the ability to teach one skill better than another skill. Therefore, literacy coaches must understand the different areas of needs for each teacher.

Lesson planning is an area where teachers need support to plan effective lessons which support students’ needs while using data (Dubeck et al., 2018). Teachers who receive effective coaching from building level and central-office specialists gain knowledge with lesson planning and take risks in the classroom to improve student achievement. Sometimes instructional coaches collaboratively plan the instruction, while at other times they utilize the gradual-release model with teachers. Instructional coaches who use the gradual-release model for lesson
planning model the process for creating meaningful lessons with the use of data, district pacing
guide, and other curriculum materials. Then the instructional coach collaborates with the
teacher(s) to create a lesson plan, and finally the teacher plans the lesson for the instructional
coach to review. The process for planning a lesson is the same as teaching a lesson. Effective
plans with the use of data and students’ interest have been identified to assist with increasing
reading outcomes for students (Dubeck, et. al, 2018; Zoch, 2015).

Professional development includes strategies to engage and motivate students to read,
choosing engaging literature, delivering effective reading instruction, and understanding how to
utilize reading data to inform instruction (Cho et al., 2018; Donovan et al., 2016; Fletcher et al.,
2013; Husband, 2014). Many teachers do not have specialized reading instruction training;
therefore, administrators must offer teachers professional development by trained literacy
leaders. Professional development allows teachers to gain the understanding of best practices to
teach reading effectively. Teachers require assistance to teach reading using effective literature
(Husband, 2014). Also, teachers need to understand how to choose literature to engage and
motivate students to read that will increase students’ achievement.

One recent study identified students in fifth grade to determine whether teachers who
participated in professional development positively impacted students’ autonomous reading
motivation (Aelterman et al., 2016). The study found the professional development on
autonomous reading motivation with structure reported progress (Aelterman et al., 2016).
Professional development that allows teachers to implement in the classroom immediately
becomes more noteworthy. Likewise, teachers who use the information from professional
development with fidelity demonstrate a positive impact toward reading achievement. The
professional development provided should connect to not only the needs of teachers, but also the needs of students.

Although students require models for instruction, teachers require modeling of instructional practices through professional development in reading (Fletcher et al., 2013). When teachers learn more about instructional strategies in reading, then teachers are more comfortable teaching students to read as well as motivating students to read more texts. Furthermore, professional development provides teachers with instructional strategies and resources for students who are not reading on grade level. This allows instruction to remain clear and focused on the students’ needs to increase reading achievement (Donovan et al., 2016). Through professional development, school leaders obtain the opportunity to structure a school-wide reading plan to increase reading achievement. In the Guthrie, Ho, and Klauda (2013) correlational study, professional development was utilized to model motivational strategies for reading for the students with similar reading needs. Students’ performance in reading improved with effective professional development.

During professional development, teachers are provided with the opportunity to collaborate and learn from each other. To ensure students make progress in reading, teachers must review and analyze data to determine students’ needs (Donovan et al., 2016). Teachers who are not comfortable analyzing data require professional development and collaboration from peers to use the data to make instructional decisions to increase students’ reading achievement. Therefore, the trust literacy or instructional coaches establish with teachers help teachers to request for support to analyze and use the data to impact student outcomes.

Additionally, teachers grapple with teaching students to read; fostering the love of reading; and preparing students for high-stakes testing. Many teachers need support with
balancing the combination of the use of authentic text while embedding testing language and test-style questions during instruction as an alternative method from the usual skill and drill to prepare for the test using reading passages (Zoch, 2015). Students who are reading on grade level typically meet benchmark expectations for high-stakes testing. However, teachers need to understand instructional methods and how to add to the curriculum to teach reading while preparing for high-stakes tests.

Literacy coaches provide support to teachers to assist them with focusing on reading instruction and test preparation (Zoch, 2015). It is imperative for literacy coaches to align their professional development with the school district’s expectations. The collaboration between literacy coaches, teachers, and administrators continues to aid with the change to foster the love of reading while teaching students to read and preparing students for high-stakes test (Donovan et al., 2016; Koch, 2015). Read aloud continues to foster the love of literature along with the development of reading motivation and engagement (Gambell et al., 2019). Consequently, it remains imperative for teachers to receive professional learning on the importance of reading aloud to support reading.

As teachers obtain professional development to support reading comprehension, it becomes apparent that teachers be able to use and understand metacognitive strategies. Metacognition refers to an individual’s ability to process information reading, reflect on the reading and use the learned reading strategies (Jogi, Kikas, & Soodla, 2017). In a recent study about the impact of teachers’ metacognitive strategy knowledge, the study recognized the importance of subject matter knowledge to teach effective literacy (Jogi et al., 2017). Also, the study indicated the essential need to improve college teacher preparatory programs to improve reading psychology and literacy instruction (Jogi et al., 2017). Therefore, when teachers possess
the metacognitive strategies and the most beneficial manner to teach reading to students then
students metacognitive knowledge improve and reading comprehension. Furthermore, literacy
coaches and reading specialists are required to model the use of metacognitive strategies when
teachers are unfamiliar as a probationary teacher.

Motivation to Read

In order to motivate students to read, educators must utilize a multi-dimensional
approach. According to Merriam-Webster’s Online (2018), motivation means “Providing a
reason to act a certain way.” Therefore, students require a reason to gain the desire to read to
increase their reading achievement. The correlational study Duncan, Griffiths, McGeown, and
Stothard (2015) focused on reading motivation and attainment. However, reading engagement
was not addressed even though students’ reading increased with motivation for reading fiction
books was found to increase reading attainment. Hence, it is essential for teachers to identify
effective strategies to motivate students to read.

Recent research indicates that students with low socioeconomic status, African
Americans, Latinos, and boys lacked motivation and struggled with reading, which was a barrier
for students (Donovan, Hemphill, Jones, Kim, LaRusso, Thomson & Troyer, 2016; Duncan et
al., 2015). Teachers should review the types of reading tasks given to students when motivating
students to read in order to increase reading achievement. Students sometimes are more
motivated to read types of literature because of their interests (Daoud et al., 2020; Husband,
2014). Educators should attempt to understand why students do not read or why they do not
enjoy reading. Children who are learning and developing their reading require motivation to
avoid frustration (Foster & Foster, 2014). Although reading instruction is a key component for
children learning to read, it is essential for students to practice the reading by using authentic text independently.

The Motivation Profile Survey gives teachers a rationale of why students are unmotivated to read (Guthrie et al., 2013). Once students complete the survey, then the teacher disaggregates the data to assist with the improvement of reading motivation. Another survey entitled the Motivation for Reading Information Books in School (MRIB-S) measures various aspects of reading motivations such as intrinsic, self-efficacy, valuing and devaluing of reading, and other aspects of motivation (Guthrie et al., 2013). The MRIB-S offers educators key information about students and students’ feelings toward reading and strategies to increase students’ motivation to read. Another study utilized the Self-Description Questionnaire and the Social Rating Scale to examine reading engagement and motivation across ethnic and socioeconomic groups (Bergin & Whitney, 2018). The Self-Description Questionnaire measures students’ perception and the value toward reading. The Social Rating Scale measures the amount of engagement in the classroom such as willingness to learn, alertness, and ability to independently learn.

Although the current study will focus on grades three through five, the motivational needs of students in their early years gives background knowledge for upper grades. Students in primary grades, Pre-K through 2, measured their reading motivation according to their ability to recognize words to comprehend the reading (Cartwright, Marshall, & Wray, 2016). Hence, current researched indicated that towards the end of the year for grades K through 2, as decoding skills increased, the motivation to read increased too (Gambell et al., 2019).

Because boys possess a lower interest in reading, it was apparent that students required motivation at a young age to progress with reading comprehension to enhance reading outcomes
in higher grades (Cartwright et al., 2016). The study offered pertinent information to the current study because it provides educators with information to understand how and why students begin to lack motivation in the upper grades. Students who possess continued difficulty in reading must receive purposeful reading motivation to avoid reading failure (Forster, Hebbecker, & Souvignier, 2019). Because of the possibility of long-term reading difficulties, reading instruction must be systematic.

**Students’ Self-Efficacy.** Self-efficacy emphasizes how one believes in oneself to encourage or motivate to achieve a goal or a target. In an effort to promote self-efficacy, the sociocultural theory focused on the increase of the mindset of the students. As teachers modeled their thought processes and increased the expectation, it was evident of the potential outcomes (Blake et al., 2014). It was reported through effective modeling, guiding students through the concept or skill, and independent work, that students’ self-efficacy increased due to the connection of the sociocultural theory (Miller, 2011).

Students with high self-efficacy typically believe in themselves, which promotes achievement gains for students in reading (Blake et al., 2014; Jonson-Reid & Lee, 2016). Therefore, educators must set goals with students to ensure students understand the expectations for success. Students must understand the skill or concept prior to working independently; therefore, the research reported that students with a high self-concept typically exceed their goals because they understood their ability (Bergin & Whitney, 2018; Daniels & Steres, 2011). According to Forster and Souvignier (2013), goal setting impacts intrinsic motivation when students do not possess a high self-concept to obtain success. Therefore, it becomes imperative for teachers to model goal setting and teach students to set goals that are achievable in order to assist students with the identification of success.
The success from achieving the goal increases students’ self-concept. Students who reported an increase in self-concept also increase their self-efficacy. The improvement of self-efficacy equips students to gain the motivation to achieve or improve in reading. Additionally, another recent study indicated the influence of self-efficacy on reading achievement (Jonson-Reid & Lee, 2016). The study found that students who were at risk for reading failure then obtained feedback and set goals demonstrated higher self-efficacy. Furthermore, students’ self-efficacy and motivation influenced their reading achievement with specific reading tasks.

Teachers who grasp the concept of the importance of self-efficacy as it relates and connects to reading achievement make it an important focus in their classroom. Even though self-efficacy is a requirement for students, educators must build the self-efficacy in students utilizing a variety of motivational and engaging strategies (French, Munzo, Scoskie, 2013). Additionally, teachers in the Daniels and Steres (2011) study recognized that self-efficacy must be intentional for students to make significant reading achievement gains in reading.

When educators identify and understand the importance of students possessing a high self-efficacy, students’ reading achievement increases. Cho, Ju, Minhye, & Toste (2018), studied students’ mindset and achievement in reading comprehension, and the research noted that a growth mindset was positively correlated to reading comprehension. Therefore, teachers must promote self-efficacy through changing students’ mindsets.

