

University of New Hampshire

University of New Hampshire Scholars' Repository

Doctoral Dissertations

Student Scholarship

Spring 2019

EMIC VIEWS OF A READING INTERVENTION: A QUALITATIVE CASE STUDY OF MOTIVATION AND ENGAGEMENT

Joy Dangora Erickson

University of New Hampshire, Durham

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholars.unh.edu/dissertation>

Recommended Citation

Erickson, Joy Dangora, "EMIC VIEWS OF A READING INTERVENTION: A QUALITATIVE CASE STUDY OF MOTIVATION AND ENGAGEMENT" (2019). *Doctoral Dissertations*. 2445.

<https://scholars.unh.edu/dissertation/2445>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Student Scholarship at University of New Hampshire Scholars' Repository. It has been accepted for inclusion in Doctoral Dissertations by an authorized administrator of University of New Hampshire Scholars' Repository. For more information, please contact Scholarly.Communication@unh.edu.

EMIC VIEWS OF A READING INTERVENTION:
A QUALITATIVE CASE STUDY OF MOTIVATION AND ENGAGEMENT

BY

JOY DANGORA ERICKSON

BA, Purdue University, 2003

MS, Purdue University, 2008

DISSERTATION

Submitted to the University of New Hampshire

in Partial Fulfillment of

the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Education

May, 2019

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED
© 2019
Joy Dangora Erickson

This dissertation has been examined and approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education by:

Dissertation Chair, Ruth Wharton-McDonald, Associate Professor of Education

Winston Thompson, Assistant Professor of Education

Paula Salvio, Professor of Education

Michael Middleton, Dean of Education

Cami Condie, Assistant Professor of Education

On March 28, 2019

Original approval signatures are on file with the University of New Hampshire Graduate School.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband, Ryan, whose steadfast support and sacrifice has made this scholarly endeavor possible. And to my loving daughter—Gabriella—may you continue to make the world a better place with your beautiful smile, cheerful songs, and brilliant advice. Finally, this dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Susan and William, who have tirelessly supported my tenacious desire to learn and do more since birth.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I could not have completed this journey without the support of an outstanding team of mentors. To my advisor and committee chair, Dr. Ruth Wharton-McDonald, thank you for the countless hours you spent refining research designs with me, co-teaching courses, reading and critiquing my writing, and modeling how to communicate my findings to different audiences. It was my intention for quite some time to learn from you, and you most certainly did not disappoint. To the rest of my committee—Dr. Winston Thompson, Dr. Paula Salvio, Dr. Michael Middleton, and Dr. Cami Condie—thank you for your invaluable feedback throughout this process. This dissertation has benefited tremendously from your thoughtful comments; each unique perspective has served to strengthen related aspects of the work. I will forever be grateful to have learned from each of you. And, to my unofficial committee members, Dr. Todd DeMitchell and Dr. Suzanne Graham—thank you for always listening and offering sound advice.

To my LRA mentor, Dr. Seth Parsons, and my AERA mentor, Dr. Tony Perez, thank you for reading manuscript drafts centering on the conceptual framework, methodology, and/or findings associated with this dissertation and for teaching me how to use the infamous feedback of Reviewer #2 to my advantage. To Dr. Avi Kaplan, thank you for inspiring and supporting my understanding of the ways in which case studies can substantively contribute to theory and practice. To the wonder women who posed as fellow graduate students at the University of New Hampshire, thank you for the communal therapy sessions and for your positivity. Dr. Carla Evans, I will forever consider you a model human and scholar. Beth Fornauf and Melissa Lefebvre, thank you for always making time to talk, run, and collaborate with me. I remain in awe of everything you three have accomplished personally and professionally. Lastly, I thank the UNH graduate school for sponsoring this work through the dissertation year fellowship.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION.....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	xii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xiii
ABSTRACT	xiv
Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
The Prioritization of Achievement Over Motivation.....	3
Challenges in Evaluating Young Children’s Reading Motivation.....	5
Statement of the Problem.....	7
Purpose of the Study.....	7
Research Questions.....	8
Definitions of Key Terms.....	10
Conceptual Framework.....	13
Expectancy-Value Theory: Perceived Benefits and Costs.....	13
Self-Determination Theory: Meeting Psychological Needs.....	16
Behavioral Engagement: A Symptom of Motivation.....	17
Putting it All Together.....	18
Significance of the Study.....	19
Assumptions, Delimitations, and Limitations.....	19
Dissertation Overview.....	22
Chapter 2: Literature Review in Three Parts.....	26
Part IA: Primary Reading Motivation (N=27)	27
Reading Motivation Tends to Decline Across Schooling (n=4).....	28
Reading Achievement and Reading Motivation are Related (n= 7).....	31
Children Can Differentiate Between Constructs and Self-Report Motivation (n=6)....	34
Classroom Factors Influence Reading Motivation (n=10)	37
Limitations.....	43
Part IB: Motivation Studies Examining Cost (N=3)	45

Limitations.....	48
Part II: Children’s Perceptions of School Reading Initiatives (N=7)	48
A Measure Investigating Perceptions of Intervention Acceptability (n=1).....	49
Studies Framed by the New Sociology of Childhood (n=6)	51
Limitations.....	62
Part III: Behavioral Engagement (N=8)	64
Behavioral Engagement and Achievement (n=7)	66
A Kindergarten Engagement Tool (n=1)	70
Limitations.....	71
Summary of Prior Literature and Rationale for Study Design.....	71
Chapter 3: Methodology.....	74
Study Design.....	74
Research Questions.....	77
Setting.....	78
Intervention.....	79
Participants.....	81
Data Collection.....	85
Informal and Formal Observations of Intervention.....	85
Reading Specialist Questionnaire and Follow-Up Interview.....	88
Student Interviews.....	90
Data Analysis.....	96
Phase 1: Transcribing, Video Logging, Reformatting, and Initial Coding.....	97
Phase 2: Categorical Codes, Theoretical Codes, and Matrices	99
Phase 3: Extended Descriptions and Within-Case and Across-Case Thematic Memos	101
Chapter 4: Second-Grade Findings.....	103
Introduction.....	103
Research Questions.....	105
Lizzy.....	105
Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction.....	108
Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention Involvement.....	109
What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs.....	111
How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement.....	112

Henry.....	114
Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction.....	118
Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention Involvement.....	119
What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs.....	120
How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement.....	121
Vivian.....	123
Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction.....	126
Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention Involvement.....	128
What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs.....	129
How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement.....	130
Alyssa.....	131
Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction.....	134
Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention Involvement.....	135
What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs.....	136
How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement.....	137
Summary.....	137
Chapter 5: First-Grade Findings.....	140
Introduction.....	140
Research Questions.....	142
Penelope.....	142
Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction.....	146
Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention Involvement.....	148
What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs.....	149
How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement.....	151
Josh.....	153
Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction.....	156
Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention Involvement.....	157
What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs.....	158
How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement.....	159
Madison.....	160
Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction.....	163
Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention Involvement.....	164

What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs.....	166
How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement.....	167
Agnes.....	168
Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction.....	171
Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention Involvement.....	173
What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs.....	175
How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement.....	175
Summary.....	176
Chapter 6: Kindergarten Findings.....	179
Introduction.....	179
Research Questions.....	181
Jacob.....	181
Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction.....	185
Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention.....	186
What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs.....	187
How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement.....	187
Sadie.....	190
Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction.....	192
Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention.....	193
What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs.....	194
How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement.....	194
Izzy.....	195
Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction.....	198
Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention.....	199
What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs.....	200
How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement.....	201
Hope.....	202
Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction.....	205
Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention.....	206
What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs.....	207
How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement.....	207
Chrissy.....	208

Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction.....	210
Chrissy’s Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention.....	211
What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs.....	213
How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement.....	213
Daniel.....	214
Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction.....	216
Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention.....	217
What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs.....	218
How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement.....	219
Summary.....	221
Chapter 7: Discussion.....	225
Purpose & Overview of the Study.....	225
Summary of Findings.....	229
RQ1.....	229
RQ2.....	230
RQ3.....	232
RQ4.....	234
Limitations.....	236
Implications for Theory and Practice.....	236
Implications for Theory.....	237
An Important Implication for Practice.....	243
The Study’s Methodological Contribution.....	244
The Case Study Design.....	244
The Participatory Interview Approaches.....	247
Future Research.....	248
Recommendations for Future Research.....	249
Conclusion.....	250
REFERENCES.....	254
APPENDICES.....	266
Appendix A Institutional Review Board Approval.....	266
Appendix B Parent Consent Packet.....	267
Appendix C Engagement Questionnaire.....	270

Appendix D Student Drawing Interview Protocol.....	272
Appendix E Student Walking Tour Interview Protocol.....	273
Appendix F Codebook Excerpt.....	274
Appendix G Categorical and Theoretical Codes.....	276
Appendix H Sample Video Log.....	281

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 Second-Grade Participant Information	84
Table 3.2 First-Grade Participant Information.....	84
Table 3.3 Kindergarten Participant Information.....	85
Table 4.1 Second-Grade Participants' Demographics	104
Table 4.2 Overview of Second-Grade Behavioral Engagement Evaluations	113
Table 4.3 Second-Grade Summary Table	138
Table 5.1 First-Grade Participants' Demographics	141
Table 5.2 Overview of First-Grade Behavioral Engagement Evaluations	152
Table 5.3 First-Grade Summary Table	177
Table 6.1 Kindergarten Participants' Demographics.....	180
Table 6.2 Overview of Kindergarten Behavioral Engagement Evaluations.....	189
Table 6.3 Kindergarten Summary Table.....	222

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 Conceptual Framework	19
Figure 4.1 Lizzy’s Intervention Drawing.....	107
Figure 4.2 Lizzy’s Classroom Drawing	107
Figure 4.3 Henry’s Classroom Drawing (left) and Intervention Drawing (right).....	117
Figure 4.4 Vivian’s Classroom Drawing	125
Figure 4.5 Vivian’s Intervention Drawing.....	125
Figure 4.6 Alyssa’s Classroom Drawing	133
Figure 4.7 Alyssa’s Intervention Drawing.....	133
Figure 5.1 Penelope’s Classroom Drawing	145
Figure 5.2 Penelope’s Intervention Drawing	145
Figure 5.3 Josh’s Classroom Drawing.....	155
Figure 5.4 Josh’s Intervention Drawing.....	155
Figure 5.5 Madison’s Classroom Drawing.....	162
Figure 5.6 Madison’s Intervention Drawing.....	162
Figure 5.7 Agnes’s Classroom Drawing.....	170
Figure 5.8 Agnes’s Intervention Drawing	171
Figure 6.1 Jacob’s Classroom Drawing.....	184
Figure 6.2 Jacob’s Intervention Drawing.....	184
Figure 6.3 Sadie’s Classroom Drawing	192
Figure 6.4 Sadie’s Intervention Drawing.....	192
Figure 6.5 Izzy’s Classroom Drawing	197
Figure 6.6 Izzy’s Intervention Drawing.....	197
Figure 6.7 Hope’s Classroom Drawing	204
Figure 6.8 Hope’s Intervention Drawing.....	204
Figure 6.9 Chrissy’s Classroom Drawing.....	209
Figure 6.10 Chrissy’s Intervention Drawing	210
Figure 6.11 Daniel’s Classroom Drawing	215
Figure 6.12 Daniel’s Intervention Drawing.....	215

ABSTRACT

EMIC VIEWS OF A READING INTERVENTION: A QUALITATIVE CASE STUDY OF MOTIVATION AND ENGAGEMENT

by

Joy Dangora Erickson

University of New Hampshire, May, 2019

Although little attention has been paid to primary-age children's reading motivation in comparison to older readers, one disturbing trend has been repeatedly observed: reading motivation generally declines across the early elementary years. Given that children's perceptions of school experiences shape motivation, and motivation impacts achievement, it is imperative that we better understand how school programming intended to promote reading skill development influences younger students' motivation to read within it and beyond it. This dissertation employs a qualitative case study design, an approach rarely used to examine reading motivation, to begin addressing the first concern; a sample (N=14) of kindergarten, first-grade, and second-grade readers' motivation-related perceptions (i.e., benefits and costs) of a pull-out Tier 2 reading intervention are examined. Students' understandings are considered in conjunction with reading specialist and researcher evaluations of their behavioral engagement to pluralistically infer how the program is shaping students' developing motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting. All participants articulated benefits associated with reading intervention involvement, and ten students across the three grades articulated costs associated with their participation. Perceived intervention costs appeared to outweigh perceived benefits for five students; despite recognized benefits of participation, these five students indicated that given

the choice, they would opt to do reading in the classroom rather than do reading in the intervention setting. Furthermore, children's perceived costs tended to align with their basic psychological needs for autonomy and/or competence not being sufficiently met within the intervention; children who preferred the classroom typically desired more control over their learning and/or more support in completing tasks they understood to be challenging. Lastly, results evidenced that adult reports of children's intervention engagement largely aligned with first- and second-grade students' motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting; children who indicated a preference for doing reading in the classroom as opposed to the intervention setting were generally reported by adults to be less engaged in the reading intervention. Adult reports of kindergarten students' engagement were less telling of their instructional preferences. Regardless, students' perceptions offered valuable information about how the reading intervention could be modified to better support their developing motivation—information that might not have surfaced if adult reports of engagement had been relied upon exclusively. In summary, results: a) imply that children's perceived benefits *and* costs of imposed programming should be regularly elicited and sincerely considered *in addition to* adult reports of engagement to gauge the impact of intervention programming on motivation and to make modifications; b) imply that additional research is warranted to better understand students' motivation-related perceptions of intervention programming across contexts and to gauge the impact of programming on children's more universal reading motivation; and c) evidence the promise of the methodological approach utilized in furthering our understanding of young children's reading motivation in context.

Chapter 1: Introduction

“[Researchers] have generally sought to improve student motivation without asking students what sorts of subject matter and what associated teaching methods make sense to them...Even young children have theories about the nature and value of different topics and of how they should be learned” (Nicholls, 1992, p.282).

Research indicates that motivation for reading generally declines across schooling (McKenna, Kear, & Ellsworth, 1995; Wigfield et al., 2015), and at least one empirical investigation (Sperling & Head, 2002) evidenced decline beginning in kindergarten. Though many studies have extensively investigated the reading motivation of older children in a variety of ways and situations (e.g., Ivey & Broaddus, 2001), there is far less nuanced research examining younger readers’ developing motivation (Marinak, Malloy, Gambrell, & Mazzoni, 2015). Furthermore, few studies (e.g., Bates, D’Agostino, Gambrell, & Xu, 2016; Forbes & Fullerton, 2014) have specifically considered how reading intervention efforts aimed at improving foundational skills influence young readers’ motivation, and no empirical work could be found directly investigating young readers’ unconstrained motivation-related perceptions of U.S. reading intervention programs.

This gap in the literature is troubling when considering the profound impact reading motivation has on reading skill development (e.g., Morgan & Fuchs, 2007; Schiefele, Stutz, & Schaffner, 2016) in conjunction with the role students’ perceptions are posited to play in shaping motivation (Chiang, Byrd, & Molin, 2011; Eccles, 2005; Eckert, Hier, Hamsho, & Malandrino, 2017). Motivation is commonly considered “the link between frequent reading and reading

achievement” (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000, p.405); children who enjoy reading tend to read often, becoming more skilled than those less interested (Bates et al., 2016; Marinak et al., 2015; Morgan & Fuchs, 2007; Stanovich, 1986). As such, school reading programs should strive to nurture students’ motivation for reading within them and beyond them, as it is motivation “that will allow children to maintain and possibly increase gains in skills that result from participation” (Quirk & Schwanenflugel, 2004, p.2). Supplemental Tier 2 remedial reading programs, or small-group reading interventions tasked with building the foundational skills of students not on Individualized Education Plans (IEPs) but not meeting grade-level reading expectations, are commonplace in today’s schools (Billen & Allington, 2013). Given that so little is known about the ways in which Tier 2 reading intervention programs influence primary (K-2) children’s motivation for doing reading within them and beyond them, it is imperative that we work harder to elicit and understand young readers’ motivation-related views of such programs. Doing so may shed light on how to better support individual and/or groups of young readers’ motivation within such programs—ensuring students value and enjoy time spent in reading intervention programs seems fundamental to promoting their engagement within them. Furthermore, increased engagement may, in turn, lead to coveted achievement gains.

This qualitative case study (Merriam, 1988) built upon pilot work (Erickson, in press; Erickson & Fornauf, 2017) to take a step toward addressing the gap in the reading motivation literature with specific regard to better understanding young children’s motivation for doing reading within a Tier 2 intervention program. The case study directly investigated young children’s motivation-related perceptions of a single reading intervention program and considered them in conjunction with adult (reading specialist and researcher) evaluations of children’s behavioral engagement in the program. Together, these pluralistic depictions of

students' experiences in the contextualized supplemental reading intervention convey a more nuanced and comprehensive portrayal of each child's understanding of and involvement in the program. From these portrayals, informed inferences about how the intervention shaped students' developing motivation to read within it were made.

In this introductory chapter, I provide general background on the prioritization of reading skill development over motivation in the U.S. and some of the major challenges researchers have faced when evaluating the motivation of young readers. This background information is intended to help explain why a gap in the reading motivation literature specific to young children exists and to situate dissertation design decisions explicated in later chapters. This background section leads into a description of the research problem, the study's purpose, and a statement of the research questions. I then present definitions of key terms to serve as a reference for use throughout the remainder of the dissertation. Next, I present the dissertation's conceptual framework which includes the two major theories of motivation (i.e., expectancy-value theory; self-determination theory) that directly informed the research design and the interpretation of findings. I then discuss the dissertation's significance as well as important assumptions, limitations, and delimitations of the work. I end the introductory chapter by providing an overview of what is included in each of the subsequent chapters.

The Prioritization of Achievement Over Motivation

Reading achievement is commonly perceived to be a significant problem in the U.S.; 2015 National Assessment for Educational Progress (NAEP) scores indicated that just slightly over a third of fourth- and eighth-grade students read at or above a proficient level (The Nation's Report Card, 2015). Further testifying to this understanding are government-backed reform efforts including Reading First (U.S. Department of Education, 2003) and the Individuals with

Disabilities Education Act, or IDEA (U.S. Department of Education, 2015), which aim to rectify achievement gaps and enhance students' reading performance in general. Such efforts, however, are arguably hyper-focused on bringing students up to grade-level reading proficiency by means of endorsing and/or mandating instructional curricula and/or practices that are believed to facilitate progress towards normed benchmarks. At the elementary level, these policies often fall short of staunchly advocating for the cultivation of reading motivation, or students' valuing and enjoyment of reading (Pressley, Billman, Perry, Reffitt, & Reynolds, 2007) and, as such, generally do not require that students' developing motivation be supported and/or monitored as closely (if at all) as their reading achievement. Relatedly, widely-adopted academic standards stemming from standard-based reform policies, such as the Common Core State Standards (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, 2010), dictate what children should be able to do academically at each grade level; these academic standards have been criticized for largely neglecting the cultivation of reading motivation in the elementary years (Shanahan, 2015).

Currently, Response-to-Intervention (RTI) is the common process in the U.S. by which public school students who struggle to meet national, state, and/or district reading benchmarks are identified as needing additional tiered academic support (the higher the tier, the more intense the intervention), assisted and monitored in accordance with IDEA (Billen & Allington, 2013; Little et al., 2012; U.S. Department of Education, 2015). This amplified attention to achievement via the progress-monitoring of reading skills, though well-intentioned and in its own right beneficial, arguably takes focus away from tending to students' developing reading motivation.

In the same vein, the U.S. remains the only United Nations (U.N.) country not to formally ratify Article 12 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) and,

therefore, is not required by international law to survey students' school programming perspectives (Mehta, 2015). It is widely accepted across the globe that even very young children can provide valuable information related to their programmatic likes and dislikes and that affording children such opportunities enhance programs, motivation, and achievement (Lansdown, 2011). In sum, the prioritization of reading achievement over reading motivation in the U.S. does not encourage research specific to the development of reading motivation in younger children and, as such, may be contributing to the paucity of research on the topic.

Challenges in Evaluating Young Children's Reading Motivation

Though motivation scholars maintain that the reading motivation of young children should be examined by educators and researchers alike, reading motivation has yet to be comprehensively studied within this population (Marinak et al., 2015). Furthermore, though a handful of studies (e.g., Bates et al., 2016; Forbes & Fullerton, 2014) have investigated the impact of specific reading intervention programs (e.g., Reading Recovery) on first- and/or second-graders' more universal reading motivation, no similar studies examining the reading motivation of kindergarten students in relation to intervention programming surfaced in a review of the literature. Additionally, no studies specifically probing younger U.S. students' unconstrained motivation-related perceptions of reading intervention programming could be found. This may be in part due to the methodological challenges posed when working with younger children and the related yet unfounded belief that younger children cannot communicate their academic wants and/or needs.

Methodological challenges, often associated with the developmental immaturity of young children (e.g., short attention span, underdeveloped capacity for language) and children's lower position of power in relation to adults, have been highlighted and overcome in a handful of

motivation studies involving young children (e.g., McKenna & Kear, 1990; Measelle, Ablow, Cowan, & Cowan, 1998), though they are less prevalent in the literature. For example, within the *Berkeley Puppet Interview*, Measelle and colleagues (1998) utilized puppets incorporating children's own speaking styles and permitted children to respond to scale items verbally or by pointing to successfully provoke younger students' perceptions specific to their school adjustment. Traditional psychological tools (e.g., surveys) have been found to be less successful in eliciting young students' motivation-related views due primarily to children's developmental characteristics; developmentally-appropriate interviews supported by adult ratings are posited to be a more valid way of examining younger students' motivation (Measelle et al., 1998).

Empirical investigations residing outside of the educational psychology literature base (e.g., Clark & Moss, 2001; Daniels, Kalkman, & McCombs, 2001; Harris, 2015) have successfully overcome methodological challenges associated with eliciting the views of young children by employing participatory research methods; participatory methods encourage children to execute control over the research process. Examples of participatory research techniques include permitting children to operate recording devices and to take the lead during interviews (e.g., student-led walking tour interviews). Participatory approaches also often involve the use of concrete supports (e.g., photographs, puppets, realia) and the rephrasing of interview questions to elicit more accurate understandings from children (O'Reilly & Dogra, 2017). Due to the paucity of academic motivation research involving young children, including research centered on reading motivation, scholars (e.g., Elliott, 2004; Marinak et al., 2015) continue to call for creative and developmentally responsive approaches to studying younger children's developing motivation as a means of advancing the field and improving programming.

Statement of the Problem

Beyond understanding that reading motivation generally declines as students progress through elementary school and that motivation is associated with achievement, little is known about the ways in which specific school reading initiatives influence the developing motivation of young (K-2) struggling readers, and even less is known about how students themselves perceive reading interventions. This is problematic given that students' perceptions of school experiences, including those occurring within academic interventions, are posited to play a major role in shaping their developing motivation (Eccles, 2005; Eckert et al., 2017). Furthermore, empirical evidence (e.g., Morgan & Fuchs, 2007; Morgan, Fuchs, Compton, Cordray & Fuchs, 2008; Quirk & Schwanenflugel, 2004) has demonstrated that supplemental reading interventions primarily designed to target (and found to enhance) young struggling readers' word-recognition skills do not always support students' universal reading motivation (Morgan et al., 2008). In sum, it is problematic that as a society, we appear committed to the promotion of reading achievement, yet we have largely neglected to probe and take seriously young children's motivation-related perceptions of imposed reading programming; *how are we to know how children are perceiving interventions if we do not ask them?*

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this dissertation was to investigate the motivation-related perceptions of kindergarten, first-, and second-graders specific to their involvement in a supplemental RTI (Tier 2) reading intervention program. The study sought to better understand whether and in what ways target children (N=14) enjoyed and/or valued time spent in the reading intervention program. A fundamental assumption of the project is that children who largely dislike and/or fail to see the value of the academic intervention (report low motivation for the program) are less

likely to engage with the intervention and, in turn, reap the academic benefits they might have if they had mainly enjoyed and/or valued the program (e.g., Barron & Hulleman, 2014; Eckert et al., 2017; Quirk & Schawnenflugel, 2004). In line with this assumption, it was expected that students in this study who indicated a preference for doing reading in the classroom (as opposed to the intervention setting) would appear less engaged in the intervention to adults (reading specialists and researchers) than those who preferred reading in the intervention setting.

Research Questions

To infer the impact of the reading intervention on child participants' developing motivation for doing reading within the intervention, this study focuses on four research questions:

RQ1. What, if any, distinction do kindergarten, first-, and second-grade students in the sample make between reading instruction occurring in the reading intervention setting and in the general classroom?

RQ2. What, if anything, do K-2 students enrolled in reading intervention at the Mayflower School (pseudonym) perceive to be the benefits and/or costs of their involvement in reading intervention?

RQ3. What do students' perceived benefits and costs reveal about the ways in which their basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (as defined within the SDT motivation literature) are supported in intervention sessions?

RQ4. In what ways do students' perceptions of intervention align with or differ from reading specialist and researcher perceptions of students' behavioral engagement in intervention?

This dissertation makes use of a qualitative case study design (Merriam, 1988) and mainly ethnographic (e.g., fieldnotes, reading specialist interviews, video observations) and participatory methods (i.e., conversational drawing and walking tour interviews) to investigate the above questions from differing vantage points specific to a sample (N=14) of primary readers involved in a balanced Tier 2 pull-out reading intervention. Specifically, children participated in a conversational drawing interview and a walking tour interview aimed at eliciting their understandings of intervention. Interviews were transcribed and coded in relation to the research questions using a grounded theory approach (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014). Reading specialists rated each child's behavioral engagement numerically in relation to peers and provided qualitative evidence to support ratings in the forms of associated rationales detailed on the questionnaire and verbally in a follow-up interview. Reading specialist interviews were transcribed and analyzed in relation to the research questions (Miles et al., 2014). In addition to fieldnotes detailing children's involvement in the intervention program, two intervention sessions per child were video-recorded and then logged in accordance with the guidelines of Flewitt (2006); logs were used to rate (numerically but supported with qualitative evidence) children's behavioral engagement in relation to peers from the perspective of the researcher. Researcher fieldnotes and qualitative support were coded in relation to the research questions. Together, these varying types of data from three vantage points provided ample opportunities for triangulating findings (Hancock & Algozzine, 2011; Merriam, 1988).

All 39 kindergarten, first- and second-grade children enrolled in intervention and not on language arts IEPs were invited to participate in the study. Of the 39 students invited to participate, 17 returned required paperwork, making them initially eligible for the study. One male first-grade student and one male kindergarten student were placed on IEPs in the middle of

the study, thus disqualifying their involvement. A female kindergarten student exited out of intervention near the beginning of the study, making her ineligible. The final sample was comprised of four males and ten females.

The predominantly white (92%), suburban, middle-class New England public school where the study took place was selected due to my familiarity with the reading intervention program occurring there. Approximately 13% of the student population received free and/or reduced lunch, and roughly 4% were identified as English Language Learners (ELLs; Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2018). The intervention, which was designed by the lead reading specialist and executed by her and another reading specialist, substituted phonological and/or phonics activities from Wilson *Foundations* (e.g., building words, letter keyword sound drill flashcards, letter formation) for the word work component of Fountas and Pinnell's *Leveled Literacy Intervention* (LLI); LLI books were utilized and LLI routines were followed with the exception of the word work portion of the intervention. During the intervention, students typically reread one or more LLI books, did several short *Foundations* activities, began a new LLI book, and drafted written responses to text-based prompts as time allowed. Students identified with benchmark assessments as performing below grade level were assembled into small groups and pulled three or four times per week during classroom reading time for a targeted and balanced intervention session lasting between 20 and 30 minutes. I began acting as a participant observer and taking fieldnotes specific to these sessions in January of 2018. Data collection was completed in June of the same year.

Definitions of Key Terms

Motivation: Motivation has been described as “the whys of behavior; motivation theorists try to understand the choices individuals make about which activity to do or not to do, their degree of

persistence at the chosen activities, and the amount of effort they exert as they do the activity” (Wigfield, 1997, p.14).