Another aspect of self-efficacy includes students who have the ability to read, but they are unmotivated to read. This is a concern because if teachers do not know how to effectively motivate students to read, then the reading outcomes will not improve. In a study of students in grade seven, students with low self-efficacy typically devalued reading and avoided reading information text due to the difficulty of the text (Rosenzweig & Wigfield, 2017). It becomes
apparent for teachers to choose text for students that is not only interesting, but also text that is not so difficult for them because it could lead to the avoidance of reading (Burrowridge et al., 2015).

Students do not always value informational text; therefore, teachers should identify the literature that is interesting to students. In fact, sometimes students are motivated to read different types of text. Rosenzweig and Wigfield (2017) proved that females valued reading higher than males, especially as it related to the discipline of reading. However, females perceived informational text that related to science as more difficult than males (Rosenzweig & Wigfield, 2017). Recent research found that students with high self-efficacy and low undermining of reading seemed more motivated to read; therefore, students’ reading outcomes were higher too (Rosenzweig & Wigfield, 2017).

Educators should consider investigating strategies to improve and increase students’ self-efficacy and the value of reading to improve students’ reading outcomes. One study of students in grades three through six indicated that students possess the confidence in their reading, but lack the value of reading (Applegate et al., 2018). Thus, educators should review different types of motivation to identify the best motivational strategies to improve reading outcomes.

**Value of Reading.** Since children do not always recognize the value of reading, it becomes important that teachers foster the value to increase the reading engagement (Merga & Roni, 2018). Therefore, students need to develop a cognizance of the benefits through various methods such as motivation, engagement, relationships with teachers, and text selection. The use of various instructional reading strategies include rich discussion, text selection, and reading activities. Additionally, students’ self-efficacy impacts their value of reading because when students do believe in their abilities to achieve in reading, they do not value the reading (Bergin
Hence, Bergin and Whitney (2018) found students’ engagement impacts reading achievement for students in grades three and five.

**Extrinsic Motivation.** Extrinsic motivation connects to students receiving a tangible reward for achieving a goal or encouragement to continue to meet an expectation (Froiland & Worrell, 2016). Teachers utilize a variety of extrinsic rewards to motivate children for behavior and achievement. In the past and currently, teachers utilized programs such as Accelerated Reader and Read-n-Quiz to motivate students to read in hopes of increasing reading achievement. The programs were expensive and entailed goals that could hinder students’ English/Language Arts grades (Renwick, 2015). Therefore, some students lost their desire to read because they could not meet the goal of points set forth for the grade level (Renwick, 2015).

There were some students who were not reading on grade level. Students who did not meet grade level expectations had the same requirements as students who read on or above grade level. The students who read on or above grade level read more and longer books, which increased the point value for the books. Teachers who understand self-efficacy and teachers who naturally have the ability to build effective relationships with students are able to utilize less extrinsic techniques and more intrinsic (Froiland & Worrell, 2016). Although teachers may use some extrinsic motivational techniques to encourage reading achievement, it is essential to identify why students lack the motivation to read and how to rekindle the enjoyment of reading (Guthrie et al., 2013).

One recent study indicated the students from an urban school district with students in grades four and five who participated in a summer reading program increased reading comprehension as well as correlated to motivation (Guryan, Kim, & Park, 2016). However, students who enrolled in a specific program and with access to books that aligned to the needs of
the readers had a higher effect size for reading motivation (Guryan et al., 2016). The public libraries are involved with extrinsic motivation to encourage students to read.

In Chesapeake, Virginia, the public libraries foster reading motivation during the summer and other times during the school year. Many public libraries offer reading prizes for students as they complete a certain number of books or hours of reading. The library typically divides the groups of children into groups by age: 0-5 years-old; 6-10 years-old, and 12 years-old and up. Also, the public libraries provide prizes for children who sign up for the summer reading program. During the summer as well as other times during the year, public libraries offer story time for various age groups. The librarians persuade parents to check books out to continue and foster the love of reading by encouraging the entire family to log the books or participate in reading (Guryan et al., 2016; Ramos and Vila, 2015). If the incentives intensified then the students became more motivated to read essentially during the summer (Guryan et al., 2016).

Incentives have a purpose in education and with the promotion of reading, but students must understand the purpose behind the incentive for students to demonstrate success with reading motivation and engagement.

However, a recent study found that students in grade three did not demonstrate higher achievement with more motivation for students identified as Black and Hispanic in a lower socioeconomic status than students who were motivated (Bergin & Whitney, 2018; Forster, Hebbeck, & Souvignier, 2019). Students became extrinsically motivated for various reasons such as to do well on an assessment, but the students preferred to know how to be successful on the assessment or successful in reading text they understood instead of receiving a reward for passing a test or reading a book (Bergin & Whitney, 2018; Guthrie & Klauda, 2014; Guthrie et
Teachers should provide students with the reason behind the tasks and the reading to obtain a successful motivated and engaged reader.

**Intrinsic Motivation.** Intrinsic motivation means one desires to do well in reading because of an understanding of the importance (Brand, May, Orkin, Pott, & Wolf, 2018). Intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy connect to sociocultural theory because students must believe in themselves to become intrinsically motivated (Brand et al., 2018). Students must understand the purpose of their learning in order to desire to achieve success in reading comprehension. Thus, students who read frequently use reading strategies; therefore, they understand the literature better and become better readers because of the intrinsic motivation (Forster, Hebbecker, & Souvignier, 2019).

Often, students who respond to extrinsic rewards are already motivated to read (Guryan et al., 2016). However, some educators desire to use the incentives to motivate students who do not read. Additionally, students need experiences with text, and they need to understand how to effectively identify success (Armstrong, Hale, Kim, Troyer, Wantechekon, 2018; Blake et al., 2014; Daniels & Steres, 2011). As students learn, they require less extrinsic motivation; therefore, the students become more intrinsically motivated to meet reading expectations. Hence, students begin to grow as readers because they enjoy their learning and progress (Brand et al., 2018). Furthermore, the amount of literature a student reads will increase with intrinsic motivation.

Students who are not intrinsically motivated by learning tasks must be provided with more challenging learning tasks and text experiences to increase their motivation and reading achievement (Armstrong et al., 2018; D’Mello et al., 2015). This means students may need to collaboratively work more with their peers and teachers to facilitate the learning outcome while
utilizing text that may possess a higher difficulty level. However, it is essential to avoid choosing text that is too difficult for students to read because students may resist the intended learning and the engagement and motivation will decline or become absent (Guthrie et al., 2013). In order to assist a student with becoming intrinsically motivated, the learning environment should support students to take risks in their learning.

Goal setting is a strategy that has been proven to assist students with increasing their motivation intrinsically. Studies have shown goal setting with students increased their reading level (Brand et al., 2018; de Bree and Zee, 2017). Students should know their reading level and its meaning. For example, if a student in grade four is reading on a Fountas and Pinnell level N and Lexile level of 400, then the child should know that those levels mean proficient on grade two texts. Also, the students would need to know the expected levels for the grade level.

Teachers who spend time with students to set realistic attainable goals help students to increase their desire to improve their reading achievement. The goals students set should progress toward grade level expectations or at least a year’s growth in reading (Foster & Foster, 2014). Additionally, the goals students make involve monitoring. If a student does not meet the goal, then teachers, parents, and others involved in the child’s life must provide help to assist the child to meet the goal (Brand et al., 2018; Foster & Foster, 2014).

Students are motivated to read when they have a goal to achieve (de Bree and Zee, 2017). Also, goal setting allows students to spend individualized time with their teacher to foster the student-teacher relationship and to help teachers earn students’ trust. Recent research indicated that students who set goals while utilizing the Accelerated Reader program increased reading outcomes for students in grades four through twelve (Foster & Foster, 2014). The students set
goals and monitored their progress based on obtainable goals. This allowed students to celebrate their successes (Foster & Foster, 2014).

Students respond differently to extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Therefore, teachers must know their students to identify the most effective way to motivate students to read. Guryan, Kim, and Park (2016) found that in order for incentives to improve a behavior, the incentive should address the intended problem. Reluctant readers require more than incentives to motivate them to read (Allington, 2011). Students who are reluctant readers benefit from text that aligns with their reading ability (Allington, 2011; Guryan et al., 2016). Hence, teachers should use caution when automatically using extrinsic rewards for students who may have not read a book aligned to their reading level.

One current research study indicated extrinsic motivation negatively impacted reading achievement, but intrinsic and extrinsic motivation together supported or correlated with reading achievement along with the amount of reading. (Armstrong et al., 2018). The opposite is true too with intrinsic rewards. Because all students may not respond to intrinsic rewards, teachers must identify why the students lack the motivation to read prior to assuming that students should be able to read without an incentive. Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation are determined by the needs of the students.

Engagement

Engagement encompasses more than students performing movement, but it includes how interested the students are in the reading instruction. According to Burrowbridge, Malloy, Parsons, and Parsons (2015), engagement is a triad that includes behavioral engagement or time on task, cognitive engagement or strategic effort, and effective engagement or interest in the topic or task. Motivation for Reading Information Books in School (MRIB-S) and Motivational
Profile Survey indicated students’ thoughts about reading and reasons why they read or choose not to read (Guthrie et al., 2013). Student engagement may look differently in various reading classrooms; however, the more engaged students are in the learning, the more they achieve.

Research reportedly found reading engagement integrated with effort, time, and perseverance correlated with achievement. Although Guthrie and Klauda (2014), identified in a correlational study that engagement for advanced readers indicated higher achievement instead of struggling readers, the measurement of engagement was measured through a survey instead of pre-test and post-test. Also, when teachers deliver reading instruction with enthusiasm and understanding then students’ desire to read and achieve becomes more evident (Husband, 2014). However, schools should consider offering teachers professional development to assist teachers with effective student engagement (Fletcher et al., 2013; Donovan et al., 2016; and Husband, 2014).

Current research has identified that there are three types of engagement because it is multifaceted: emotional, behavioral, and cognitive (D’Mello, Fulmer, Grasser, & Strain, 2015). Emotional engagement appeals to the inner feelings of students such as achievement, mood, interest, and effect; behavioral engagement refers to the students’ participation in the learning tasks or discussion; and cognitive engagement supports the interest of the task and the amount of time students are willing to put in the learning tasks (D’Mello et al., 2015).

As teachers engage students in the learning or reading tasks, it is imperative to understand when to use the types of engagement appropriately as well as to determine if all three types of engagement are necessary with all tasks or direct instruction. Hence, it is important to administer reading interest inventories throughout the school year to identify not only students’
interests, but also to understand students’ learning needs in order to continue to maintain a high level of engagement for all students.

Children require instruction on how to read a text that is not preferred but is necessary for their success with reading. Therefore, students need to understand how to self-regulate when the text is not on a favored topic (Dole, Harris, & Springer, 2017). It is important to teach students to persevere through text in which they are disinterested by teaching students metacognitive strategies that good readers use daily. For example, students need instruction on asking questions, setting a purpose for reading, making inferences, connections, visualizing, synthesizing, and summarizing. Teachers should model the strategies utilizing think-alouds during shared or whole-group reading time (Allington, 2011; Dole et al., 2017; Fountas & Pinnell, 2000).

During independent reading and guided reading, students need time to practice these strategies to learn to self-regulate. Hence, the gradual-release model encourages students to self-regulate their learning. Also, as teachers model self-regulation, they need to demonstrate frustration with decoding words and comprehending the text to provide students with strategies to overcome the lack of interest in the text. Current research found self-regulation was evident in proficient readers (Gelder, Milliano, & Sleggers, 2016). Moreover, students require systematic sequential patterns to achieve in reading. There are some low achieving readers who benefit from frequent self-regulatory activities as well as a model for task achievement.

Engagement can be challenging for teachers to provide daily in class, due to curriculum and pacing-guide guidelines (Burrowbridge et al., 2015). Also, time impacts engagement because engagement requires thoughtful, well-planned lessons to encourage students to participate and remain engrossed in the entire lesson. It is essential for teachers to understand
cultural backgrounds, ability levels, and the interests of students to engage them in literary tasks (Burrowbridge et al., 2015; Donovan et al., 2016; Fletcher et al., 2013; and Husband, 2014). Therefore, teachers who use MRIB-S, Motivational to Read Profile Survey (MRPS), and Reading Engagement Index (REI) not only become knowledgeable about how to motivate students, but also about how to engage students. Teachers who spend time understanding students’ cultures, interests, and abilities build and maintain strong relationships.

**Student Teacher Relationships.** Teachers who foster sustainable relationships assist with their students’ making gains in reading achievement. French et al. (2013) noted effective relationships correlated to the improvement of reading achievement. Relationships should build as the school year progresses. Teachers who focus on becoming acquainted with students and building classroom communities help students to gain the self-efficacy to achieve in reading (Blake et al., 2014).

Self-regulation helps students to gain self-efficacy to become motivated academically and intrinsically. Self-regulate means students have the ability to control their emotions, actions, and thoughts to attain the learning goals set forth by teachers and themselves (de Bree and Zee, 2017). Teachers who build meaningful positive relationships with students are able to encourage students to self-regulate to become higher achieving students. The close relationships teachers build with students improve the students’ ability to self-regulate to gain the motivation to perform better in reading (de Bree and Zee, 2017).

Students need to know their classroom is a safe haven for learning which includes mistakes, errors, and corrections. One study indicated that classrooms with structure and organization achieved higher test scores than classes with less structure (French et al., 2013). Once teachers build genuine relationships with students, then students desire to read. The
teacher knowledge of the students’ value of reading is imperative to make the climate of the classroom literate (Applegate et al., 2018). Also, teachers are more aware of students’ needs, and the awareness allows teachers to encourage students’ enjoyment for reading due to the expectations of the classroom.

The personal connections teachers make with students are valuable. The relationships and personal connections teachers make with students must have quality, so students will know the relationships are sincere (de Bree and Zee, 2017). Curriculum guides and pacing guides are important documents to use during planning lessons. However, the documents for planning must not become more important than students’ needs. Students must believe teachers like them and have their best interest (Blake et al., 2014). Authentic relationships are needed to ensure students’ emotional and academic needs are met to increase reading achievement. de Bree and Zee (2017) studied students in grades three through five perceptions and their relationships with teachers. The study found students who had a relationship or sense of closeness to their teacher were likely to put forth more effort to use metacognitive strategies (de Bree and Zee, 2017). Research reportedly indicates that students need to trust their teachers in order to demonstrate successful reading outcomes.

**Rich Classroom Literature Discussions.** When teachers facilitate students’ rich literature discussions, the collaboration from the discussion assists with fostering engagement in the reading. Students become enthusiastic about the literature which helps with motivating students to read (Guthrie et al., 2013; Fletcher et al., 2013). Thus, professional development becomes important to help teachers understand the purpose and importance of literature discussions, according to Blake et al., (2014). Teachers will need to gain an understanding of the
techniques for effective questioning skills, responding to students, and knowing how to facilitate a discussion.

It is essential for teachers to guarantee students that they are safe during the participation in literature discussions. Additionally, teachers will need to collaboratively create norms with students. The management of the classroom increases the students’ opportunities for learning and engaging in the learning (Fletcher et al., 2013). Literature discussions offer students a chance to express their learning using other methods than standardize tests which alleviates disengagement (Donovan, et al., 2016). To make sure literature discussions are highly effective, students require instruction on how to effectively and appropriately communicate in a literature discussion.

**Literature Selection for Instruction.** The types of literature play an important role with promoting students’ engagement in reading. Literature should be carefully selected for instruction especially for the read aloud, shared reading, guided reading, and mentor texts for writing sections of the reading block. The quality of the literature selections has been identified as an important predictor for reading achievement (Armstrong, Hale, Kim, Troyer, & Wantchekon, 2018). Hence, the literature chosen for instruction impacts the text selection for independent reading.

The strategic choosing of literature provides students with ideas of the types of books to read independently. Furthermore, the quality of literature encourages students to engage in the text during leisure time (Armstrong et al., 2018). Research has indicated that when children practice reading independently, then reading achievement increased (Allington, 2011). Therefore, students with an interest in a topic will read more independently, and the reading outcome will improve (Dole, Harris, & Springer, 2017). Additionally, when selecting a text for
students to read, teachers must choose texts that are coherent, relevant, and vivid (Dole et al., 2017).

Students enjoy making connections and inferences in a text that is coherent and well-organized because it allows the readers to comprehend the text successfully, which will enhance the students’ interests in the text. When students are able to make connections to the text, those connections allow them to recognize that the text is more relevant for students. The more relevant the text is to students’ experiences, the more they will gain interest in the text. Authors who write vivid, descriptive details increase students’ interests (Dole et al., 2017). The interest in the text causes students to remember more of the text and sometimes refer their peers to the text (Allington & Pressley, 2015; Dole et al., 2017; Guthrie, 2015).

To spark students’ interest in various types of literature, teachers need to identify the students’ interest, then cultivate it. A variety of genres and the amount of the literary genres continue to remain essential with students’ reading motivation (Daoud et al., 2020). Students’ interest in text is shaped and molded by the general interests such as trucks, cars, types of weather, and other topics. These topics are students’ personal interests (Dole et al., 2017). If the topics are integrated into the reading of literature appropriately, then students engage in the text.

Therefore, it is important to administer interest inventories to learn the topics or subjects that interest students. In addition to topics and or subjects, once students become aware of the variety of genres, teachers may consider surveying the classes to identify the students’ interests. Additionally, as teachers match readers to text, teachers must also know students’ reading level such as: Lexile, Developmental Reading Assessment; or Fountas and Pinnell reading levels. A student’s reading level allows teachers to match students’ ability level with the text while
choosing an interesting topic to engage and motivate (Guryan et al., 2016). Also, students need accessibility to texts, in order to read the books of interest. Books that are well matched to motivated students have demonstrated an increase of reading of comprehension (Guryan et al., 2016). The relationships teachers establish with students assist with the choosing appropriate texts and administering the reading inventories.

Current research revealed that student choice promotes reading engagement (Daniels & Steres, 2011; Daoud et al., 2020, Guthrie et al., 2013; Husband, 2014). Choice allows students to become responsible and empowered as readers. Additionally, choice could be integrated into any portion of the reading block. For example, students may be offered choice during guided reading after reviewing three or four books on their reading level (Fountas and Pinnell, 2015).

According to Guthrie and Klauda (2014), when teachers identify the students’ interests in types of genres then they have a greater understanding of literature to select as well as more interest in the text.

When students have difficulty choosing interesting, just right texts, teachers help them locate a book they will enjoy (Brokamp, Houtveen, & van de Grift, 2018). Students who struggle with reading require additional help with identifying books to read independently. The structured autonomy used in one study was similar to structured independent reading (Aelterman et al., 2016 & Daoud et al., 2020). Students require choice when reading, but sometimes they need to choose from the choices provided to them from the teachers. To support students with their choice during independent reading, teachers must recognize students’ interest to support the autonomy as well as making those text available and accessible to students (Daoud et al., 2020).

Current research identified boys in grade five responded positively to structure autonomy with reading (Aelterman et al., 2016). Students enjoy choosing texts based on their interests
along with reading books that are not too difficult. Also, students lose engagement and become dependent on the teachers when the text is too difficult. However, students are more apt to become and remain engaged if the text is not too difficult and if it interests them. When planning units of study, teachers should know students’ interests and provide texts based on interests and different levels to include all learners (Burrowbridge et al., 2015). As students matriculate through school, reading engagement continues to be a concern for students who lack the engagement because the students may not enroll in advance courses due to the reading demands (Rosenzweig & Wigfield, 2017). The lack of reading engagement with students could have an impact on the reading achievement or outcomes.

**Motivating and Engaging Instructional Activities.** According to Donovan et al. (2016), students who participated in engaging instruction increased their reading achievement more than students who received typical or more traditional instruction. Teachers must provide instructional resources and activities that promote reading engagement. In order to offer effective resources, teachers must know their students’ ability levels. Reading programs may not engage all students. Students who are disengaged require teachers to utilize instructional activities that include all important literacy components such as phonics, phonemic awareness, comprehension, fluency, and vocabulary. The components of literacy must be integrated into reading instruction to demonstrate the effectiveness (Donovan et al., 2016; Fountas & Pinnell, 2015). Instructional activities must reflect the students’ needs but exude engagement and motivation to read which would lead to an increase of reading achievement.

The activities or tasks teachers choose to teach reading should simulate activities students would utilize outside of school such as writing a summary (Burrowbridge et al., 2015; Allington & Pressley, 2015). In many careers, students may possibly need to write a summary of an event...
or incident. Students must learn the skills of writing an effective summary to articulate the events in chronological order of the most important details to provide understanding of the incident. Also, students need to be taught how to write complete sentences that make sense with correct capital letters, punctuation marks, and spelling. Additionally, students should know and understand by receiving child-friendly learning targets and the reason for the reading tasks (Allington & Pressley, 2015). When students understand the reason for the specific tasks, they recognized the purpose for the learning, which gives students the desire to learn (Burrowridge et al., 2015; Guthrie & Kluda, 2014; Gambrell et al., 2013). Therefore, teachers must explain tasks to students to engage them prior to the learning or independent activity.