Expectancy-Value (E-V) Theory of Motivation: The E-V theory of achievement motivation maintains that choice, persistence, and performance can largely be attributed to an individual’s beliefs about how he or she anticipates doing on a task (“Can I do this task?”) and the value placed on completing it (“Do I want to do this task and why?”). (Wigfield et al., 2015, p.659).

Interest/Intrinsic Value: Interest/intrinsic value is a positive E-V task value component posited to result from a task’s expected enjoyment and/or interest (Wigfield et al., 2015).

Utility Value: Utility value is a positive E-V task value component posited to result from a task’s perceived usefulness (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).

Attainment Value: Attainment value is a positive E-V task value component posited to result when one perceives a task as confirming an aspect(s) of the self (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).

Cost: Cost has traditionally been considered a negative E-V task value component that consists of “all the negative aspects of engaging in the task” (Wigfield & Eccles, 1992, p.280).

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) of Motivation: SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2002) is a macro theory of human motivation positing that basic psychological needs must be satisfied for adaptive types of motivation to occur (Freer & Evans, 2017). SDT posits that instruction must satisfy students’ basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Niemic & Ryan, 2009).

Autonomy: Autonomy is posited to be a basic psychological need for independence within SDT that involves students perceiving themselves to have “a voice and a choice” in classroom activities (Niemic & Ryan, 2009, p.139).

Competence: Competence is posited to be a basic psychological need for proficiency within SDT that involves students perceiving themselves as capable of completing the task at hand; competence is generally nurtured when optimal challenges are coupled with supportive and accurate feedback (Daniels et al., 2001; Niemic & Ryan, 2009).

Relatedness: Relatedness is posited to be a basic psychological need for the development and maintenance of positive connections to others within SDT (Daniels et al., 2001; Niemic & Ryan, 2009)

Behavioral Engagement: Behavioral engagement, though related to motivation, is fundamentally different in that it is at least partially observable via interplay with the learning environment; students’ engaged and/or disengaged behaviors can be considered expressions of underlying motivation (Unrau & Quirk, 2014).

United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC): The UNCRC is “the world’s most comprehensive framework for the protection of children’s rights” conceived by the United Nations in 1989 (Attiah, 2014, p.1). Despite President Clinton signing the treaty in 1995, the United States Congress has yet to ratify the UNCRC.

UNCRC Article 12: UNCRC Article 12 mandates that all children able to communicate opinions on matters directly affecting them are entitled to do so and should “be taken seriously” (Lansdown, 2011, p.1).

Response to Intervention (RTI): RTI is the widely-used process by which U. S. public school students who struggle to meet national, state, and/or district reading benchmarks are identified as needing additional tiered academic support (the higher the tier, the more intense the intervention), assisted and monitored in accordance with federal IDEA law (Billen & Allington, 2013; Little et al., 2012).

Tier 2 Reading Intervention: Within the RTI process, struggling students are identified early via school screening procedures, and, if found to be both significantly behind and already receiving high-quality classroom reading instruction (Tier 1), are provided with a supplemental, more intensive evidence-based program (Tier 2) (Billen & Allington, 2013). Tier 2 intervention is envisioned and enacted by different schools and districts in different ways. Specific to this study, Tier 2 intervention consists of an intensified small-group pull-out balanced literacy intervention; the primary goal of intervention is to help students meet state and district reading benchmarks.

Balanced Literacy Intervention: With regard to this study, the term balanced literacy intervention refers to the program’s purposeful integration of all five of the foundational reading domains emphasized in the National Reading Panel Report (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000) (i.e., phonological/phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, comprehension, and vocabulary).

Foundations: *Foundations* is a multi-sensory, structured, systematic K-3 foundational reading program that complies with RTI guidelines (Wilson Language Training, 2018). Phonemic awareness, phonics, high frequency word, fluency, and letter formation activities from this program were integrated into the reading intervention discussed in the current study.

Leveled Literacy Intervention (LLI): LLI is small-group supplemental literacy intervention program intended to enhance “the literacy achievement of students who are not achieving grade-level expectations in reading;” LLI involves increasing the amount of time students spend actively and successfully reading by providing generally engaging texts at an appropriate level of difficulty (Fountas & Pinnell, 2018, p.1). LLI books were primarily relied upon within the reading intervention program discussed in the current study.

Participatory Research Methods: Participatory research methods (i.e. conversational drawing and walking tour interviews) strive to ensure children play an active role in the research process by integrating modes of communication with which young children are familiar and by permitting them some control over the research process (O’Reilly & Dogra, 2017).

Conceptual Framework

At the heart of the study's conceptual framework is expectancy-value theory; the theory maintains that students' valuing of a specific activity influences their willingness to participate in that activity. This particular theory has been evidenced to be highly relevant to the lived experiences of young readers (e.g., Jacobs, Lanza, Osgood, Eccles, & Wigfield 2002; Wigfield et al., 1997) and, as such, can be considered the conceptual core of the present study. Furthermore, the study examines whether students' valuing of a reading intervention, as indicated by their perceived benefits and costs of involvement, relates to the meeting and/or neglecting of their basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (as they are defined within the self-determination theory literature). If students' perceived benefits and costs relate to one, two, or all three of these needs, as at least one other study has evidenced (i.e., Freer & Evans, 2017), important implications for future research and practice may result. Lastly, the study utilizes adult reports of students' behavioral engagement in the intervention, which can be considered symptomatic of learners' underlying motivation for doing reading in the intervention, to strengthen conclusions drawn from children's motivation-related perceptions. These three elements of the conceptual framework (expectancy-value theory, self-determination theory, and behavioral engagement) are explicated in greater detail below.

Expectancy-Value Theory: Perceived Benefits and Costs

The Expectancy-Value (E-V) model of achievement motivation has been championed for its "ability to synthesize multiple theoretical perspectives, capture the key components of what motivates an individual, and explain a wide range of achievement-related behaviors" (Barron & Hulleman, 2014, p.503). E-V theory maintains that choice, persistence, and performance can largely be attributed to an individual's beliefs about how he or she anticipates doing on a task

(i.e., “Can I do this task?”) and the value placed on completing it (i.e., “Do I want to do this task and why?”) (Wigfield et al., 2015, p.659). Central to the model is the assumption that learners’ perceptions of school experiences contribute to their valuing of academic activities (Chiang et al., 2011; Eccles, 2005). From this perspective, children’s valuing of reading intervention influences their motivation for seeking out and engaging in tasks occurring in the intervention setting as well as perceived similar tasks outside of it.

Primary-age children have been evidenced to distinguish between expectancies for success and task values (e.g., Eccles et al., 1993). However, expectancies for success among younger children (ages 2-8) from Western industrialized countries have generally been found to be overly optimistic and, as such, less informative (Wigfield et al., 2015). Furthermore, children’s subjective task values have been shown to be especially strong predictors of choice both in the short and long term (Durik, Vida, & Eccles, 2006; Wigfield et al., 2015). In light of these understandings, this dissertation focused specifically on the task value components of the E-V model. The three positive E-V task value subcomponents, or subtypes, of perceived participatory benefits outlined in E-V theory include: 1) *intrinsic value*, or value stemming from expected task enjoyment/interest; 2) *utility value*, or value attributed to the task’s perceived usefulness; and 3) *attainment value*, or value due to the task confirming an aspect(s) of the self (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). E-V theorists posit that individuals generally choose to participate in tasks that they value highly and evade tasks they perceive as having little to no personal value (Wigfield & Eccles, 1992).

Cost, traditionally defined as “all the negative aspects of engaging in the task,” (Wigfield & Eccles, 1992, p.280), or what an individual perceives she or he must sacrifice to engage in an activity, is a fourth E-V task value subcomponent that has recently received attention for being

largely neglected in research (e.g., Flake, Barron, Hulleman, McCoach, & Welsh, 2015). Cost is posited to include the subdimensions of *opportunity cost*, *emotional/psychological cost*, and *effort cost* (Flake et al., 2015). E-V theorists (e.g., Eccles et al., 1983; Flake et al., 2015; Wigfield & Eccles, 1992) maintain that the overall value one associates with a task depends in part on the perceived drawbacks associated with participation in the activity, and they have recommended that research begin investigating whether students perceive there to be specific barriers discouraging them from engaging in specific academic activities.

Though few studies have directly examined learners' perceived costs (for exceptions, see Battle & Wigfield, 2003; Perez, Cromley, & Kaplan, 2014), those that have identified cost as a key contributor to student motivation (Flake et al., 2015). Studies specific to reading motivation in elementary-aged children have largely neglected to investigate cost. This is disconcerting when considering foundational E-V assumptions in conjunction with the above findings; if students perceive the costs of a task or activity to be too high, task avoidance and/or devaluing may result (Eccles et al., 1983). In thinking specifically of reading intervention programs designed to enhance foundational skills, it is disheartening to imagine that students who perceive participation to be too costly may avoid reading tasks, both during intervention sessions and within other environments that appear similar. From this standpoint, investigation into and careful examination of students' perceived costs in relation to imposed reading intervention involvement is warranted; students' perceived programmatic advantages and disadvantages should be elicited and taken seriously. In line with this rationale, the current study sought to better understand what if anything, K-2 students in the sample understood to be the benefits *and* costs of their reading intervention involvement, as well as the saliency of such perceptions in determining whether students would attend reading intervention if permitted the choice.

Self-Determination Theory: Meeting Psychological Needs

Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Ryan & Deci, 2002), a humanistic psychological theory of motivation, is primarily concerned with supporting children's academic growth, overall "well-being," and "interest in learning" (Ryan & Weinstein, 2009, p.225). SDT has traditionally distinguished between motivation types with regard to "the extent to which behaviour originates from the self" (Guay et al., 2010, p.712). Autonomous forms, or more internally-regulated forms in which a task's perceived value typically plays an important role, have been shown to lead to more favorable school outcomes, including higher achievement (e.g., Guay et al., 2010).

SDT maintains and research supports (for a review see Niemiec & Ryan, 2009) that classroom environments that satisfy students' basic psychological needs for *autonomy*, *competence*, and *relatedness* promote adaptive forms of motivation. Autonomy-supportive instruction maximizes "students' perceptions of having a voice and a choice" in classroom activities (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009, p.139). This type of instruction nurtures students' need to feel competent when optimal challenges are coupled with supportive and accurate feedback (Daniels et al., 2001; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). Lastly, students' motivation is fostered when positive connections to others are maintained (Daniels et al., 2001; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). In sum, SDT posits that school environments influence children's reading motivation.

In line with the theorizing of Eccles (2009), Freer and Evans (2017) found that the meeting of students' basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness largely explained their valuing (as defined and conceptualized by E-V theory) of academic subject matter. Pilot findings (Erickson, in press) similarly indicated that the costs and benefits students associated with a summer guided reading intervention often aligned with the meeting and/or neglecting of SDT's basic psychological needs. For example, one student described

feedback he received from the teacher during intervention sessions as an aspect of the program he especially valued. This understanding aligns with the student's need to develop and demonstrate competence. Another student articulated that not being able to choose his own books during intervention time led him to not want to participate in intervention in the future. This understanding suggests the student's need for autonomy was not being satisfied within the intervention. In sum, the SDT basic psychological needs framework adds depth to the current study by suggesting *why* students might value and/or not value reading intervention.

Behavioral Engagement: A Symptom of Motivation

Behavioral engagement, though associated with motivation, is fundamentally different, as it is at least partially observable via learners' interplay with the learning environment; students' engaged and/or disengaged behaviors can be considered expressions of their underlying motivation (Unrau & Quirk, 2014). Put another way, behavioral engagement is relevant to the current study because it is a visible symptom of underlying motivation. Furthermore, like motivation, behavioral engagement has been shown to be predictive of reading achievement (Guo, Sun, Breit-Smith, Morrison, & Connor, 2015). Behavioral constructs such as involvement, attention, and self-reliance have been observed and reported by educators and researchers alike as a means of gauging students' immersion in various learning situations (Guo et al., 2015; Unrau & Quirk, 2014).

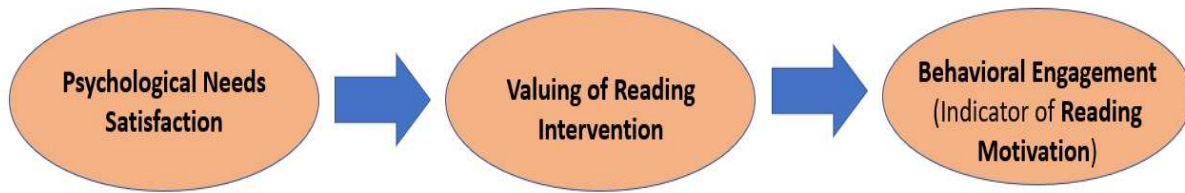
Within the current study, the reading specialist and researcher observed, documented, and rated target children's overall behavioral engagement in intervention as well as each child's effort, independence, active involvement, attention, enthusiasm, and disruptive behavior relative to other intervention students. Items from two previously validated engagement tools were adapted and combined to accomplish this. Specifically, the general formatting and four

behavioral engagement items from Clarke, Power, Blomhoffman, Dwyer, Kelleher, and Novak's (2004) five-item *Kindergarten Reading Engagement Scale* (KRES) were adapted along with three other items from Ponitz, Rimm-Kaufman, Grimm, and Curby's (2009) previously validated *Observed Child Engagement Scale* (OCES) to represent a more complete range of behavioral engagement indicators within a Likert-style response questionnaire. The questionnaire also required the reporter to supply an associated rationale beneath each rating. Adult evaluations of students' behavioral engagement were used to confirm and/or question students' perceptions of intervention, thus strengthening the validity of the dissertation's conclusions and implications.

Putting it All Together

As Figure 1.1. illustrates, the current study probed child participants' valuing of reading intervention and compared their understandings to adult evaluations of students' behavioral engagement to infer how the intervention was shaping students' motivation to read within the intervention. In addition to analyzing students' perceptions through an E-V lens, perceptions were further considered in light of SDT's basic psychological needs framework in an attempt to more deeply understand why students might value and/or not value aspects of the reading intervention. Deeper analysis permitted the making of recommendations to better support the reading motivation of students in the sample; this analysis also holds implications for future research aimed at better supporting the motivation of young students involved in Tier 2 reading intervention programs.