Student choice, whether collaboratively with peers or independently, is important to engage and motivate students in reading task. Research has shown that when students were given choice for tasks, they were more confident to complete the tasks as well as to understand the tasks better (Burrowridge et al., 2015; Guthrie, 2015). The collaboration between the students along with the choice of the tasks allow students to increase their self-efficacy to intrinsically become motivated and engaged in the learning.

One study identified students in grade six in a Title I school. The students analyzed the top engaging literal tasks as collaboration and appropriate support (Burrowridge et al., 2015). Students from various ability levels and interests were grouped together. Although students were considered low performing students, the love for a particular topic made each student believe they were valuable to his or her group because of the interest in the topic. When tasks were too difficult, students become disengaged because of the challenge. However, the activities that were partially challenging allowed students to collaborate to increase their understanding. Also,
the medium difficulty tasks offered students an opportunity to build their self-esteem about their learning (Burrowridge et al., 2015).

Students must understand how to work successfully in a collaborative group. Students require explicit modeling and instruction to complete the task (Burrowridge et al., 2015). Teachers become facilitators of the groups to clear misconceptions and monitor students’ actions. Sometimes teachers may need to sit with a group longer to maintain order with behavior, to reteach group expectations, or to provide more understanding of the activity (Burrowridge et al., 2015). Also, students thrive on the support of their peers (Dole et al., 2017; Littleton, Mazon, Rojas-Drummond, & Velez, 2014). Students who work collaboratively learned from one another. The students gained more interest by learning, investigating, and celebrating success to become better readers (Littleton et al., 2014). According to Dole, Harris, and Springer (2017), research reported as students worked in collaborative groups about a change they desired in the school, the students became more engaged because they were more interested in demonstrating why a change was needed. Students enjoyed researching and reading about a topic when they believed they had a connection.

Teachers sometimes may need to manipulate activities for reading through the presentation of the tasks. The activities may include technology and other multimedia resources when engaging students in reading (Dole et al., 2017). Therefore, students need to be captivated early or at the beginning of the lesson to remain engaged. Sometimes students may think they are playing or having fun, as they are learn. Creativity is an important characteristic when planning lessons to promote reading engagement.

Behavior plays a role in improving reading instruction. In a correlational study with approximately 600 grade three-students, reading fluency correlated with task-focused behavior
and reading performance from the beginning of the school year until the end (Brokamp et al., 2018). The management of the students in the classroom correlated with learning. However, the management and the quality of instruction connected to the success of students. Students who were motivated early in the lesson remained focused throughout the instruction. Also, students’ compliant behavior improved for struggling readers with extra instruction during the reading lesson and at other times.

When teachers conference with students about their reading, it shows students that teachers monitor their independent reading (Brokamp et al., 2018). Reading conferences offer teachers information to choose texts that are interesting to students. The reading conferences allow teachers to obtain valuable information to assist students with choosing independent books because teachers learn students’ topics of interest (Dole et al, 2017). Teachers are able to refer students to various types of paired texts, magazines, and other literature based on the students’ curiosity (Dole et al., 2017).

Some children require more support than others during silent reading. Teachers who utilize guided reading or guided practice during reading assist with students maintaining their focus on the text. The teachers facilitate the learning for students and help students when needed. Students desire for teachers to show how they feel about them through instruction; therefore, students become more motivated when teachers are involved in their learning (de Bree and Zee, 2017). The involvement from teachers helps students to gain more interest in their schoolwork. Once students are more interested in their academics, they diligently work in areas of difficulty such as reading and other literal activities.
Summary

Reading achievement has been a focus for educators in determining the most effective strategies to improve reading achievement. Also, with the increase of students reading below grade level, it has become essential to understand the connection of motivation and engagement to reading achievement. Therefore, the use of professional development for teachers will provide teachers with strategies to promote engagement and motivation with reading. Additionally, professional development will allow teachers to gain ideas from colleagues and best practices for reading instruction.

Motivating students to read is important for students to increase reading achievement. Teachers must gain an understanding of self-efficacy as well as intrinsic and extrinsic motivating factors. Engagement encompasses many aspects in reading. Therefore, building sustainable relationships with students is imperative for students’ success. Previous research has shown it is important to provide students with rich literature discussions, choice in reading, and effective instructional practices.

The gap in literature exists with exploring reading motivation and engagement to foster an increase in students’ reading achievement. There have been limited research studies utilizing students in grades third through fifth in Title I schools that focus solely on predicting reading engagement and motivation based on reading outcomes. Also, deep comprehension has not been measured or researched as it connects to reading motivation and engagement. This study is imperative in providing educators more understanding to increase reading achievement utilizing motivational and engagement strategies. There have been few studies focused on reading engagement and motivation to increase reading achievement with struggling readers without analyzing advance readers. The study brings more information to the current research.
CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

The purpose of this correlation design was to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between reading motivation and reading engagement on reading outcomes for third-grade students through fifth-grade students who are not reading on grade level in a Title I elementary school in the southeast section of Virginia. This study focused on the correlation between reading motivation and engagement on reading outcomes. The methodology chapter will include the explanation of the design of the study; provide research questions and hypotheses; description of the participants and the setting; the description of instruments; the procedures to complete the study; and an explanation of the analysis for the study.

Design

The correlation design was appropriate for this study because of the examination of the relationship between the variables of engagement, motivation, and reading outcomes measured on a continuous scale (Warner, 2013). Additionally, a correlational research seeks to determine the direction and strength of the relationship among variables with the utilization of correlational statistics (Gall et al., 2007). Hence, for this study, the variables are reading motivation and reading engagement on reading outcomes. Because the purpose of the study was to determine whether there was a correlation between reading motivation and reading engagement on reading outcomes, a correlational research design was suited for this study (Gall et al., 2007). Therefore, the relationship between reading motivation and engagement on students’ reading outcomes in reading was studied. Correlation designs examine relationships between the variables (Glatthorn, Joyner, & Rouse 2013). This study was completed in the natural setting which was
using the students’ current reading data. Furthermore, this study included null hypothesis, variables, and will analyze the relationship with Pearson’s r correlation coefficient.

Correlation research refers to the relationships between variables utilizing correlation statistics (Gall et al., 2007). The data was collected on the variables: reading engagement, reading motivation, and reading outcomes. Correlation studies do not explain why the variables are related because the purpose of correlation studies is to identify if two variables are related. However, in this study, the researcher attempted to identify causation for reading outcomes because a relationship may not prove causation (Glatthorn et al., 2013). Moreover, the correlation design allowed the researcher to determine the depth of the relationship between the variables. This study determined positive, negative, or an absent correlation on reading outcomes with the utilization of a Pearson Product-Moment analysis.

There have been correlational designs similar to the study which utilized at least one of the instruments or a similar instrument. Duncan, Griffiths, McGeown, and Stothard (2015) completed a correlational design to predict the reading motivation on particular reading skills such as word reading, comprehending, summarizing, and fluency. The study was similar to the current study because the prediction uses reading motivation with particular reading skills based on the York Assessment for Reading Comprehension Secondary. Therefore, the study determined there was a correlation between reading motivation and specific reading skills.

There was another study completed that utilized a correlation design to determine whether the levels of motivation and engagement were similar in advanced and struggling readers (Guthrie & Klauda, 2014). The prediction on achievement was correlated to the advanced readers; however, there was not a correlation for the struggling readers when the Gates-MacGinitite assessment was used. The current study variables of interest were students’
reading motivation, reading engagement, and reading achievement. The other variable of interest will be generally defined as students’ outcomes on the HMH *Reading Inventory*®.

**Research Questions**

**RQ 1:** Is there a relationship between reading engagement as shown by the Reading Engagement Index and student reading outcomes as shown by HMH *Reading Inventory*® for third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade students who read below grade level?

**RQ 2:** Is there a relationship between reading motivation as shown by the Motivation to Read Profile and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH *Reading Inventory*® for third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade students who read below grade level?

**Hypotheses**

The null hypotheses for this study are:

**H₀₁:** There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading engagement as shown by the Reading Engagement Index and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH *Reading Inventory*® for third-grade students who read below grade level.

**H₀₂:** There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading engagement as shown by the Reading Engagement Index and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH *Reading Inventory*® for fourth-grade students who read below grade level.

**H₀₃:** There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading engagement as shown by the Reading Engagement Index and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH *Reading Inventory*® for fifth-grade students who read below grade level.

**H₀₄:** There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading motivation as shown by the Motivation to Read Profile and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH *Reading Inventory*® for third-grade students who read below grade level.
H05: There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading motivation as shown by the Motivation to Read Profile and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory® for fourth-grade students who read below grade level.

H06: There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading motivation as shown by the Motivation to Read Profile and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory® for fifth-grade students who read below grade level.

Participants and Setting

The participants from the study were drawn from the population of Title I elementary schools in southeastern Virginia. The schools for the study were Marshall Elementary, Kay Elementary, and Land Elementary (pseudonym). Marshall Elementary has been fully accredited by the Virginia Department of Education for the past three years. Kay and Land Elementary schools have been fully accredited for the past four years. Each school has approximately 380-500 students in grades pre-kindergarten through fifth grade, in a suburban school district in southeast Virginia. The three schools are Title I schools with approximately 65% or more students who qualify for free or reduce lunch. The race or ethnicity of the students are Black, Caucasian, Asian, and Hispanic; and the students live in single-family homes, apartments, subsidized housing, hotels, and shelters.

The participants in the study were drawn from convenience sampling from Title I elementary schools in southeastern Virginia. Furthermore, the target population of students was chosen based on students who are reading below proficiency according to the HMH Reading Inventory® Lexile. Students who were 100 or more Lexile levels below proficiency were chosen to participate in the study from each building. Reportedly, HMH Reading Inventory®
assessments and Fountas and Pinnell assessments show 54% of students reading on or above grade level.

The winter HMH Reading Inventory® data was used to determine the students who qualify for the study due to reading below proficiency level. The correlations calculated was the fall HMH Reading Inventory® proficiency. The schools used for the study were nearby the school of employment of the researcher. For this study, it satisfied the minimum sample size requirement for a Pearson product-moment correlation when assuming a medium effect size, statistical power of .7, and alpha level set at $p < .05$ (Gall et al., 2007). The sample size of 66 was used for each grade level. The larger number of students allowed the researcher to determine whether there was a correlation between reading outcomes and reading engagement and motivation. Moreover, the study included all students who qualify, according to Lexile levels. Likewise, the study included 100 females, 98 males, 66 grade three-, 66 grade four-, 66 grade five- students, 100 Black students, 30 White students, 13 Asian students, 30 Hispanic students, and 25 other students.