Figure 1.1 Conceptual Framework



Significance of the Study

This dissertation makes three key contributions to the field of reading motivation with regard to *young children*. First, rich qualitative data yield individual students' contextualized perceptions of a reading intervention and provide a sense of how the program shaped each child's motivation for doing reading in the intervention. Second, findings contribute to the E-V literature by evidencing the extent to which and in what ways young child participants articulated benefits and costs of a supplementary pull-out reading intervention program and by relaying how these perceptions combined to influence each reader's motivation for the intervention. Thirdly, valuable methodological insights pertaining to the elicitation of young children's motivation-related perceptions are discussed.

Assumptions, Delimitations, and Limitations

Three major assumptions, all of which are grounded in empirical and/or theoretical literature, reside in the current study. First, as mentioned previously, it is posited that students who largely do not value and/or enjoy time spent in the specific academic intervention are less likely to reap the positive motivational and, in turn, achievement gains they might have had they valued the program. This assumption, though not directly tested with regard to young children experiencing the reading intervention described in this study, is supported by related empirical

evidence and a strong theoretical rationale. For example, Eckert and colleagues (2017) found that third-grade students who reported generally enjoying a writing intervention (higher motivation for the intervention) performed better on associated post-intervention achievement measures than students who held a less favorable view. Furthermore, as previously discussed, E-V theory maintains that students' school experiences influence their developing motivation, and motivation is positively associated with achievement (Eccles et al., 1983; Wigfield, 1997; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).

Second, this dissertation assumes that children's perceptions, as opposed to objective reality, shape motivation. This assumption stems directly from the motivation and engagement literatures (e.g., Eccles et al., 1983; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). Kaplan, Middleton, Urdan, and Midgley (2002) captured the essence of this assumption when they suggested learners' "motivation and performance probably depends more on how students perceive the various policies and practices in the school or classroom than on the objective reality of the policies or practices themselves" (p.25). For this reason, students' perceptions of reading intervention were of prime importance to this study.

A third assumption of the dissertation maintains that if we *can* elicit students' unique perceptions of school programming, then we *should* elicit these perceptions and sincerely consider them in the design and modification of imposed programming. First, in line with the rationale articulated in UNCRC Article 12, the dissertation maintains that children have a right to communicate their opinions about schooling and "be taken seriously" (Lansdown, 2011, p.1). Second, because understanding children's unique motivation-related perceptions of imposed programming might better enable adults to more adequately support children's motivation for and engagement in said programming, it is assumed that we should both elicit and sincerely

consider children's perceptions when designing and/or modifying programs. Given that higher levels of academic motivation and engagement have been generally shown to promote achievement (for reviews see Wigfield, 1997; Wigfield et al., 2015), it is reasonable to strive to maximize students' motivation for and engagement in all academic interventions intending to promote achievement; students' own perceptions may prove crucial to enhancing their motivation and engagement and, in turn, their achievement specific to these interventions.

Furthermore, quantitative pre- and post-measures of overall reading motivation (e.g., reading motivation scales/surveys) were not attempted for two important reasons. First, it was students' perceptions of the specific intervention that were of utmost interest to the current study rather than change in overall reading motivation per se. Put another way, my primary intention was to learn more about what individual students believed to be working (i.e., benefits) and/or not working (i.e., costs) for them within the given reading intervention and how these perceptions contributed to their motivation for reading in the intervention setting. Additionally, existing self-report measures of reading motivation, which are especially scarce and limited with respect to being valid and reliable indicators of kindergarten reading motivation (Marinak et al., 2015), do not readily lend themselves to identifying the cause(s) of motivational change. Numerous other school and home variables (e.g., classroom instruction, extracurricular reading experiences, additional school reading intervention programming) could be the root cause of observed motivational change; this study was primarily concerned with how the specific reading intervention was shaping students' motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting. As such, it is impossible to proclaim how the program impacted each child's more universal, overall reading motivation across contexts.

As a final delimitation, this study intentionally focused specifically on the value component of E-V theory, due to the understanding that young children's expectancies for success tend to be inflated (Wigfield et al., 2015). As such, findings from the present study contribute to E-V theory with regard to the subjective task value component of the model, which has been shown time and time again (for a review see Wigfield et al., 2015) to be a strong predictor of choice. Specifically, the reported saliency of young participants' perceived intervention costs in relation to their willingness to participate in the reading intervention serves to directly inform E-V theory.

Lastly, although sound inferences can be made from the pluralistic data collected regarding how the reading intervention program shaped child participants' motivation for doing reading within it, the dissertation did not attempt to study students' reading motivation writ large. Therefore, findings from the present study should be interpreted with caution by readers striving to make comparisons and/or generalizations; the small sample size and the highly contextualized nature of the study (i.e., specific reading intervention occurring in a predominantly white, middle-class area) substantially limit generalizability (Creswell, 1994).

Dissertation Overview

In this chapter, I have highlighted the general role motivation to read plays in influencing achievement and argued that motivation has historically and erroneously been positioned below achievement with regard to U.S. policy (e.g., failure to ratify UNCRC) and educational reform efforts (e.g., Reading First, Common Core Standards). Furthermore, I have drawn attention to the methodological challenges associated with studying young children's developing motivation to read and suggest these challenges combined with the prioritization of achievement over motivation have likely contributed to the lack of empirical attention paid to young children's

developing reading motivation. It is from these understandings that the current study was carefully designed and conducted. Within this chapter, I have also stated the dissertation's central purpose, listed the four research questions, highlighted the methodologic design, provided a set of key terms with definitions, and explained the undergirding conceptional framework. Finally, the study's significance, assumptions, delimitations, and limitations were discussed.

In Chapter 2, I review a substantive systematic sample of the empirical literature specific to young children's reading motivation and engagement. Additionally, I review a systematic sample of literature framed by the new sociology of childhood to highlight the methodological approaches these studies have successfully employed to elicit young students' views. Strengths and limitations of each body of literature is discussed, and I offer a rationale for combining design aspects from each body to better serve the overarching goal of the current project.

In Chapter 3, I review the study's purpose and research questions before presenting detailed information about the context and participants. Next, I explain the research tools, procedures, and analytic approach. Specifically, I explain why a qualitative case study design suited answering the research questions and how ethnographic and participatory methods complemented the study design. I relay, step by step, how and why I selected the research site and participants, organized data collection, and analyzed the data.

In Chapters 4, 5, and 6, I present findings specific to each of the study's three subcases (i.e., second-grade, first-grade, and kindergarten). After briefly introducing each child participant to the reader, I answer each research question specific to each child; a summary of grade-specific findings can be found at the end of each chapter. Overall, children generally offered both benefits (e.g., the quiet of the intervention room, access to the teacher, availability of books) and costs (e.g., lack of perceived autonomy, text difficulty) associated with their intervention

participation. Benefits often aligned with established E-V task value subcomponents (e.g., interest value, utility value). Similarly, students' articulated costs typically aligned with cost constructs discussed in the E-V literature (e.g., opportunity cost, effort cost). Five participants indicated a preference for doing reading outside of the intervention setting; for these five participants, the saliency of perceived costs in determining their motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting was apparent. Furthermore, students' perceived benefits and costs of intervention could be at least partially explained by the meeting or neglecting of their basic psychological needs. For example, students' declaration that they valued intervention because they received help with their reading from the reading specialist suggests this aspect of intervention supported their need to feel competent within the intervention. Lastly adult reports of students' behavioral engagement largely foreshadowed first- and second-grade participants' preferences for doing reading in the intervention room or classroom. Adult reports were less supportive of kindergarten participants' preferences; the child rated most engaged by adults indicated a clear preference for doing reading in her classroom. Regardless, adult and child reports together permitted a clearer understanding of how the program shaped child participants' motivation for doing reading within the intervention.

In Chapter 7, I conclude that findings provide evidence of the potential salient impact of children's perceived costs of intervention on their motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting. Additionally, I discuss limitations of this study as well as implications for motivation theory, practice, and research. Specifically, I argue that results indicate a clear need for educators and researchers alike to regularly probe young children's motivation-related perceptions of imposed academic interventions and modify programming accordingly. Furthermore, I maintain that additional research is desperately needed to realize both the general

and highly contextualized short- and long-term effects of reading interventions on children's reading motivation.

Chapter 2: Literature Review in Three Parts

In Chapter 1, the research problem, research questions, and conceptual framework for this dissertation were presented. Recall that the overarching goal of this study is to better understand individual kindergarten, first-, and second-grade students' motivation-related perceptions of a specific reading intervention program as a means of inferring how the program shaped students' developing motivation to read within it. As such, this literature review first focuses in Part 1A on what is known about the reading motivation of young children and underscores how little is known about the ways in which imposed reading interventions impact reading motivation within them and beyond them. The relevance of E-V theory to the lived experiences of young readers is highlighted and utilized to justify its inclusion as the central piece of the conceptual framework; however, the studies reviewed here that make use of E-V theory have largely neglected to examine the construct of cost. As such, several studies examining students' perceived costs of physical activity are included in Part 1B to: a) evidence the role cost can play in influencing motivation; and b) relay how others have examined the construct qualitatively.

In Part 2, the review shifts focus to a systematic sample of literature mainly framed by the new sociology of childhood to: a) call attention to these researchers' successes in eliciting the views of young children specific to literacy programming; and b) highlight and connect to this dissertation some of the participatory methods relied upon to elicit those understandings. A major critique of this body of literature is also explicated: these researchers often refer to traditional motivation constructs without tethering them to their place of origin (the educational psychology literature) or explaining how children's perceptions of academic programming relate

to motivation and, in turn, achievement. Consequently, an argument is offered for combing relevant aspects of both literatures (i.e., eliciting via participatory approaches children's unconstrained motivation-related perceptions of programming and considering them in conjunction with well-established theories of motivation) to study young children's reading motivation in context. Lastly, as it was my intention to compare students' reports of their motivation to read within the intervention setting with adult reports of their behavioral engagement, a systematic sample of the behavioral engagement literature is synthesized; connections to the motivation literature are made explicit in Part 3 of the review. Together these three distinct parts of the literature review work in tandem to inform the present study.

Part IA: Primary Reading Motivation (N=27)

In alignment with the study's overarching goal, Part 1 of the review of relevant literature examined a systematic sample of research specific to K-2 students' reading motivation in order to gain familiarity with work previously completed in this area. Motivation has been described as dealing with "the whys of behavior; motivation theorists try to understand the choices individuals make about which activity to do or not to do, their degree of persistence at the chosen activities, and the amount of effort they exert as they do the activity" (Wigfield, 1997, p.14). Motivation is posited to be a complex multidimensional concept, and as such is typically studied via related constructs that fall under specific theories of motivation (e.g., expectancy-value theory, self-determination theory, etc.). The specific goals of this portion of the review were to uncover what is generally known about young children's reading motivation, what is known about the ways in which Tier 2 reading interventions shape young children's reading motivation within them and beyond them, and to decide upon a core theory of motivation to inform the present study.

Within this first phase of the literature review, several searches were conducted through the University of New Hampshire's central EBSCOhost database (which consisted of 15 databases in total when the search was conducted). Search terms and combinations included: 1) "reading motivation" + "kindergarten," 2) "reading motivation" + "first-grade," 3) "reading motivation" + "second-grade" and 4) "reading motivation" + "young children." Peer-reviewed, empirical studies that directly prioritized the investigation of reading motivation specific to kindergarten through second-grade children residing in predominantly English-speaking countries were included for review. Studies that focused primarily on the role of non-school factors in relation to primary reading motivation were eliminated to provide an overview of what is generally known about primary reading motivation with respect to formal schooling as well as how the reading motivation of younger students has been studied. The reference lists of articles that met the above criteria were also consulted; through this method, highly relevant investigations (studies with important findings related to the present study) missed by the original search were included in the review. This initial search resulted in an in-depth examination of 27 total studies centering on primary-grade students' reading motivation within the first phase of the systematic review of literature.

Reading Motivation Tends to Decline Across Schooling (n=4)

One theme that surfaced in reviewing the literature was that students' motivation for and attitudes toward reading generally decrease over the elementary years (Wigfield et al., 2015). In a seminal study framed by expectancy-value theory, Wigfield and colleagues (1997) utilized a cohort-sequential longitudinal design to investigate mean-level change in elementary students' (N = 615 children) competence beliefs and valuing (interest, usefulness, importance) specific to reading. The researchers did not investigate students' perceived costs of reading, despite cost

being a theorized task value subdimension of the expectancy-value model of motivation. Upon analyzing a questionnaire administered each spring for three consecutive years, researchers found that learners' competence beliefs as well as their perceived interest, usefulness, and importance of reading declined significantly in two out of three elementary cohorts; reading motivation declined from first- to third-grade in cohort one and from second- to fourth-grade in cohort two. Furthermore, first-grade children's competence beliefs were found to be positively related to their interest (intrinsic value) in reading. Gender differences in competence beliefs and task values (girls generally viewed reading more favorably and themselves as more capable than boys) did not significantly change over time.

Jacobs et al. (2002) extended this study by utilizing Hierarchical Linear Modeling to examine the changes in children's competence beliefs and subjective task values (cost was not examined) specific to language arts over time. Jacobs and colleagues (2002) found that students' perceptions of competence and subjective task values declined in both boys and girls (N=761) from first-grade through middle school and that boys' competence and task values declined at a faster rate. Furthermore, although girls' valuing of reading (controlling for competence) began to rebound in high school, boys' valuing did not. Lastly, the researchers, though recognizing the possibility of a bidirectional relationship, maintained that individuals' competence beliefs were "strongly associated with their entire pattern of task values over time," in that they found perceptions of competence to explain substantial portions of variance in stable individuals' differences in subjective task values at multiple timepoints (p.520). That said, about half of such variance was not explained by competence beliefs, suggesting perceptions of competence were not entirely responsible for learners' declining subjective task values. Furthermore, of direct importance to this dissertation, the researchers found both boys' and girls' competence beliefs in

first grade to be on average relatively high and not significantly different; however, their valuing of reading did differ significantly at this age (girls valued reading more than boys on average).

McKenna and colleagues (1995) chose specifically to isolate and investigate the academic and recreational attitudes children held towards reading over time. Attitude has been defined “as ‘*a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object*’” (Fishbein & Ajzen as cited in McKenna et al., p. 934). Attitude is typically considered a multidimensional construct with dimensions such as attitudes toward home reading and school reading commonly explored in the literature. The greater the number of dimensions examined, the greater the tendency for overlap, leading some scholars to also investigate a more global conception of reading attitude (McKenna et al., 1995). The researchers’ sample consisted of 18,185 U.S. children spanning grades one through six. Two pictorial rating subscales captured students’ reading attitudes specific to school and recreation. Major findings included 1) a decline in both recreational and academic attitudes toward reading over time; 2) a positive relationship between recreational reading attitudes and reading ability; and 3) a general pattern of girls responding more positively to reading than boys.

Extending this work to kindergarten children with a similar pictorial scale, Sperling and Head (2002) found kindergarten students’ overall attitudes toward reading to decline slightly over the course of the year. These studies, which include primary-aged children, align with the larger body of literature (for a review see Wigfield et al., 2015) suggesting reading motivation generally decays across elementary school. More investigations are desperately needed to determine if motivation does in fact generally decline soon after school entry and, more specifically, for whom, at what rate(s), and under what circumstances.

It is certainly plausible that school programming contributes to the general decline in reading motivation observed across the elementary years. Given the regularity with which Tier 2 reading intervention programs occur in schools across the United States, it makes sense to explore how these programs support young readers' motivation for doing reading within them and beyond them. Additionally, two of the four studies relayed above suggest E-V theory is relevant to the lived experiences of young readers and, as such, offers a viable lens through which to view the current undertaking specific to students' motivation to read in the intervention context.

Reading Achievement and Reading Motivation are Related (n= 7)

A second theme that emerged from the review of the motivation literature is the relationship between motivation and achievement. In their review of the literature, Morgan and Fuchs (2007) analyzed 15 studies to determine whether a bidirectional relationship exists between young children's reading motivation and reading skill. They found there to be a moderate correlation between the two, concluding that findings "support the possibility" of such a relationship (Morgan and Fuchs, 2007, p.165). In addition to this wider inquiry into the relationship between young children's reading motivation and achievement, six individual studies surfaced.

First, Chapman and Tunmer (1995) concluded with an experimental design that child participants' perceptions of difficulty specific to reading as early as five years old were significantly correlated with achievement. In a longitudinal study published two years later, Chapman and Tunmer (1997) built upon their prior work by investigating the "causal interplay" of the reading self-concept and reading performance of 112 five-year-old children (p.279). Reading self-concept was defined as "the combination of three interrelated components: (1)

perceptions of competence in performing reading tasks; (2) perceptions that reading activities are generally either easy or difficult; and (3) attitudes felt towards reading” (Chapman & Tunmer, 1997, p.280). The researchers (as they had in the previous study) utilized their own *Reading Self-Concept Scale* (RSCS) in which children were asked questions such as, “Are you a good reader?” and were provided with five possible responses ranging from “Yes, always” to “No, Never” (Chapman & Tunmer, 1997, p.282). Path analyses revealed that reading achievement in the second year (first grade) of schooling predicted reading self-concept in the third year (second grade) of schooling; achievement appeared to influence motivation in the sample.

Broussard and Garrison (2004) found that mastery motivation (curiosity, independent mastery, preference for challenge), which is considered largely indicative of intrinsic motivation, was related to higher reading grades in first- and third-graders. Specifically, 120 first-grade students and 129 third-grade students in the southern U.S. were assessed using Harter’s (1980, 1981) *Scale of Intrinsic Versus Extrinsic Motivational Orientation in the Classroom*. Regression analyses found mastery motivation to be a significant predictor of reading grades for both first- and third-grade students and judgement motivation (independent judgement and criteria for success and failure) to be predictive of third-grade reading grades; these findings suggest reading motivation may influence reading achievement in young children.

Quirk, Schwanenflugel, and Webb (2009) provided additional evidence of a bidirectional relationship between young children’s reading motivation and achievement. Latent-variable path analysis was used to analyze data stemming from 185 second-grade children specific to reading fluency and reading self-concept. At all three time points within the longitudinal study, “reading self-concept was significantly related to reading fluency” (Quirk et al., 2009, p.196). The researchers concluded that attempts to remediate early reading difficulties should promote

students' motivation for reading in addition to skill proficiency. Also relevant to this dissertation was the study's failed attempt to investigate the relationship between E-V subjective task value and fluency achievement; though they intended to do so, scale reliability issues forced the researchers to drop all task value items. Quirk and colleagues posited that social desirability led to restricted variance in students' self-reports; great care must be taken to employ traditional survey methods in developmentally sensitive ways when working with younger children.

Two studies dealing specifically with struggling readers. With specific regard to younger readers (ages six to eight) identified as "at risk" for reading failure (N=229), Fives et al. (2014) found attitude towards reading in class (liking versus disliking) to be positively associated with achievement specific to measures of vocabulary and phonemic awareness. In contrast, the researchers found students' reports of perceived competence to be negatively associated with single-word reading and spelling. These results suggest younger, lower-performing readers' self-reports of liking reading at school may be more closely associated with their achievement than self-reported beliefs about their reading competence.

A pretest–posttest control group design with random assignment conducted by Morgan et al. (2008) found mixed results when looking for a relationship between reading achievement and motivation. Although Fuchs and colleagues concluded that first-grade struggling readers' achievement covaried with reading motivation (as measured by student reports of reading self-concept and teacher reports of intrinsic motivation and task orientation), they also found that effective tutoring (instruction that led to significant skill improvement) did not generally result in significant increases in reading self-concept, intrinsic motivation, or task orientation. Fuchs and colleagues conceded that the small sample size and brevity of the intervention may have

influenced findings. However, they underscored the importance of addressing struggling readers' low reading motivation directly within reading intervention programs.

In sum, collective findings generally support the existence of a bidirectional relationship between reading achievement and motivation. Specifically, young students' reading self-concept (i.e., perceived competence, difficulty, and attitudes towards reading) and intrinsic motivation appear to influence achievement, while achievement also appears to influence students' reading self-concept (motivation). That said, findings also indicate that remediating readers' basic skills in the short term may not be enough to boost motivation. As such, interventions aiming to promote achievement might be wise to also intentionally support children's reading motivation. Collectively, these studies point to the role of motivation in supporting achievement and, in doing so, warrant the examination of students' motivation for doing reading within Tier 2 reading intervention programs and beyond them.

Children Can Differentiate Between Constructs and Self-Report Motivation (n=6)

A third theme stemming from the review of the literature suggests younger children can differentiate between motivational constructs and/or academic domains via self-report. Gottfried (1990), for example, found that children as young as seven "could reliably distinguish between subject areas of academic intrinsic motivation" including between reading, math, and school in general (p.525). Intrinsic motivation in this study was defined as "enjoyment of school learning characterized by a mastery orientation; curiosity; persistence; task-endogeny; and the learning of challenging, difficult and novel tasks" (p.525). Similarly, Marsh, Craven, and Debus (1991) provided evidence that young children between the ages of five and seven can distinguish between multiple dimensions (eight factors) of academic self-concept, including reading self-concept.

In developing the *Early Literacy Motivation Survey* (ELMS), Wilson and Trainin (2007) examined factors specific to younger students' motivation for reading, writing, and spelling. The researchers aimed to design a developmentally appropriate measure; the ELMS is administered individually, comprised of tasks and accompanying scenarios, provides children with a dichotomous yes or no choice and an opportunity to explain their thinking, and affords happy and sad faces from which children can choose to indicate agreement with questions (p. 267). Perceived competence, self-efficacy, and attributions were evaluated in 198 first-grade students. Self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977) are typically future-oriented and are similar to competence beliefs, yet refer more to "the generative capacity in which different subskills are organized into courses of action" for specific task completion (Wigfield, 1997, p.16). Attributions refer to the cause(s) one associates with task failure or success. Wilson and Trainin (2007) found that first-graders were generally able to reliably differentiate between motivational constructs and domains (reading, spelling, and writing).

Coddington and Guthrie (2009) found that first-grade students and their teachers were conscious of and able to articulate "distinctions among students' efficacy, reading orientation, and perceived difficulty for reading" (p.225). Perceived efficacy constituted the degree to which a child believed she or he could accomplish a reading task. Reading orientation within the study was conceptualized as "students' abilities to focus on a given task" (Coddington and Guthrie, 2009, p.227). Additionally, Guthrie and Coddington found students' perceived difficulty to be more predictive of word-identification scores than efficacy (orientation was not found to be a statistically significant predictor) and teachers' evaluations of motivational constructs were both more consistent and more strongly associated with children's word-identification outcomes.

More recently, Guay and colleagues (2010) demonstrated in a study framed by self-determination theory that young children in grades one through three could distinguish between motivation types (intrinsic, identified regulation, controlled regulation) in reading. Put another way, children in the sample could articulate various levels of agreement specific to statements of reasoning for engaging in reading that reflected different types of regulation: intrinsic (e.g., for enjoyment or satisfaction), identified (e.g., for perceived importance), and controlled (e.g., for rewards, to avoid punishment, to lessen guilt). Guay and colleagues also found that the ability to differentiate between types increased as students aged.

Marinak et al. (2015) field-tested the *Me and My Reading Profile* (MMRP) measure with 899 primary students (K-2) and found the tool to be both a reliable and valid measure of young children's motivation to read. They concluded that their work "confirms that reading motivation is a valid construct to be evaluated in the primary grades and that it can be reliably assessed" (Marinak et al., p.55). This finding is relevant to this dissertation in so much as students' valuing of reading was operationalized through an expectancy-value theory lens with items investigating students' perceptions of reading importance. Also relevant is the authors' omission of the task value subdimension of cost. No items attempted to assess whether students perceived there to be costs, or barriers, associated with reading (Wigfield & Eccles, 1992).

All in all, these seven studies suggest that young children can discriminate between their motivation for differing academic domains and can self-report on a variety of different motivation-related constructs when developmentally appropriate reporting methods are utilized. As such, it is reasonable to think young children would be able to distinguish between reading instruction occurring in the classroom and reading instruction occurring in the reading intervention setting (assuming they are not highly similar) and that they also would be able to

self-report on their motivation for doing reading in each setting if developmentally sensitive techniques were employed; such studies lend support to child participants in the present sample being able to report on their motivation for doing reading in a Tier 2 intervention program. Furthermore, the most recent study reviewed (Marinak et al., 2015) again evidences the relevance of E-V theory to the lived experiences of young readers.

Classroom Factors Influence Reading Motivation (n=10)

A final theme culled from reviewing the literature specific to young children's reading motivation is that context matters; ten studies investigating the impact of various factors specific to the school environment on young children's motivation to read surfaced in the search of the literature. Four centered on the dominant approaches of the classroom teacher. Stipek, Feiler, Daniels, and Milburn (1995) investigated the impact of two different instructional approaches (child-centered and didactic) on preschool and kindergarten children's reading motivation. Stipek and colleagues found that although children in didactic classrooms performed better on achievement measures, they also "rated their abilities significantly lower" and "had lower expectations for success" compared to students in child-centered programs (p.209). Furthermore, the researchers concluded in reference to Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory that there were substantial consequences to students' perceived competence that would likely affect their present and future motivation to read; performance/outcome-driven, didactic environments typically did not support intrinsic motivation.

Similarly, Turner (1995) compared the impacts of basal and whole language classroom conditions on first-grade children's literacy motivation. In addition to interviewing participants, Turner (1995) utilized a structured observation instrument to observe students' intrinsic motivation behaviors (i.e. strategy use, persistence, and engagement/volitional control) while

completing open (child-specified processes) and closed (other/teacher specified processes) literacy tasks. Strategies observed included learning strategies (rehearsal, elaboration, and organization) and decoding and comprehension strategies. Persistent behaviors included sticking with a difficult task and attempting to correct an error upon recognition. Volitional control was noted when student behaviors were aimed at maintaining concentration (e.g. asking other students to be quiet). Student interviews conducted after the assessment further probed thinking specific to these areas. Turner concluded that regardless of classroom condition (basal or whole language), “children used more reading strategies, persisted longer, and controlled their attention better” when engaged in open tasks (p.411). Furthermore, she posited that intrinsic motivation was greater within open tasks due to such tasks offering more challenge, greater autonomy, higher levels of interest, and increased time for social collaboration.

Nolen (2001) ethnographically investigated at-risk kindergarten children’s developing reading motivation and understanding of literacy in relation to the classroom context. Five target children were identified and studied within four classrooms. Individual student interviews investigating students’ reading motivation were conducted with an instrument rooted in the work of Scher and Baker (1997). The interviewer utilized two stuffed animals to represent opposing attitudes toward reading and writing. Nolen found that students’ developing motivation to participate in school literacy activities, though still relatively high at the end of the study, “depended in part on what it took to be successful given the nature of literacy encountered in the classroom” (p.137). Put another way, the four teachers defined success related to literacy tasks differently through their actions and language, and this influenced how students perceived the purposes of reading and writing and their reasons for engaging in literacy tasks.

Nolen (2001) concluded that 1) classrooms that encouraged peer collaboration provided greater supports for struggling students, and 2) classrooms where reading and writing were used for multiple purposes (i.e. communication, self-expression, and pleasure) nurtured students' interest in literacy. It is important to note that although Nolen made inferences specific to the classroom contextual factors influencing children's developing reading motivation, she did not specifically ask students which aspects of instruction they liked and disliked; instead, she probed their overall liking of reading and writing and recorded and analyzed students' spontaneous elaborations. Regardless, Nolen's investigation serves as evidence of young struggling readers' abilities to articulate reasons for enjoying and/or not enjoying literacy instruction.

In a later mixed-methods longitudinal study, Nolen (2007) did probe via semi-structured interviews students' (N=67) likes and dislikes specific to reading and writing at school in an effort to trace children's motivations to read over time (first grade through third grade). She concluded that "children's motivation for literacy is best understood in terms of development in specific contexts" or that students' skill development and teachers' unique instructional methods influenced students' literacy motivation (Nolen, 2007, p.219). In general, students in the sample tended to read more for interest and less to achieve mastery over time, a finding which suggests that once children acquire a basic level of reading fluency, it might be more beneficial for instructional efforts to emphasize reading for interest rather than reading to improve skills.