The participants in the study were male and female students in grades three through five from the same school division in southeastern Virginia. Hence, the teachers who teach those grades were selected to participate in the study. In order for a school to qualify as a Title I school in this particular school division; the school must have more than 60% of students who meet the income criteria for free or reduced lunch. One school had nine classes of students and each class size had approximately 20 students in each class in grades three through five. Another school had 13 classes of students in grades three through five with approximately 20 students in each class. The third school had 13 classes of students in grades three through fifth with about 20 students in each class.
Instrumentation

The instruments for the study included the HMH Reading Inventory® (RI) (Houghton Mifflin Harcourt, 2019); the Motivation to Read Profile Survey (MRPS) (Gambrell, Malloy, Marinak, & Mazzoni, 2013); and the Reading Engagement Index (REI) (Barbsoa et al., 2008). The RI is a computer adaptive reading assessment. Since the RI assessment is one of the district-wide assessments, students in grades three through five are administered RI three times each year, September, January, and April, in a whole group setting, unless students have a disability and require accommodations.

Reading Inventory (RI)

The HMH Reading Inventory® (RI) is a criterion-referenced test intended to measure reading comprehension and to match students to text so they can read with confidence and control (Scholastic, 2018). In addition, the purpose of the HMH Reading Inventory® was to provide educators with support for classroom instruction by matching readers with appropriate leveled text for the purpose of comprehension (Houghton Mifflin Harcourt, 2019). Also, HMH Reading Inventory® assesses students’ ability to make inferences, to use context clues, to determine cause and effect relationships, and to draw conclusions.

The HMH Reading Inventory® was developed about 15 years ago by researchers from Duke University; University of Chicago; Stanford University; and University of North Carolina utilizing readability formulas about written language and the use of mathematical equations. The readability formulas included the use of semantic difficulty and syntactic complexity. The RI was used in numerous studies that indicated the credibility of the instrument (Allen et al., 2017; Conoyer et al., 2017; Melekoglu, 2011). The validity of the HMH Reading Inventory® links the effectiveness of standardized assessments for reading comprehension and the HMH Reading
Inventory® measures the skill it intended which is reading comprehension (Scholastic Technical Guide, 2014).

Each student in grades three through five receives approximately 20 to 25 questions from a bank of 5,000 Lexile leveled passages ranging from beginning reader to 1500 Lexile level. A Lexile measure is determined by the difficulty of the items to which a student responded. The performance on the HMH Reading Inventory® is reported as a Lexile measure that places reader and text on the same scale to determine a student’s ability to comprehend.

Results from HMH Reading Inventory® are computer generated scale scores. The scale begins at the Beginning Reader level (less than 100L) to 1500L (Scholastic, 2018). The HMH Reading Inventory® is a computer adaptive assessment which adapts the level of difficulty based on the students’ ability to choose the correct answer from the reading. If a student chooses the correct answer, then the following question increase in difficulty. However, for students who choose incorrect answers, the questions and paragraphs decrease in difficulty. The answers are presented in a multiple-choice format. The Lexile proficiency band for grade three is 520-820; grade four Lexile proficiency band is 740-940; and grade five Lexile band for proficiency is 865-1010.

The students read short paragraphs of authentic literature and complete a sentence with a word that makes sense to complete the sentence. Students are allowed three skips and the skips do not count toward or hinder their Lexile score. The students take the HMH Reading Inventory® assessment during their language arts block on the computer or Chromebook. The HMH Reading Inventory® is administered in 30 to 60 minutes. Correlation coefficients ranged from .56 (with CTBS) to .83 (with RI print version). The HMH Reading Inventory® reliability and validity statistics for internal consistency measures for the overall total accuracy .85
Cronbach alpha score. According to the Scholastic Reading Inventory Technical Guide (2014), a reliability that exceeds 0.80 demonstrates that the scores accurately represent the student’s reading ability.

**Motivation to Read Profile-Revised (MRP-R)**

The Motivation to Read Profile-Revised (MRP-R) was created in 1996 by Gambrell, Malloy, Marinak, and Mazzoni (2013) to help teachers gain understanding of students’ value and self-concept of reading to assist with making appropriate reading instructional decisions. The MRP was developed according to previous research connected to motivation and previous tools to measure and assess motivation (Gambell, Malloy, Marinak, & Mazzoni, 1996). Moreover, the MRP-R was created to align with the changes in culture and linguistic changes over the last 10 years (Gambrell, Malloy, Marinak, & Mazzoni, 2013). The MRP-R continues to be used in many classrooms and in research pertaining to reading motivation. Additionally, the MRP-R was used in numerous studies (Applegate et al., 2018; Boerma, Jolles, & Mol, 2016; Long & Szabo, 2016).

The construct validity was completed on the items for self-concept and value of reading. Then the researcher separated the 100 items into categories: self-concept, measures value of reading. Self-concept pertained to the way students’ view their competence in reading and performance to peers. The value of reading evaluates to the importance students put on reading activities (Gambrell et al., 2013). Also, the MRP-R has twenty questions, and the answer choices for each question are in order from least motivated to most motivated.

The MRP-R instrument used a four-answer scale with each item answer choice representing scores from 1-4 for least motivated to most motivated or scores from 4-1 for most motivated to least motivated. Additionally, the odd-numbered items represent self-concept and
the even-numbered items represent the value of reading. The lowest score possible on each scale is 10 and the lowest score possible when the scales are combined is 20. However, the highest score possible on each scale is 40, and the highest possible score the combined scales is 80. The lower the score means the more motivation students require, and individual items with scores of 1 or 2 require a review to determine what a teacher could learn from that score (Gambrell et al., 2013).

The MRP-R includes a conversational interview with five questions that teachers administer individually to determine students’ self-concept as a reader (Gambrell et al., 2013). Therefore, the scores allow teachers to understand changes that should be made in the classroom to build self-concept and the value of reading to increase reading motivation. Students need to know the purpose of the MRP-R and how the profile will help the teacher to know how to motivate them to read. Teachers will inform students that there are no correct or incorrect answers. Teachers are expected to read the survey aloud to support all students’ reading levels. MRP-R requires a total of about 20-25 minutes. For the current study, the researcher scored the MRP-R. The MRP-R was scored by assigning a score of 1-4 to each answer.

According to Gambrell, Malloy, Marinak, and Mazzoni (2013), “The reliability testing using Cronbach’s alpha revealed an $\alpha = .87$ for the full scale, an $\alpha = .85$ for the value subscale, and an $\alpha = .81$ for the self-concept scale” (p. 275). Since the scale of the survey items are ordinal, to determine the validity, a nonparametric analysis was used to determine the validity by utilizing the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) (Gambrell et al., 2013). Therefore, the RMSEA estimate of .089 was with a confidence interval of .081–.098 and there was a likelihood of RMSEA $\leq .05$ was .000 (Gambrell et al., 2013). Hence, the MRP-R is reliable and valid in acceptable ranges with an internal consistency for value from .82 to .85 and
self-concept from .75 to .81 (Gambell et al., 2013). The MRP-R is a public domain instrument and permission to use instrument was provided.

**Reading Engagement Index (REI)**

The Reading Engagement Index (REI) was created in 2008 by Guthrie and Wigfield to assist teachers to engage readers in the classroom. Hence, the REI was an outcome measure based on the Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction to improve reading engagement and increase reading comprehension. Additionally, the REI instrument was included in previous studies for data collection purpose on reading engagement (Archer et al., 2018; Donovan et al., 2016; Lorimer, 2018). The REI provides researchers information on the behavioral, motivational, and cognitive characteristics of reading to engage readers (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2008).

There are eight characteristics that teachers used to rate individual students. The characteristics for the REI include three characteristics to rate cognitive, one characteristic to rate behavior, and four characteristics to rate motivation (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2008). The REI uses a four-point scale for each statement, and each characteristic is scored by a 1 = not true to 4 = very true. Therefore, each student can obtain a score between 8 to 32. The score of an 8 indicates less engagement and a score of a 32 indicates a higher level of engagement. Teachers rate each student according to the item set of characteristics. Additionally, teachers used approximately 20 minutes to rate students in their class in one session, and teachers provided a score for each student. The higher the rating for each student the more engaged the student. Therefore, the rating provided teachers with the information to determine engagement needs of the students.

The REI had an internal consistency reliability of .92 with a Cronbach alpha of .89 (Guthrie, Klauda, & McRae, 2007). The Reading Engagement Index indicated validity for
assessing engagement achievement based on the Gates-MacGinitie (Barbosa et al., 2008). The REI is an instrument for the purpose of researcher and permission to use the instrument provided.

**Procedures**

Information about securing Institutional Review Board (IRB) was provided (see Appendix A for IRB approval). Since the children’s participation was ex-facto because the instruments were used during instruction, an assent and parental consent were not needed. Additionally, the researcher requested approval for Title I schools in two school districts in the southeastern region of Virginia. The IRB application was reviewed and approved by the dissertation chairperson.

The researcher sent supporting documentation with the IRB application for approval. After the approval of the IRB, the researcher identified and email letters to teachers who teach grades three through five to the schools via email addresses. The letter included details of an explanation for the study and the purpose of the study. There was an explanation about using students’ HMH Reading Inventory® data from teachers’ current students included in the letter. Also, sample questions from the Motivation to Read Profile-Revised survey and Reading Engagement Index will be provided to teachers.

Students were identified from the September’s administration of the HMH Reading Inventory®. Therefore, students who scored a Lexile level below grade-level expectations (520 for grade three, 740 for grade four, and 830 for grade five) qualified for the study. The researcher did not need to obtain approval for assent and parental consent for students to complete the MRP-R survey, since teacher selection will be according to the teachers who use the MRP-R in their instruction. Also, the researcher provided an opt-out form from the school district.
Teachers provided the HMH *Reading Inventory*® from the beginning-of-year administration which was in September. The researcher requested that teachers complete the REI on each of their students who qualify for the study during the administration of the HMH *Reading Inventory*® to avoid losing instructional time or completing an additional task. Also, teachers monitored students as students complete the HMH *Reading Inventory*®. Thus, the REI lasted about 20 minutes for each teacher to complete. The data from the REI was collected and analyzed.

The MRP-R survey allowed teachers to learn about students’ perceptions and self-concept toward reading. Students completed the MRP-R survey, once approved by consent forms. Students took the survey during guided reading or small group reading rotations. The survey took approximately 20 minutes for each student to complete. Students who have the read aloud accommodation completed the reading survey with a peer who read the questions. The guided reading rotations were the most appropriate time because it caused minimal disruptions to instruction.

If students were absent on the day of the survey, then they were to take it the next day or during morning work time which was during homeroom. Teachers were required to complete conversational interviews using scripted prompts with students prior to students taking the survey (Gambrell et al., 2013). The conversational interviews informally provide teachers with data about students’ perceptions of reading and the interviews do not impact the score.

Each section for the conversational interview took about five minutes; therefore, the interview happened during homeroom time to limit the disruptions to instruction, lunch, or recess. To ensure students provided accurate answers and put thought into the answers, students received a reward such as additional technology time, additional recess, positive behavior
intervention support tickets, and/or an edible reward. Students were assigned a number to avoid using students’ names for confidentiality purposes. Additionally, teachers used the same number for student on all three instruments using the data spreadsheet provided by the researcher.

Teachers received the results from the Reading Engagement Index and the Motivation Read Profile survey to use for future implementation support instruction. The teachers returned the students’ completed REI and MRP-R to the researcher, and the researcher analyzed the results of the MRP-R and REI. Thus, the results indicated the needs for students to become motivated and/or engaged in reading. Teachers provided HMH *Reading Inventory*® data from September to determine whether there was a correlation. The school districts determined that the researcher was approved to collect the data from the REI, MRP-R, and HMH *Reading Inventory*®. The data was inputted in Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to determine the correlation of the hypotheses to determine whether reading engagement and motivation correlated to reading outcomes on the HMH *Reading Inventory*®. A report was sent to the schools’ principals. The participants received thank you letters with a small token of appreciation.

**Data Analysis**

For both research questions, the Pearson product-moment correlation was used for the study. Pearson product-moment is appropriate for this study because the researcher seeks to determine the strength of the relationship between paired variables measured on a continuous scale (Warner 2013). Paired variables mean that each participant was scored from each instrument to pair for the correlational analysis.

For research question 1, Pearson product-moment determined the relationship between the continuous variables measured by the Motivation to Read Profile and student’s reading
outcomes, as measured by the HMH Reading Inventory® for each of the three grade levels. For research question 2, Pearson product-moment correlations analyzed the relationship between reading engagement, as measured by the Reading Engagement Index and student’s reading outcomes, as measured by the HMH Reading Inventory® for each of the three grade levels.

**Data Screening and Assumption Tests**

The researcher screened all data sets and screened for missing scores. The data sets used included all three data points for each participant; however, incomplete data sets were discarded. After data screening, the researcher conducted assumption testing. A scatter plot between each pair of variables for each null hypothesis was created. The scatter plots were examined for extreme bivariate outliers to assure that the assumption of no extreme bivariate outliers was tenable for each of the six null hypotheses. Next, the researcher visually inspected the scatter plots to determine if the assumption of linearity is tenable for each of the six null hypotheses. Finally, the researcher examined each scatter plot to evaluate the assumption of bivariate normal distribution looking for the classic “cigar shape” in each of the six scatter plots.

Since six tests of significance were run on the data, a Bonferroni correction needed to guard against a Type I error (Warner, 2013). Instead of the usual significance level of .05, the alpha level for this study was $p < .01$. This value was found by dividing $0.10/6 = .02$ after rounding (Warner, 2013).
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of this quantitative, correlational study. The research questions and null hypotheses open the chapter. The results of all inferential statistics, including data screening and assumption testing, and descriptive statistics are shared.

Research Questions

RQ 1: Is there a relationship between reading engagement as shown by the Reading Engagement Index and student reading outcomes as shown by HMH Reading Inventory® for third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade students who read below grade level?

RQ 2: Is there a relationship between reading motivation as shown by the Motivation to Read Profile and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory® for third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade students who read below grade level?

Hypotheses

The null hypotheses for this study are:

H₀¹: There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading engagement as shown by the Reading Engagement Index and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory® for third grade students who read below grade level.

H₀²: There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading engagement as shown by the Reading Engagement Index and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory® for fourth grade students who read below grade level.

H₀³: There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading engagement as
shown by the Reading Engagement Index and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory® for fifth grade students who read below grade level.

**H₀⁴:** There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading motivation as shown by the Motivation to Read Profile and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory® for third grade students who read below grade level.

**H₀⁵:** There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading motivation as shown by the Motivation to Read Profile and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory® for fourth grade students who read below grade level.

**H₀⁶:** There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading motivation as shown by the Motivation to Read Profile and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory® for fifth grade students who read below grade level.

**Descriptive Statistics**

Data obtained for the variables for HMH Reading Inventory® and the Reading Engagement Index were indicated in the Table 1 for grade three. Additionally, the mean and standard deviation were obtained for the variables for each grade level. Students were chosen because their HMH Reading Inventory® Lexile level was 100 levels below the grade level benchmark of 520-820 for grade three, 740-940 for grade four, and 865-1010 for grade five. There were 66 students for each grade level who were rated by teachers for the Reading Engagement Index. However, students rated themselves on the Motivation to Read Profile-Revised. The data was attained for the variables for the HMH Reading Inventory® and the Motivation to Read Profile-Revised in Table 2 for grade three. In tables 3 and 4, the data was acquired for the HMH Reading Inventory®, Reading Engagement Index, and Motivation to Read
Profile-Revised. Lastly, tables 5 and 6 include the data obtained for the HMH *Reading Inventory®,* Reading Engagement Index, and Motivation to Read Profile-Revised.

**Table 1**

*Grade 3 Descriptive Statistics*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HMH <em>Reading Inventory®</em></td>
<td>239.18</td>
<td>134.548</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Engagement Index</td>
<td>13.58</td>
<td>4.618</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation to Read Profile-Revised</td>
<td>48.82</td>
<td>10.875</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2**

*Grade 4 Descriptive Statistics*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HMH <em>Reading Inventory®</em></td>
<td>418.56</td>
<td>178.09</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Engagement Index</td>
<td>13.66</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation to Read Profile-Revised</td>
<td>51.43</td>
<td>11.49</td>
<td>66</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3**

*Grade 5 Descriptive Statistics*
Results

Null Hypothesis One

Data Screening

Data screening was conducted on the Reading Engagement Index scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores for grade three. The researcher visually screened the data for missing and inaccurate entries. No data errors or inconsistencies were identified; therefore, no data were excluded.

Assumption Testing

Since a Pearson product-moment correlation was used to test null hypothesis one, certain assumption testing is needed. Pearson’s correlation requires that the assumptions of no bivariate outliers, linearity, and bivariate normal distribution are met. To test these assumptions, a scatterplot was created. Examination of the scatterplot shows that the assumptions are tenable (see Figure 1). The assumptions of linearity and bivariate normal distribution were analyzed by using scatterplots for each grade level.

Figure 1

Scatterplot for Reading Engagement Index and Reading Inventory for grade 3.
Pearson Product-Moment Correlation

A Pearson product-moment correlation was run to test the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between 3rd-grade students’ Reading Engagement Index scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores. There was a statistically significant difference and a large, positive correlation between 3rd-grade students’ Reading Engagement Index scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores, $r(64) = .63$, $p = .000$ (see Table 4). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>HMH Reading Inventory®</th>
<th>Reading Engagement Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HMH Reading Inventory®</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Null Hypothesis Two

Data Screening

Data screening was conducted on the Reading Engagement Index scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores for grade four. The researcher visually screened the data for missing and inaccurate entries. No data errors or inconsistencies were identified; therefore, no data were excluded.

Assumption Testing

Since a Pearson product-moment correlation was used to test null hypothesis one, certain assumption testing is needed. Pearson’s correlation requires that the assumptions of no bivariate outliers, linearity, and bivariate normal distribution are met. To test these assumptions, a scatterplot was created. Examination of the scatterplot shows that the assumptions are tenable (see Figure 2). The assumptions of linearity and bivariate normal distribution were analyzed by using scatterplots for each grade level.

Figure 2

Scatterplot for Reading Engagement Index and Reading Inventory for grade 4.
Pearson Product-Moment Correlation

A Pearson product-moment correlation was run to test the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between 4th-grade students’ Reading Engagement Index scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores. There was a statistically significant difference and a large, positive correlation between 4th-grade students’ Reading Engagement Index scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores, \( r(64) = .62, p < .000 \) (see Table 5). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>HMH Reading Inventory®</th>
<th>Reading Engagement Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HMH Reading Inventory®</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Engagement Index</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
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</table>

**Null Hypothesis Three**

**Data Screening**

Data screening was conducted on the Reading Engagement Index scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores for grade five. The researcher visually screened the data for missing and inaccurate entries. No data errors or inconsistencies were identified; therefore, no data were excluded.

**Assumption Testing**

Since a Pearson product-moment correlation was used to test null hypothesis one, certain assumption testing is needed. Pearson’s correlation requires that the assumptions of no bivariate outliers, linearity, and bivariate normal distribution are met. To test these assumptions, a scatterplot was created. Examination of the scatterplot shows that the assumptions are tenable (see Figure 3). The assumptions of linearity and bivariate normal distribution were analyzed by using scatterplots for each grade level.
Figure 3.

Scatterplot for Reading Engagement Index and Reading Inventory for grade 5.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation

A Pearson product-moment correlation was run to test the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between 5th-grade students’ Reading Engagement Index scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores. There was a statistically significant difference and a large, positive correlation between 5th-grade students’ Reading Engagement Index scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores, $r(64) = .58, p < .000$. (see Table 6). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.
Table 6

Correlation Grade Five

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>HMH Reading Inventory®</th>
<th>Reading Engagement Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HMH Reading Inventory®</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Engagement</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index</td>
<td>.575</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Null Hypothesis Four

Data Screening

Data screening was conducted on the Reading Engagement Index scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores for grade three. The researcher visually screened the data for missing and inaccurate entries. No data errors or inconsistencies were identified; therefore, no data were excluded.

Assumption Testing

Since a Pearson product-moment correlation was used to test null hypothesis one, certain assumption testing is needed. Pearson’s correlation requires that the assumptions of no bivariate outliers, linearity, and bivariate normal distribution are met. To test these assumptions, a scatterplot was created. Examination of the scatterplot shows that the assumptions are tenable (see Figure 4). The assumptions of linearity and bivariate normal distribution were analyzed by using scatterplots for each grade level.