While the above four studies pertain generally to the influence of educators' instructional approaches on young children's reading motivation, a handful of additional studies surfaced specific to the influence of a single instructional component or literacy intervention on motivation. A mixed-methods, pre-experimental study conducted by Ciampa (2016) investigated the impact of eBooks on 30 first-grade students' intrinsic reading motivation. Researcher

fieldnotes and an adapted reading motivation questionnaire which included four open-ended questions intended to capture the reasons students liked and/or disliked eBooks served as the basis for Ciampa's (2016) central findings: 1) sampled students preferred eBooks to traditional print books at the beginning and end of the study; and 2) "cited reasons for child participants' perceived enjoyment of the mobile eBooks closely related to the three motivational aspects of intrinsic motivation: choice, curiosity and challenge" (p.686). Relevant to the current project is Ciampa's probing of students' perceived disadvantages of eBooks – though not directly identified as such, these responses closely resemble those of perceived costs within the E-V theory literature. Students' perceived disadvantages of eBooks ranged from technical frustrations to personal preference for physical books. Such perceived disadvantages could be used in some instances (though the study did not suggest that they would be) to modify students' experiences with eBooks (e.g., provide additional technical training) to better support their motivation for reading eBooks.

Ciampa (2012) also published a qualitative study that largely mirrored the procedures and findings of the one just related. A common finding in both studies was that eBooks generally promoted students' autonomy and, in turn, their intrinsic reading motivation. The primary difference between the two studies was the attention paid in the qualitative study to eight first-grade target students' individual engagement within eBook and traditional reading situations, as measured by observed on-task and off-task behavior. Both studies lend support to the notion that young children can articulate perceived advantages and disadvantages specific to different reading experiences (i.e. eBooks and physical books).

Similarly, Pak and Wesley (2012) found by means of an experimental design that over a two-month period, second- and third-grade students' (N=112) attitudes and interest specific to

recreational reading generally declined when they were forced to complete a mandatory reading log, as compared to a control group that utilized voluntary logs. Attitudes toward academic reading decreased significantly in both the mandatory reading log condition and the control condition (voluntary reading log condition). Pak and Wesley posited that a lack of autonomy in the experimental condition influenced students' declining interest and attitudes towards reading. These findings are noteworthy in that they suggest classroom instructional practices can potentially influence in-school and out-of-school reading motivation.

With respect to specific supplemental programming (enrichment and intervention), several studies have examined the impact of various programs on primary students' reading motivation. Morrow and Weinstein (1986), for example, experimentally tested the influence of a classroom-based literature program on second-graders' voluntary use of library centers and reading attitudes as indicated by observations and attitude questionnaires. Although the researchers did not find an effect on students' reading attitudes, the intervention did appear to impact second-graders' voluntary use of the classroom library center weeks after the intervention had ended in comparison to a control group that did not receive the intervention.

Millin and Rinehart (1999) utilized an experimental design to investigate the influence of a readers' theater intervention on second-grade Title I students' oral reading, oral reading comprehension, and motivation. Regression analyses of data resulting from the *Qualitative Reading Inventory* (Leslie & Caldwell, 1990) and the *Elementary Reading Attitude Survey* (McKenna & Kear, 1990) indicated that readers' theater enhanced participants' oral reading ability and oral reading comprehension significantly above that of the control group. A statistically significant effect was not detected for students' reading attitudes; however, qualitative data consisting of student interviews, reading specialist interviews, and classroom

teacher interviews suggested treatment students' attitudes towards reading had become more positive. Collectively, qualitative data suggested that "students had become much more enthusiastic about reading" (Millin & Rinehart, 1999, p.7). In addition to contributing to a rationale for the qualitative investigation of young children's reading motivation, this study also further evidences students' abilities to articulate perceived program advantages and disadvantages. Specifically, when students were asked what they liked and disliked about readers' theater, they provided relevant responses. For example, one student indicated that he preferred the Title I readers' theater intervention to the general classroom because he could focus on reading as opposed to doing workbook pages and answering questions from a basal reader in the classroom. Responses like this one demonstrate young children's ability to evaluate and voice preferences for specific instructional approaches.

Most recently, Bates et al. (2016) expanded upon the work of Forbes and Fullerton (2014) with respect to the impact of Reading Recovery on first-graders' reading motivation; they utilized a quasi-experimental design and structural equation modeling to compare the motivation of a Reading Recovery treatment group to that of a control group. Much like Forbes and Fullerton (2014), Bates and colleagues concluded that Reading Recovery had statistically significant positive effects on both achievement and motivation for participating students. Motivation, as measured with the E-V theory framed MMRP (Marinak et al., 2015), was found to mediate the treatment effect on achievement, and achievement was found to mediate the treatment effect on motivation; this finding lends further support to a bidirectional relationship between motivation and achievement in young readers. The researchers posited that Reading Recovery's careful consideration of children's personal reading interests and appropriate level of challenge were partially responsible for boosting struggling readers' motivation. Furthermore,

this study offers additional support for the utilization of E-V theory as an appropriate theoretical lens through which to investigate the developing motivation of young readers.

Collectively, these studies suggest that classroom contexts matter. Student-centered approaches that promote autonomy – or that take into account students’ interests, embed opportunities for students to make choices, promote authentic learning opportunities, and provide appropriate challenge – appear to *generally* support reading motivation. Several studies in the sample also evidenced the difficulty of utilizing strictly quantitative methods to adequately capture changes in the reading motivation of younger children. Furthermore, although at least three studies (i.e., Ciampa, 2012; 2016; Nolen, 2007) attempted to survey students’ likes and dislikes with regard to reading initiatives, no studies seriously considered the saliency of students’ negative perceptions; how exactly did students’ perceived drawbacks influence their reading motivation within each context? Such information could lead to instructional modifications that better support the developing motivation of students in the samples and beyond. Lastly, only one study in the sample (Millin & Rinehart, 1999) examined how a small-group reading intervention shaped second-grade students’ reading motivation; additional research is warranted that employs developmentally-sensitive techniques to investigate the ways in which specific Tier 2 reading interventions influence the reading motivation of groups and individuals.

Limitations

Although the above reviewed studies make important contributions to our collective knowledge with respect to the general developmental trend of children’s reading motivation over time, the relationship between early reading motivation and achievement, students’ ability to discriminate between academic activities and self-report on motivation, and the general impact

of contextual factors on early reading motivation, they also signify a lack of attention to children's nuanced and contextualized perceptions of the reading interventions imposed on them in schools. *Put another way, the majority of studies reviewed failed to capture and/or seriously consider students' unique perceptions of specific approaches to the teaching of reading and, as such, do not consider associated implications.* Only a handful of studies directly probed students' unique instructional preferences (e.g., likes and dislikes) specific to their experiences, and fewer studies investigated associated rationales. No studies could be found directly investigating students' perceptions of Tier 2 pull-out reading intervention programming.

In order to design and modify reading intervention programs that promote students' developing motivation, we must investigate more regularly and sincerely children's programmatic perceptions specific to the intervention's appeal and drawbacks. As Kaplan et al. (2002) and others have pointed out, the impact of the "messages" students receive about reading and its related activities from teachers and/or the instructional environment on motivation and, in turn, achievement, likely "depends more on how students *perceive* the various policies and practices in the school or classroom than on the objective reality of the of the policies or practices themselves" (p.25). *We simply cannot know whether and to what extent children value and/or enjoy reading initiatives derived even from the most well-supported, evidence-based practices if we do not ask them.* Due to the lack of students' perspectives represented in this sample of the K-2 reading motivation literature, a second search was conducted to collect additional empirical investigations centered directly on students' perspectives of various school reading programs.

Part IB: Motivation Studies Examining Cost (N=3)

As explicated in the introduction and evidenced in this literature review, E-V theory has been repeatedly found to be relevant to the lived experiences of young readers (Wigfield, 1997). It is for this reason that it was selected to serve as the core theory of motivation informing the present study. However, as Flake and colleagues (2015) and others have pointed out, cost, the negative value subcomponent intended to represent what an individual gives up to participate in a task (e.g., missed opportunities, emotional concessions, effort) has been largely neglected in research involving younger learners. This is problematic given that research involving older learners has witnessed cost to be “salient to students,” structurally “separate from expectancy and value components,” and negatively associated with both components (Flake et al., 2015, p.232). Furthermore, cost has been shown to be related to academic behaviors. For example, cost was found to be negatively associated with females’ intentions to go on to graduate school (Battle & Wigfield, 2003) and predictive of college students’ intentions to leave STEM majors (Perez et al., 2014).

The lack of examination of this construct in research involving children is disconcerting when considering foundational E-V assumptions in conjunction with the above findings; if students perceive the *costs* of a task or activity to be too high, task avoidance and/or devaluing can result (e.g., Eccles et al., 1983). In thinking specifically of reading intervention programs, it is disheartening to imagine that students who perceive participation in such programs to be too costly may avoid both tasks during intervention sessions and tasks that appear similar outside the setting. From this standpoint, investigation into students’ perceived costs specific to intervention is warranted.

Because no studies examining the cost of reading in any context specific to children could be found, an additional search was conducted in an attempt to shed light on how one might study cost in children more generally. A search of the University of New Hampshire's central EBSCOhost database for empirical, peer-reviewed articles specific to elementary students' achievement motivation and cost ("expectancy-value" + "cost") yielded two articles investigating the costs of predominantly English-speaking elementary students. A third study (Chen & Liu, 2009) surfaced and was also reviewed, despite involving Chinese college-aged participants, due to its use of participants' hypothetical choices (i.e., whether to attend physical education classes if permitted the choice), a known developmentally-sensitive (Graue & Walsh, 1998) research technique, to infer the severity of students' identified costs. Together, these qualitative studies (Chen & Liu, 2009; Xiang, McBride, & Bruene, 2006; Watkinson, Dwyer, & Nielsen, 2005) offered a range of types of cost (some represented in the theoretical literature and others not) students have attributed to participating in physical activity.

First, Xiang and colleagues (2006) found that Texas fourth-graders readily provided answers to the open-ended question, "Do you like the Roadrunners [running] program in your school? Why or why not?" (p.198). Cost-coded responses emerging from the 34% of students' who reported that they did not enjoy the program largely fell into three main categories: physical discomfort, boredom, and general dislike. With the exception of physical discomfort, these categories suggest conditions opposite of those shown in Part 1A of this review to promote motivation (i.e., fostering appropriate challenge, interest, and student autonomy).

Similarly, Watkinson et al. (2005) qualitatively investigated whether third-grade students' reasons for participating or not in various recess activities aligned with E-V constructs. Eight students with different participatory patterns of recess engagement were interviewed for

approximately one hour each about a hypothetical other person; they were also questioned about their own reasoning for making specific recess choices. Students articulated a range of psychological, social, physical, and/or physiological costs they associated with certain recess activity involvement. For example, students articulated their discomfort in relation to temperature, tiredness, and injury as well as costs associated with being teased by others and/or excluded. In addition to cost, the researchers found that third-grade responses reflected all E-V positive value subdimensions (i.e., interest value, utility value, and attainment value). Similar qualitative investigations might next examine elementary students' perceptions of school programming across domains to better support students' academic motivation.

A final study (Chen & Liu, 2009), intentionally designed to a) examine the types of costs Chinese college students (n= 368) perceived regarding their participation in physical education classes, and b) evaluate the extent to which identified costs might shape motivation, analyzed participants' open-ended written responses and interviews. So as not to confine participants' responses to preoperationalized definitions, data was gathered using the following open-ended questions: 1) "If there is *anything* that would make you dislike physical education, what is it? Why?" and 2) "If you have a choice whether to take physical education, would you rather not take it or you still want to take it? Why?" (p.198-199). Follow-up interviews with participants were conducted soon thereafter to clarify responses. The researchers found that 92% of students maintained that they would continue to participate in physical education classes if given the choice, despite listing one or more costs associated with participation. Provided the participants in this dissertation cannot readily opt out of attending reading intervention, a hypothetical question about whether they would opt out if permitted to choose, similar to the one utilized by Chen and Liu,

offers a way to infer the saliency of students' perceived benefits and/or costs (assuming they provide both).

Limitations

As alluded to before, research specific to the multidimensional E-V construct of cost is just beginning. Few studies have probed elementary students' perceived programmatic costs, and no research could be found directly investigating the costs primary students associate with reading instruction. Nevertheless, this dissertation draws upon the methodology of these three studies in striving to elicit and explore the saliency of K-2 students' perceived benefits and costs of a Tier 2 reading intervention program in an effort to contribute to this gap in the literature.

Part II: Children's Perceptions of School Reading Initiatives (N=7)

As so few studies in Part 1 of this review involved examining students' unconstrained motivation-related perceptions of literacy programming, a second search to unearth more of such studies occurred. The second review of relevant literature again began with several searches conducted through the University of New Hampshire's central EBSCOhost database. Peer-reviewed, empirical articles detailing studies conducted in predominantly English-speaking countries and specific to primary grade (K-2) students' perceptions of literacy practices, programs, and/or routines were included for review. The first combination of search terms entered was "children's perceptions," "intervention," and "reading." This search yielded a single relevant result even after substituting "students" for "children's" and "literacy" for "reading." Substituting "pupils" for "children's" and then "experiences" for "perceptions" and next "views" for "perceptions" yielded an additional five articles that met inclusion criteria. Substituting "instruction" and then "program" for "intervention" yielded no additional findings. Reference lists were consulted for seminal studies missed in the search. One book (Pollard & Triggs, 2002) was

included for review, as it can be considered a seminal study pertaining to the nationally-imposed literacy curriculum in the U.K. (Fielding, 2003).

One additional article (Eckert et al., 2017) that surfaced in the search was included, even though it elicited and analyzed third-grade students' perceptions of a writing intervention, due to the study tool's potential to quantitatively capture young children's views of academic interventions. When building upon the qualitative findings of this dissertation in future investigations, Eckert and colleagues' (2017) quantitative tool could potentially be adapted and field-tested with K-2 students to offer a larger-scale (though considerably less-nuanced) investigation of students' perceptions of Tier 2 reading intervention programs. For these reasons, the article was deemed highly relevant and warranted special inclusion. This article will be discussed first.