Figure 4

Scatterplot for Motivation to Read Profile-Revised and Reading Inventory for grade 3.
A Pearson product-moment correlation was run to test the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between 3rd-grade students’ Motivation to Read Profile scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores. There was a statistically significant difference and a large, positive correlation between 3rd-grade students’ Motivation to Read Profile scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores, \( r(64) = .30, p > .02 \). (see Table 7). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

### Table 7

**Correlation Grade Three**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>HMH Reading Inventory®</th>
<th>Motivation to Read Profile-Revised</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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<td>HMH Reading Inventory®</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
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</table>
Null Hypothesis Five

Data Screening

Data screening was conducted on the Reading Engagement Index scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores for grade four. The researcher visually screened the data for missing and inaccurate entries. No data errors or inconsistencies were identified; therefore, no data were excluded.

Assumption Testing

Since a Pearson product-moment correlation was used to test null hypothesis one, certain assumption testing is needed. Pearson’s correlation requires that the assumptions of no bivariate outliers, linearity, and bivariate normal distribution are met. To test these assumptions, a scatterplot was created. Examination of the scatterplot shows that the assumptions are tenable (see Figure 5). The assumptions of linearity and bivariate normal distribution were analyzed by using scatterplots for each grade level.

Figure 5.

Scatterplot for Motivation to Read Profile-Revised and Reading Inventory for grade 4.
**Pearson Product-Moment Correlation**

A Pearson product-moment correlation was run to test the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between 4th-grade students’ Motivation to Read Profile scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores. There was a statistically significant difference and a large, positive correlation between 4th-grade students’ Motivation to Read Profile scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores, $r(64) = .45, p < .000$. (see Table 8). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.
Table 8

Correlation Grade Four

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>HMH Reading Inventory®</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivational to Read Profile-Revised</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Null Hypothesis Six

Data Screening

Data screening was conducted on the Reading Engagement Index scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores for grade five. The researcher visually screened the data for missing and inaccurate entries. No data errors or inconsistencies were identified; therefore, no data were excluded.

Assumption Testing

Since a Pearson product-moment correlation was used to test null hypothesis one, certain assumption testing is needed. Pearson’s correlation requires that the assumptions of no bivariate outliers, linearity, and bivariate normal distribution are met. To test these assumptions, a scatterplot was created. Examination of the scatterplot shows that the assumptions are tenable (see Figure 6). The assumptions of linearity and bivariate normal distribution were analyzed by using scatterplots for each grade level.

Figure 6

Scatterplot for Motivation to Read Profile Revised and Reading Inventory for grade 5.
A Pearson product-moment correlation was run to test the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between 5th-grade students’ Motivation to Read Profile scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores. There was a statistically significant difference and a large, positive correlation between 5th-grade students’ Motivation to Read Profile scores and HMH Reading Inventory® scores, $r(64) = .32, p > .01$. (see Table 9). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HMH Reading Inventory®</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Motivational to Read Profile-Revised</th>
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<td>HMH Reading Inventory®</td>
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<td>.322</td>
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<tr>
<td>Motivational to Read Profile-Revised</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>0.322</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

The chapter focused on the discussion of each null hypothesis, implications of the current research, limitations of the current study, and recommendations for future research. The meanings and rationales for the findings were included in this chapter and the impact of the current study on future research. Lastly, this section provided possible ideas and suggestions to improve and further the research for the current study.

Discussion

The purpose of this correlational study was to examine the relationship between reading motivation as shown by the Motivation to Read Profile-Revised and reading engagement as shown by the Reading Engagement Index on reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory® in grades three, four, and five for students who are not reading on grade level in Title I elementary schools in the southeastern section of Virginia.

The First Hypothesis

There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading engagement as shown by the Reading Engagement Index and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory® for third grade students who read below grade level. However, the results indicated there was a statistically significant correlation between reading engagement as shown by the Reading Engagement Index and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory® for third grade students who read below grade level. Most students in grade three who HMH Reading Inventory® Lexile level was below 350 possessed lower REI scores.

Moreover, there were some outliers with students with low Lexile levels, but the REI score was high or above 15. As students’ Lexile level increased so did the REI score. Teachers
who scored students in the less-engaged range of 8-16 received the lowest scores on the following statements: “This student works hard in reading. This student is a confident reader. This student uses comprehension strategies well. This student thinks deeply about the content of texts.” The results revealed that students require explicit instruction to comprehend literature, which aligns with current research (Allington, 2011; Dole et al., 2017; Fountas & Pinnell, 2000). Along with current literature, text selections during instruction continue to play an important role with students’ reading achievement. Students build their confidence through independent reading (Armstrong et al., 2018; Dole et al., 2017). Additionally, the social learning theory supports the results for the current study because direct instruction and models increase reading progress that leads to higher achievement (Bandura, 1977). For students to use the comprehension strategies well and think deeply about the text, they require not only direct instruction, but also the gradual release model by Vygotsky (1978). Students benefit from modeling, guided practice, and independent practice to make gains in achievement. Current researched discovered that reading engagement increased on pre and posttests; therefore, reading academic outcomes increased too (Archer et al., 2018).

The Second Hypothesis

There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading engagement as shown by the Reading Engagement Index and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory® for grade four students who read below grade level. Results determined that there is a statistically significant correlation between reading engagement as shown by the Reading Engagement Index and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory® for grade four students who read below grade level. As with students in grade three, teachers have not observed students working hard in reading; therefore, students scored in the less-engaged
range. Since teachers observed that students did not work hard during reading, according to current research, teachers’ enthusiasm and understanding of reading supports the increase of reading achievement (Husband, 2014). Thus, it remains essential for teachers to receive professional development to gain a better understanding to engage students in their learning in reading to increase student engagement (Donovan et al., 2014; Fletcher et al., 2013; and Husband, 2014). Nevertheless, the professional development must benefit teachers, and teachers need to know how the learning will support them to increase the achievement for their students. Additionally, students in grade four were not independently reading nor enjoying the discussion of books with peers. The literature teachers use for instruction impacts the various genres students independently read (Armstrong et al., 2018). Hence, students who often read more demonstrated a higher Lexile level on the HMH Reading Inventory® than students whose Lexile levels were well below grade level. Also, when students are comfortable participating in classroom discussions about literature and sharing the books they are reading, other students become motivated to read (Blake et al., 2014). When the students who are reading below grade level hear their peers who are reading on level discuss the text, the students below grade level may have a desire to connect to the group and become more engaged and motivated to read in order to participate (Bandura, 1977). Thus, the types of literature teachers choose for read-aloud and instruction must allow teachers to display the love of reading to develop student engagement with text (Gambell et al., 2019). Therefore, teachers essentially determined the engagement of the students with reading literature as found in the current study.

**The Third Hypothesis**

There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading engagement as shown by the Reading Engagement Index and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH
Results indicated there was a significant relationship between Reading Engagement Index and HMH Reading Inventory® for students in grade five. Students in grade five scored in the less-engaged range in the areas of reading independently, reading about favorite topics and authors, discussing books with peers, and using reading comprehension strategies. Overall, the students’ mean score in grade five on the Reading Engagement Index was 14.69. Based on Figure 9, students’ reading engagement is low in grade five. As students matriculate through elementary school, the results indicate that students become more disengaged in reading. Hence, recent research found that engagement impacts students reading achievement in grades three through five (Bergin & Whitney, 2018). Current research reveals that reading comprehension becomes more of a focus instead of decoding in upper elementary; therefore, students require more support to improve their reading achievement (Cartwright et al., 2016). Furthermore, students in grade five require systematic reading instruction for the use of reading comprehension strategies.

Because students in grade five were older and more mature than students in grades three and four, grade five teachers must take more time to identify students’ interests, model metacognitive and comprehension strategies and learn to present the lesson in an engaging manner to support student success (Burrowbridge et al., 2015; Dole et al., 2017). Student-teacher relationships were important in all grade levels. However, as students mature, the bond between the student and teacher becomes even more imperative because of the connection to reading achievement. Also, the rich, safe literature discussions using engaging texts support the results for students with a higher Reading Engagement Index and correlate with a higher reading outcome (Armstrong et al., 2018; Blake et al., 2014). In addition to needing rich literature and safe discussions, students benefit from the sociocultural theory as a beneficial component for

**The Fourth Hypothesis**

There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading motivation as shown by the Motivation to Read Profile and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH *Reading Inventory*® for third grade students who read below grade level. The results found there was no significant relationship between Motivation to Read Profile-Revised and HMH *Reading Inventory*® for students in grade three. Mean score for students in grade three on the MRP-R was 48.82. The highest score a student could receive on the MRP-R was an 80. Also, students scored in the low average range which indicates they were motivated to read. The students’ scores revealed that they understand the importance of reading, and they believe in the value of reading.

However, students’ reading outcome on the HMH *Reading Inventory*® did not meet grade level expectations. Research indicated that teachers should determine how to effectively motivate students to read independently (Daoud et al., 2020; Husband 2014). The current study noted that students on the MRP-R enjoy libraries, believe becoming a good reader is important, believe spending time reading is great, and enjoy receiving books as a present. This information, along with the current research, indicate that students recognize the value of reading and possess self-efficacy. Students in grade three believed they are good readers, can figure out words, and answer questions about the text. Therefore, self-efficacy relatively validates the current research. Typically, students who believed in themselves demonstrated higher achievement in reading (Blake et al., 2014; Jonson-Reid & Lee, 2016). The students in grade three possess a high self-efficacy, but the HMH *Reading Inventory*® Lexile level does not indicate students proficiently
read at or above grade level. Another contradiction to the recent research is that students may have the confidence to read, but they do not possess the value of reading (Archer et al., 2018). In the current study, students in grade three understand the value of reading and have the confidence to read.

As a result, students in grade three in the study hold the value and self-efficacy; therefore, educators should analyze the reason(s) students may not have the motivation, or the reasons students did not demonstrate achievement in reading (Bergin & Whitney, 2018). The social learning theory connects the motivation to learning (Bandura, 1977). However, the need for incentives for motivation, whether intrinsic or extrinsic, was not identified, since the current study results provide evidence that students are motivated to read. Unfortunately, students do not meet the grade level expectations for the Lexile level according to HMH Reading Inventory®.

The Fifth Hypothesis

There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading motivation as shown by the Motivation to Read Profile and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory® for fourth grade students who read below grade level. The results from the study indicated that there was a significant relationship between the Motivation to Read Profile-Revised and HMH Reading Inventory® for students in grade four. The HMH Reading Inventory® Lexile levels for students in grade four demonstrated that students with the higher levels, although not proficient, are more motivated. However, the mean score for students in fourth grade was 51.43 on the MRP-R.

MRP-R showed that students were not motivated, and there were significant statements that indicated that students possess a low self-concept for reading. For example, students in
grade four scored low on MRP-R on questions such as (1) how friends perceived their reading, (2) the way they feel when they read aloud, and (3) the difficulty of reading for them. Although the MRP-R noted that students understand the value of reading, students lack the self-efficacy to read. The latest research supports the current study because not only was there a need for students to experience interesting and engaging text, but also, students require text that was not too difficult to read (Burrowridge et al., 2015). If the reading was difficult, then students avoided reading as indicated in current research. Additionally, since students in grade four believe reading was difficult for them, teachers could build students’ self-efficacy and encourage a growth mindset to increase reading achievement (Cho et al., 2018; Dweck, 2006). Students would need to understand that reading may be difficult but not impossible for them (Dweck, 2006). The MRP-R data from grade four indicated that students enjoy when the teacher read aloud, but they do not enjoy reading aloud. Therefore, student-teacher relationships and a safe environment continue to be essential for increasing reading achievement. The latest research demonstrated that the relationships students make with teachers build self-efficacy to increase reading outcomes (Blake et al., 2014; French et al., 2013). Furthermore, the need for safe, comfortable classrooms to encourage students with participating in literature discussions remain important to increase reading outcomes. Once students are safe with discussing the text, then they may begin to feel safe to read aloud (Donovan et al., 2016). To support students to read aloud, teachers need to provide explicit instruction from to their students.

The Sixth Hypothesis

There will be no statistically significant correlation between reading motivation as shown by the Motivation to Read Profile and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory® for fifth grade students who read below grade level. The results for this hypothesis
showed a significant relationship between Motivation to Read Profile-Revised and HMH Reading Inventory® for students in grade five. The students’ mean score is 51.03 which means they scored more than half of the highest score of 80 on the MRP-R. Students in grade five are not motivated to read for a couple of reasons. While students understand the importance of reading and the value of reading, they lack the confidence and self-concept to read and remain motivated to read (Jonson-Reid & Lee, 2016). On the MRP-R students in grade five indicated: (1) reading a book is not something they like, (2) decoding words are difficult, (3) friends do not think they are good readers, (4) reading is not as good as friends, and (5) they do not believe they are good readers.

Current research supports with the study because students require text that is interesting to support students’ motivation to read. Consequently, the teachers’ choice of literature was imperative for students to desire to read and enjoy reading (Armstrong et al., 2018; Rosenzweig & Wigfield, 2017). For students to want to independently read books, students require coherent, relevant, and vivid texts to use during instruction (Dole, Harris, & Springer, 2017). When students find reading to be difficult, especially with decoding words, the instruction that is needed to increase students’ reading achievement should be systematic and explicit. The social learning theory embeds the explicit instruction to support motivation. In addition to explicit instruction, it becomes essential for teachers to use the gradual release model to support students with not only decoding, but also increasing the students’ confidence in reading (Vygotsky, 1978). Students in grade five are in upper elementary, and it was important to glean on their interests to find ways to motivate them to increase reading outcomes.
Implications

This study adds to the professional body of literature since it provides evidence that reading engagement and motivation relates with reading achievement. Additionally, the study provides the current body of literature with (1) the need to focus on types of motivation and engagement, (2) the importance of professional learning, and (3) the need for explicit instruction with the utilization of the gradual release model. Also, the study offers teachers insight for instruction to meet the needs of students. Since there are many districts in the southeastern area of Virginia that administered the HMH Reading Inventory®, the study gives educators support for the continuing the assessment because of the statistical significance for five out of six of the hypotheses. Additionally, the study supports the gap in literature for Title I schools because there are limited studies that are focused on Title I schools.

Limitations

Although this study adds to the existing body of literature, there are some limitations. One limitation is that correlation is not causation, so no causal claims can be made from this study. Also, the results cannot be generalized beyond the Title I population.

This study was conducted during the global pandemic of the novel coronavirus. Students in the southeastern region of Virginia attended school virtually for the first four weeks. Hence, students took the HMH Reading Inventory® at home, in day care centers, in recreation facilities, and other locations that were not in the school building. Even though students were virtually supervised by teachers, and teachers could close applications if students that were not focused on the HMH Reading Inventory®, students in all grades did not receive the quality testing environment that is offered in school. Teachers observed students in order complete the REI upon their return to school, but the building of student-teacher relationships took additional time.
because of the initial virtual learning experience. This may have impacted scores for each student on the REI. Teachers reported there were no irregularities.

While students would benefit from motivation based on the results of the study, the types of motivation, whether extrinsic or intrinsic, were not addressed. The type of motivation needed to improve reading achievement could increase students’ self-concept or self-efficacy. Another limitation for this study is that students in grade three took the HMH Reading Inventory® for the first time after not attending a brick and mortar building for six months due to the school closure because of the global novel coronavirus pandemic. Students in grade three were not familiar with the format of the HMH Reading Inventory®, and they lacked the most strategic manner to skip a question. Students in grade three did not complete a full traditional school year in grade two. This means that students missed important objectives and skills needed to become prepared for grade three because the lessons were emergency learning of necessary skills that required completion for grade two.

**Recommendations for Further Research**

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between reading motivation and reading engagement on reading outcomes in grades three through five for students who are not reading on grade level in Title I elementary schools in the southeast section of Virginia. Thus, the current study provides support for Title I schools to become intentional to motivate and engage students in reading grades three through five. Additionally, to meet the multiple requirements for reading proficiency, the study offers Title I schools research-based strategies that pertain to motivation and engagement to improve all aspects of reading such as decoding, vocabulary understanding, fluency, and comprehension, according to responses from teachers (Allington & Pressley, 2015).
Recommendations for future research:

1. Consider the review for all students who are proficient as well as below proficiency on the HMH Reading Inventory®.

2. Consider a study in grades three through five in Title I schools and non-Title I schools.

3. Determine the type of motivation to support students to increase reading outcomes.

4. Study the three types of engagements to increase reading achievement.

5. Professional learning to equip teachers to teach reading comprehension, choose engaging literature, facilitate rich literature discussions, and foster the love of reading.

6. Professional learning for reading coaches and reading specialists and teachers to use the gradual release model.
REFERENCES


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September 24, 2020

Tashenna Wiggins
Sarah Horne

Re: IRB Application - IRB-FY19-20-312 CORRELATION BETWEEN READING MOTIVATION AND ENGAGEMENT AND STUDENT READING OUTCOMES IN TITLE ONE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Dear Tashenna Wiggins and Sarah Horne,

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board (IRB) has reviewed your application in accordance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations and finds your study does not classify as human subjects research. This means you may begin your research with the data safeguarding methods mentioned in your IRB application.

Decision: No Human Subjects Research

Explanation: Your study is not considered human subjects research for the following reason:

(1) it will not involve the collection of identifiable, private information.

Please note that this decision only applies to your current research application, and any modifications to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty University IRB for verification of continued non-human subjects research status. You may report these changes by completing a modification submission through your Cayuse IRB account.

If you have any questions about this determination or need assistance in determining whether possible modifications to your protocol would change your application's status, please email us at irb@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,

G. Michele Baker, MA, CIP
Administrative Chair of Institutional Research
Research Ethics Office
CONSENT FORM

Correlation Relationship of Motivation and Engagement on Students’ Reading Outcomes
TaShenna R. Wiggins
Liberty University
Educational Leadership/School of Education

You are invited to be in a research study on the correlational relationships to improve reading outcomes for elementary students. You were selected as a possible participant because you are a certified teacher in a Title I school who teaches reading to elementary aged students. Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

TaShenna R. Wiggins, a doctoral candidate in Educational Leadership/School of Education at Liberty University, is conducting this study.

Background Information: The purpose of this correlational design is to research testing the theory of students’ reading outcomes that relate to their reading motivation and reading engagement in grades three through five and students who are not reading on grade level in Title I elementary schools in the Southeast section of Virginia. At this stage in the research the improvement of reading outcomes will be defined as the success and increase of reading based on an assessment. The research questions are as follows: Is there a correlation between reading engagement as shown by the Reading Engagement Index and student reading outcomes as shown by HMH Reading Inventory®? Is there a correlation between reading motivation as shown by the Motivation to Read Profile and student reading outcomes as shown by the HMH Reading Inventory®?

Procedures: If you agree to be in this study, I will ask you to do the following things:

1. Provide a copy of your class HMH Reading Inventory® scores from the spring administration.
2. Complete the Reading Engagement Inventory (REI) on each student in the classroom (about 20 minutes).
3. Students will complete the Motivation to Read Profile Survey (MRPS) during guided/small group reading rotations.

Risks: The risks involved in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you would encounter in everyday life.

Benefits:
Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from taking part in this study.

Benefits to society include students will increase reading outcomes because of their ability to read.
Compensation: Participants will not be compensated for participating in this study.

Confidentiality: The records of this study will be kept private. In any sort of report, I might publish, I will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a subject. Research records will be stored securely, and only the researcher will have access to the records. I may share the data I collect from you for use in future research studies or with other researchers; if I share the data that I collect about you, I will remove any information that could identify you, if applicable, before I share the data.

- Participants will be assigned a pseudonym. I will conduct the interviews in a location where others will not easily overhear the conversation.
- Data will be stored on a password locked computer and may be used in future presentations. After three years, all electronic records will be deleted.
- Interviews will be recorded and transcribed. Recordings will be stored on a password locked computer for three years and then erased. Only the researcher will have access to these recordings.
- The data you provide will not be used for evaluation purpose; however, the researcher will share the strategies from the grade level for reading motivation and engagement with the principal.

Voluntary Nature of the Study: Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time.

How to Withdraw from the Study:

If you choose to withdraw from the study, please contact the researcher at the email address/phone number included in the next paragraph. Should you choose to withdraw, data collected from you, will be destroyed immediately and will not be included in this study.

Contacts and Questions: The researcher conducting this study is TaShenna R. Wiggins. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you are encouraged to contact her at 757-714-1686 and/or trwiggins@liberty.edu. You may also contact the researcher’s faculty chair, Dr. Horne, at sehorne@liberty.edu. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, you are encouraged to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 1887, Lynchburg, VA 24515 or email at irb@liberty.edu.

Please notify the researcher if you would like a copy of this information for your records.

Statement of Consent: I have read and understood the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.
The researcher has my permission to audio-record me as part of my participation in this study.

______________________________  ______________________
Signature of Participant        Date

______________________________  ______________________
Signature of Investigator        Date