A Measure Investigating Perceptions of Intervention Acceptability (n=1)

Eckert and colleagues' (2017) examination of the psychometric properties of the *Kids Intervention Profile* (KIP) surfaced as the only instrument attempting to make strides in the quantitative investigation of younger children's perceptions of academic interventions. As a key reason for developing and validating the instrument, the authors underscored that "Examining students' views regarding academic interventions is critical, as the likelihood of enhancing students' academic achievement increases if students view these interventions as acceptable" (p.270). In further explicating on this relationship, Eckert and colleagues referred directly to students' "autonomy, self-efficacy and motivation" being positively impacted and, in turn, promoting achievement when learners value and/or enjoy academic interventions (p.270). Additionally, in recognizing that a) teachers and students hold different views of academic interventions; and b) "educational paradigm shifts" influence intervention acceptability and,

therefore, effectiveness, Eckert and colleagues (2017) stressed the need for researchers to better examine students' perceptions of academic interventions. The researchers specifically cited recent RTI reform efforts as a primary rationale for probing students' perceived intervention acceptability. This rationale directly supports the buttressing rationale of the present study offered in the introductory chapter.

In developing the KIP, Eckert and colleagues referenced the *Children's Intervention Rating Profile* (Witt & Elliot, 1985) which remains the only instrument designed to evaluate elementary children's perceptions of behavioral interventions. The KIP consists of eight items written at a third-grade reading level to which children fit their responses to a five-point agreement scale. To enhance the scale's developmental appropriateness, the authors included a series of five boxes that increase in size to further illustrate agreement. Sample items included, "How much do you like [insert specifics of intervention] writing stories with us each week?" and "Were there times when you didn't want to write stories with us?" (Eckert et al., 2017, p. 276). Four randomized control trials with third-grade students (228 students across four cohorts) provided evidence of the tool's internal consistency and stability. These trials indicated that a statistically significant (modest) positive relationship existed between students' writing achievement and writing intervention acceptability perceptions, lending additional support to the theory that students' positive perceptions of intervention generally promote achievement.

Although this work holds promise and offers insight for those striving to evaluate the reading intervention perceptions of young students on a larger scale, the validity and reliability of the measure with K-2 students remains to be tested. Additionally, the measure does not permit students to explain their responses or to comment on whether they would attend the intervention if given the choice (i.e., provide information on the pervasiveness of perceived costs, assuming

they exist), which considerably limits the depth of findings. Though time-consuming, one-on-one follow-up interviews might offer additional information about how programming could be improved. In sum, although methodologically informative and potentially useful, the KIP does not currently meet the goals of the current dissertation.

Studies Framed by the New Sociology of Childhood (n=6)

Most of the studies investigating students' programmatic perceptions that surfaced in the second phase of the literature search, though related to educational psychology in ways similar to the current undertaking, were framed primarily or buttressed alternatively by the new sociology of childhood. This position, which draws upon the rationale provided within Article 12 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), is rooted in a participatory research approach and maintains that children are "competent human beings and key informants on their own lives with views they express with wisdom and insight – indeed, our best source of advice for matters affecting them" (Harris, 2015, p.28). Such a position assumes that an imposed reading curriculum or intervention does not typically consider students' perceptions of said programming, which are considered vital to determining the effectiveness of the program (Pollard & Triggs, 2000; Wray & Medwell, 2006). Recall from the introductory chapter that the United States has yet to ratify Article 12 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child; as such, it came as little surprise that the studies that surfaced embracing this perspective were primarily conducted in the United Kingdom. They are discussed below in chronological order.

In their book titled *What Pupils Say: Changing Policy and Practice in Primary Education*, Pollard and Triggs (2000) synthesized longitudinal data regarding students' and teachers' perceptions of the imposed National Curriculum and assessments in England and Wales. The book describes findings from the Primary Assessment, Curriculum, and Experience (PACE) project,

which was supported by national grants from the U.K. Economic and Social Research Council for nearly a decade (1988-1997). The PACE project strived to monitor the impact of mandated reform on students and teachers. This randomized longitudinal investigation included over 50 students (49 of which provided data for at least four years) in nine British schools and spanned students' first year of schooling through year six. Students across grades were observed systematically and interviewed (immediately after participating in an observed task) with the aid of *concrete supports* (e.g., illustration, picture book). The researchers probed their likes and dislikes specific to a task recently completed and then regarding their school experiences and the National Curriculum in general, including mandated literacy routines (e.g., the literacy hour). Teachers were also interviewed.

In addition to providing evidence that children in year one could articulate domain-specific (e.g., art, reading, math, writing) programmatic preferences and associated rationales (e.g., boring, hard, interesting, fun), Pollard and Triggs (2000) found that students' preference for doing literacy-related activities peaked in years three and four and dropped off substantially in years five and six (Art and PE were found to be most preferable in years one, two, five, and six). Furthermore, the researchers found that overall, students' explanations for preferring subjects over others resulted from experiencing "fun," "activity"/movement, and "autonomy" (having some control over their learning) (p.103). Explanations for disliking subjects included the subject involving work that "was hard," was "difficult to succeed" at, or led to an "experience of failure" (p.103). Additionally, the study suggested that teachers' and students' perceptions of the impact of programming on students' motivation did not always match. For example, Pollard and Triggs (2000) found that although teachers thought they were largely nurturing students' senses of independence, autonomy, and self-confidence, some students felt as though they had little control over classroom

experiences and few opportunities for choice. As such, the researchers underscored the need to triangulate data from a variety of perspectives (e.g., child, teacher, researcher). This dissertation was specifically designed to heed the advice of Pollard and Triggs; it compares children's reported motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting with adult (reading specialist and researcher) reports of their behavioral engagement.

A major weakness of Pollard and Triggs' study, which has been remarked on by others (e.g., Fielding, 2003), is that findings are not strongly situated in and therefore, not as readily supported by the achievement motivation literature as they could have been. Although major motivation constructs are referred to throughout the text (e.g., intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, attitudes), and an ending chapter (Chapter 13, p.292) attempts to relate findings to influential learning disposition theories (e.g., attribution theory, goal orientation theory, and dynamic intelligence), constructs utilized throughout the book are largely undefined and disconnected from their foundational theoretical underpinnings; the study does not appear to have been designed with clear motivation theoretical framework(s) in mind, thus limiting findings and implications considerably. Pollard and Triggs (2000) concede in the thirteenth chapter that the second major research question posed in the book dealing specifically with motivation ("Did the National Curriculum and assessment facilitate or undermine the development of positive pupil learning dispositions?") was not one of the study's original research questions (p.14). If the project had been concerned from the beginning with investigating how students under the National Curriculum were coming to view their intelligence (i.e., as largely fixed or dynamic), a theory heavily emphasized in the thirteenth chapter, the structured interview questions (e.g., Are you good at reading?, Are you good at writing?), for example, could have been intentionally phrased in a way that did not promote thinking about intelligence in a static manner. As it stands, the phrasing

of such questions and lack of another sound means of evaluating students' view(s) of intelligence arguably limits findings and associated implications with regard to the curriculum's impact on learning dispositions; the researchers offer the impression that many students' learning dispositions are being undermined without presenting a clear, evidence-supported answer to their research question about the impact of the curriculum on students' motivation.

Furthermore, this project could have seized upon another major theory of academic motivation (e.g., E-V theory, SDT) to explain students' engagement in and rationales for liking and/or disliking school subjects and/or associated activities. This approach could have made a more plausible case for the potential impact of the National Curriculum on students' developing motivation, and, in turn, their achievement. Numerous studies reviewed earlier in this chapter have documented the connection between students' motivation and achievement (a primary goal of the National Curriculum). In sum, although they successfully elicited and sincerely considered students' motivation-related perceptions, Pollard and Triggs did not answer their primary research question specific to the development of students' academic motivation under the National Curriculum, at least in part due to the study not being designed intentionally for this purpose.

In a second study with a comparable aim of eliciting younger students' motivation-related perceptions, Hancock and Mansfield (2002) interviewed 48 children between the ages of 6 and 13 about the United Kingdom's mandated daily Literacy Hour. The Literacy Hour, which became required in 1998, spelled out what teachers were to teach (e.g., shared reading, independent reading) and for how long with respect to the day's blocked hour for reading and writing. In surveying students' views, Hancock and Mansfield found that even the youngest children sampled (age 6) could describe what occurred in the Literacy Hour and expressed opinions about the initiative. Due to students' feedback highlighting aspects of instruction that could be improved

(e.g., the hour is too long), Hancock and Mansfield concluded that such information should inform policy and practice and suggested that teachers elicit students' programmatic views more regularly via a short feedback form. The model feedback form they provided probed students' perceptions of the hour's effectiveness (e.g., "How was the lesson for you?", "How much did you learn?") and asked students what should be improved in the future (p.195). Though the authors claim as part of their theoretical rationale for the research that there are "psychological benefits" to eliciting and seriously considering students' programmatic perceptions, they do not further explicate, support, or return to this claim at any point in the article, instead focusing heavily on children's right to be heard (p.187). This is, again, a major weakness of this study in that it considerably limits the implications of the work; an opportunity to explicate why students' programmatic perceptions might better position adults to support students' motivation for and engagement in imposed programming and, in turn, their achievement can be considered lost.

Similarly, though relying more heavily on a social constructivist frame of support, Wray and Medwell (2006) surveyed the views of 297 boys and girls between the ages of 7 and 11 with respect to the Literacy Hour. They selected 33 students randomly from each of the 11 classes represented for follow-up interviews and observations. Wray and Medwell found that 30-40% of students reported not enjoying the Literacy Hour. Although shared reading and writing were generally reviewed favorably by students, observations of students' behavior suggested that only about 60% of students demonstrated interest and enthusiasm during these activities. Furthermore, boys performing below average were less likely to demonstrate enthusiasm and interest during observations when compared to girls of below-average performance. Also noteworthy was the finding that students valued the opportunity to choose what they read; over a third of both boys and girls reported that choice influenced their enjoyment of the Literacy Hour. Finally, it is

important to note that student and teacher appraisals of student enjoyment of various literacy activities did not always match. The researchers emphasized the importance of investigating the curriculum understandings “learners construct in their heads” as a means of improving literacy instruction (p.204). As has often been the case in the new sociology of childhood studies reviewed here, Wray and Medwell underscored that “taking pupils’ hearts along in teaching is usually thought of as an essential ingredient in taking their minds along too”; however, they did not empirically support this claim despite the availability of studies evidencing the link between motivation and achievement (p.209). Again, this dissertation heeds the researchers’ recommendation to collect and analyze both children’s own motivation-related perceptions of imposed programming and adult perceptions of children’s engagement.

In a fourth study involving students’ perceptions of imposed programming, Certo, Moxley, Reffitt, and Miller (2010) specifically aimed to “honor students’ voices” in grades one, three, four, and five with regard to their involvement in literature circles (p.245). A stratified random sample (which represented students of varying ability levels) of 24 U.S. students from a larger mixed-methods study was selected for individual interviews centered on participants’ attitudes towards and perceptions of literature circles. The authors emphasized the need to investigate primary students’ perceptions while also acknowledging the challenges of doing so within the study’s limitations. Additional probing that included rephrasing questions was the primary way interviewers elicited information from younger students who struggled to articulate responses. This dissertation intentionally utilizes a semi-structured approach to interviewing child-participants so that questions can be rephrased as necessary for meaning construction.

A limitation of the study is the lack of a theoretical framework specific to the concept of attitude. Though investigating students’ “attitudes toward literature circles” is explicitly mentioned

in the first research question, no substantial consideration is given to this term within the included theoretical framework or literature review (Certo et al., 2010, p.246); specifically, the motivation and learning/achievement-related consequences (positive and/or negative) of students' attitudes towards literature circles are not discussed despite the wide availability of literature on the subject (e.g., McKenna et al., 1995). Such a theoretically-based rationale could serve to strengthen the researchers' general support of the overall practice of literature circles, as well as other emphasized aspects associated with them (e.g., dialogic conversations). Put another way, explicating why students' enjoyment of literature circles matters by grounding this finding in what is known about the relationship between students' attitudes toward school programming and achievement might result in a stronger argument that, in turn, better informs policy and practice.

Regardless, students reported largely enjoying literature circles, collectively characterizing them as "the best part of language arts" (Certo et al., 2010, p.250). Seventy-five percent of students in the sample indicated that they enjoyed the social aspect of literature circles, which they credited with helping them make new friends. Nearly all students preferred literature circles to reading from the traditional basal, and half of the sample (including several first-graders) remarked that the intervention made them want to read more chapter books like those they experienced in literature circles. Finally, all students in the sample indicated that writing helped them learn within the literature circle. In advocating for the use of literature circles and/or similar literacy practices that promote social construction of meaning, the authors underscored the importance of eliciting students' unique perspectives through individual interviewing to better inform the planning of literacy instruction for learners. This dissertation intentionally heeds the advice of Certo and colleagues in that children's motivation-related perceptions were elicited via one-on-one interviews.

Through the lens of the new sociology of childhood, Hanke (2014) adapted Clark and Moss's (2001) Mosaic methodological approach to investigate the perceptions of students between the ages of four and seven specific to the guided reading portion of the Literacy Hour. In doing so, Hanke collected student and teacher interview data, observational data, and data from co-authored drawings to better understand how young children experienced guided reading during the Literacy Hour. Co-authored drawings are a form of graphic elicitation which provide a window into students' "understandings and perceptions" and facilitate dialogue (Hanke, 2014, p.137). Hanke (2014) provided students with "incomplete cartoon-style drawings" which served to encourage children to complete their own guided reading narrative specific to their unique experiences (p.138). The conversations that took place with the researcher while each child completed the narrative were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed. Findings were then triangulated with other data. This dissertation employs a similar approach: child-participants' conversational drawing interview responses and walking tour interview (also rooted in the work of Clark & Moss, 2001) responses are compared to adult reports of children's engagement within a Tier 2 reading intervention.

Three major themes emerged in Hanke's study: 1) students took notice of the common expectations of guided reading (e.g., being on the right page), 2) students understood guided reading to be a social experience in which they helped one another and were largely unaware of ability grouping, and 3) students were in tune with the time constraints of guided reading. A limitation of this study is the lack of consideration given to students' instructional preferences; however, it is clear that sampled children valued the contributions peers made to their learning—even suggesting it would be beneficial to work with other students who were not typically in their ability-based guided reading group. In sum, this study provides additional evidence that young

children can articulate their understandings of specific programming when developmentally-sensitive tools are utilized.

A final study conducted in Australia (Harris, 2015) investigated children's perceptions of common literacy practices occurring within their classrooms. The study involved a group of 15 children that the researcher tracked from kindergarten through second grade. Although Harris framed the study from the "perspective of reading as social practice" (p.28), it appeared that she drew upon the achievement motivation literature to design the primary investigative tool. However, she did not directly cite any literature relating to the constructs investigated (e.g., self-efficacy, value, perceived difficulty), nor did she discuss these constructs in the supporting literature review or theoretical framework. As such, it is difficult to evaluate the construct validity of the innovative tool (this claim is further explicated below).

The tool that Harris developed is a participatory photo-sorting activity (PSA) which permitted her to individually converse with children in the sample. The students participated in the PSA activity at the end of each year. The PSA consisted of seven photos that represented instructional literacy practices common to all three classrooms. Photos included "two children reading together," "children doing a reading game," "a child doing a reading worksheet at a table with a book nearby," "children writing," a "teacher reading to a class," a "teacher giving a decoding lesson," and "a child reading alone" (p.31). Children were asked to sort the pictures four separate times according to the categories of well-being, self-efficacy, perceived difficulty, and utility (value) specific to learning how to read. Each category involved two main sorting categories (e.g., Emotional well-being: Times I feel happy / Times I feel sad); however, children were not forced to place each item in a category. Interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed. Harris anchored students' perceptions by utilizing photos of activities the children did regularly (concrete

supports); this dissertation follows suit by inviting child participants to lead a tour of their reading intervention space. Within this dissertation, children's understandings are grounded by the physical surroundings (e.g., anchor charts, manipulatives) of the intervention space.

As alluded to previously, Harris (2015) did not cite the relevant literature from which she plucked motivation constructs, making it difficult to determine construct validity, nor did she rely upon an applicable theory or theories of motivation to interpret results. For example, to evaluate self-efficacy, Harris asked participants to sort tasks into two categories: "Things that I'm good at doing" and "Things that I'm not good at doing." One could justifiably argue that these categories do not accurately reflect Bandura's (1977) conception of self-efficacy, which intends to capture a learner's belief in his or her ability to succeed in a specific task; being generally good at something is not necessarily the same as being able to successfully complete a task. I could successfully complete a marathon, as I have done in the past, yet I do not consider myself generally good at running marathons. Harris might have been relying upon an alternate conceptualization of self-efficacy; however, this is unclear as neither a literature-supported definition nor an associated theory of motivation is offered. As such, the validity of the constructs investigated is suspect.

Within Harris's study, the highest proportion of children reported being happy in response to photos depicting two children reading together and the teacher reading aloud; early readers especially valued reading experiences that permitted them to connect with others. At least a third of students across grade levels indicated that reading alone at school made them feel sad. As students got older, Harris (2015) found self-efficacy to be connected to agency; children who largely viewed their abilities in reading situations favorably were more comfortable working independently. Also noteworthy are the findings that 67% of kindergarten students reported doing reading games as unhelpful and 80% of kindergarten children reported not being good at reading

games. Harris concluded the PSA to be an effective means of conversing with young children about their classroom literacy experiences. Furthermore, she recommended educators and researchers more regularly invite students' motivation-related perceptions of school programming and use elicited information to improve practice and policy. This dissertation strives to do just that.

As with the majority of studies framed by the new sociology of childhood, Harris's work provides evidence of young children's abilities to articulate which specific aspects of the literacy block they found to be enjoyable and helpful in learning to read and which they perceived as less enjoyable and/or unhelpful when provided with participatory methodological supports. The study falls short in arguing why students' perspectives are important in promoting reading motivation and, in turn, achievement. It is unclear why Harris (2015) did not directly utilize the body of achievement motivation literature that directly informs the constructs she aimed to investigate (e.g., self-efficacy, perceived difficulty, utility value); citations to relevant work (e.g., Bandura, 1977), precise definitions of constructs, and the connection between motivation and achievement were not directly explicated within the article. It can be inferred that she spent some time investigating these ideas and their associated theories when creating the PSA. Regardless, the study's overall validity and implications of the work could be strengthened via a clearer connection to the achievement motivation theories and constructs informing the methods. Again, one is left to wonder why it is crucial that we take seriously students' motivation-related perceptions of literacy programming—an empirically-supported argument explicating the connection between motivation and achievement is missing from both the introduction (literature review and theoretical framework) and conclusion (implications and conclusions).

All in all, these six articles offer a wealth of insight applicable to this dissertation. First, they collectively support the notion that young children hold and can express opinions about

specific literacy initiatives and activities (e.g., guided reading, literature circles, reading games, read-aloud). Additionally, articles framed by the new sociology of childhood harness the power of concrete participatory methods which appear to aid in eliciting the perspectives of young children. Collectively, these studies emphasize the lack of attention that has been paid to the programmatic views of young children and the heightened responsibility we have as researchers (whose research informs policy) to develop and refine creative tools for eliciting and understanding children's voices. Eliciting the perspectives of students permits deeper understanding of how our "intended curriculum" compares to students' "experienced curriculum" (Pollard, Thiessen, & Filer, 1997, p.2); students' responses can shed light on what engages them, when, and why (Smith, Duncan, & Marshall, 2005).

Furthermore, young children within this collection of studies offered responses indicative of their enjoyment of specific literacy activities (e.g., Certo et al., 2010; Harris, 2015; Wray, 2006), their perceived value of activities (e.g., Harris, 2015), and their associated costs (e.g., emotional sadness; Flake et al., 2015) of involvement (e.g., Harris, 2015); these findings suggest that well-established concepts from well-established theories of achievement motivation literature are likely to surface in the programmatic perceptions of young children involved in this dissertation. If the reviewed studies were more intentionally supported by relevant achievement motivation literature, findings could more readily and validly suggest how contextualized instructional practices and/or policies were shaping individual and collective students' reading motivation, which, in turn, has implications for learning and achievement.

Limitations

The above studies are not without at least one substantial limitation. Chiefly, all but the first (Eckert et al., 2017) lack the strong theoretical foundation required to relate students'

programmatic perceptions to their developing motivation and achievement. Without this connection, the power in harnessing students' voices to improve literacy practices and policies in ways that better support learners' motivation and, in turn, their achievement, is decreased. For example, from a child's rights perspective, it is important to know that kindergarten children as individuals and as a group in Hancock's study (2002) found the reading games utilized in their classroom to be largely unhelpful and unenjoyable, because those subscribing to a new sociology of childhood view believe children have a fundamental right to voice their opinion about matters that impact them and a right to be listened to as humans. However, because Hancock (and other researchers included in this review) did not explicate how children's motivation-related perceptions are related (theoretically or empirically) to their learning and/or achievement, findings can be interpreted as less important and, as such, may be less likely to warrant the attention necessary to modify existing policies and practices. In sum, an opportunity to advocate for children's adaptive learning can be considered forfeited.

The current study addresses this issue, as well as the lack of attention paid to students' programmatic perceptions in the reading motivation literature, via a design that incorporates relevant achievement motivation literature into its rationale for and methods used to investigate students' motivation-related perceptions of a Tier 2 reading intervention; child interview protocols and questions were directly informed by the E-V literature. However, the current study intentionally employs two participatory child interview techniques (i.e., conversational drawing interview, walking tour interview) that draw on the methods evidenced to successfully elicit students' perceptions in the new sociology of childhood studies reviewed. Drawings and the physical spaces (intervention room and classroom) which contain the common materials that children access serve as concrete supports in eliciting students' perceptions. Additionally, these

one-on-one semi-structured participatory interviews, which include some hypothetical questions, build flexibility into the interview process; such aspects of participatory interview approaches are generally posited to support children’s involvement and facilitate joint understanding (O’Reilly & Dogra, 2017). In sum, a strength represented in each previous study is married in the present study to increase the trustworthiness of findings and to explicate the importance of findings. In addition to valuing the role adaptive motivation plays in promoting achievement, the participatory child-interview techniques included in this study are intended to underscore a valuing of young children’s voices specific to literacy intervention in the U.S. – a place that has yet to require adults to probe students’ perceptions of imposed programming and a place where recent education reform represents an unexamined major paradigm shift with regard to the prevalence of intervention initiatives (Eckert et al., 2017).

Part III: Behavioral Engagement (N=8)

Engagement is generally considered a multidimensional construct representing “an interaction between the individual and the environment” and, like motivation, is credited with enabling researchers to “better understand the complexity of children’s experiences in school and to design more specifically targeted and nuanced interventions” (Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004, p.59). Though aspects of motivation and engagement often overlap considerably in the associated literatures, engagement is posited to be conceptually distinct in so much as it is characterized by “indicators of action in and interaction with the environment” (Unrau & Quirk, 2014, p.264). Furthermore, some engagement indicators can be observed, whereas motivation is generally considered to be an “internal process” (Unrau & Quirk, 2014, p.262). Put another way, motivation is thought of as a “facilitator” of reading engagement which can manifest in

observable behaviors; these behaviors provide evidence of students' underlying, unobservable reading motivation (Unrau & Quirk, 2014, p.274; Ciampa, 2012).

Within this review and associated study design, *behavioral engagement*, one of three commonly theorized dimensions of engagement (emotional engagement and cognitive engagement represent the other two dimensions) was singled out for inclusion for several reasons. First, like motivation, behavioral engagement has been shown to be related to young children's reading achievement (e.g., Hughes & Kwok, 2007; Pointz & Rimm-Kaufman, 2011); however, unlike motivation, behavioral engagement can be observed (Unrau & Quirk, 2014). As such, the inclusion of observable indicators of behavioral engagement for analysis was intended to permit the triangulation of related data from differing perspectives (i.e., student, researcher, and reading specialist). Put another way, it is reasonable to assume that children who report high motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting are more likely to be evaluated by adults as positively engaged within the intervention than those who report low motivation. Second, multiple studies specifically examining K-2 readers' behavioral engagement surfaced in the literature review and, as such, serve to directly inform the engagement questionnaire (See Appendix C) utilized in this study. Lastly, in line with Fredricks and colleagues' (2004) call for a more comprehensive approach to exploring students' engagement, or an approach that considers multiple dimensions in tandem, the addition of investigating students' observed behavioral engagement complements the aspect of study design querying students' perceived benefits and costs of the reading intervention; there is considerable overlap between the dimension of *emotional engagement* and the value constructs (i.e., interest, attainment value, utility value, and cost) residing in the E-V literature (Fredricks et al., 2004). Research evaluating young children's *cognitive engagement*, or the third dimension of engagement, in relation to reading is especially

scarce (no studies were found), a gap which has been attributed to the view that it is “developmentally inappropriate to assess [young children’s] strategy use” (Fredricks et al., 2004, p.68).

In surveying the behavioral engagement literature, several searches were again conducted through the University of New Hampshire’s central EBSCOhost database. Peer-reviewed, empirical articles detailing studies conducted in predominantly English-speaking countries and specific to primary grade (K-2) students’ behavioral engagement in relation to reading were collected for review. The first combination of search terms entered was “behavioral engagement,” “kindergarten” and “reading.” “First-grade” was then substituted for “kindergarten,” followed by “second-grade.” The same search was conducted replacing “reading engagement” for “behavioral engagement” and omitting the “reading” search term. Additionally, “engagement” was substituted for “behavioral engagement.” This search yielded seven relevant results. One additional relevant source plucked from a reference list was also included for review, bringing the total number of reviewed behavioral engagement pieces to eight. All but one of these studies examined the relationship between behavioral engagement and achievement; these will be synthesized first. The final study validated an engagement instrument specific to literacy and for use with kindergarten children; this study is described last.

Behavioral Engagement and Achievement (n=7)

Behavioral engagement is most commonly defined as “observable involvement of academic tasks (e.g., effort, persistence, concentration, attention, etc.)” and reviewed studies investigated a range of indicators in different ways (Unrau & Quirk, 2014, p.266). Collectively these studies (e.g., Guo, Connor, Tompkins, & Morrison, 2011; Ponitz et al., 2009) suggest there is a positive association between behavioral engagement and achievement. Additionally, there is

evidence (e.g., Guo et al., 2011; Hughes, Luo, Kwok, & Loyd, 2008) that this relationship is bidirectional. However, studies with limited indicators of behavioral engagement (e.g., Connor, Jakobsons, Crowe, & Meadows, 2009) provide less evidence of such relationships.

For example, Connor et al. (2009) investigated the impact of first- through third-graders' behavioral engagement in Reading First classrooms on reading achievement utilizing hierarchical linear modeling. They found engagement to be positively related to reading comprehension outcomes in first grade, but not in second or third grade. These findings may have resulted from the limited way in which the researchers evaluated students' engagement (Fredricks et al., 2004). Specifically, the entire class's engagement was rated using a three-point scale, where the highest rating of three was given if nearly all students appeared to be actively participating in instruction or demonstrating on-task behavior. The researchers provided evidence of the measure's limitation in their description of the evaluation process: "students who were following along but not necessarily vocally participating were considered participating" (p.231). This narrow indicator of behavioral engagement arguably reflects more the degree to which students were complicit in expected classroom behavioral norms than whether they were exhibiting effort, persistence, or concentration. Put another way, there is no way to know whether students' reading, writing or thinking pertained to the classroom instructional topic or not.

Similarly, though Ponitz and Rimm-Kaufman (2011) investigated individual kindergarten students' behavioral engagement through hierarchical linear modeling, they broadly classified students as either involved or not involved, thus complicating their findings (children's behaviorally engaged time was not found to explain additional variance in relation to total time due to the majority of children being engaged the majority of the time). Regardless, the children who spent more time off-task during reading instruction generally had lower letter-word ID scores

and sound awareness scores than their more engaged peers, suggesting behavioral engagement positively contributes to achievement.

In an earlier study, Ponitz et al. (2009) did, however, more clearly demonstrate a positive relationship between kindergarten students' behavioral engagement and reading achievement via structural equation modeling when they found that higher classroom quality (as indicated by the quality of teachers' interactions with children) indirectly influenced reading achievement through increased behavioral engagement (a direct impact of classroom quality on achievement was not observed). Put another way, behavioral engagement mediated the effect of classroom quality on achievement. Within this study, children were individually evaluated on five indicators of behavioral engagement (i.e., overall engagement, attention, self-reliance, compliance, and disruptive behavior), creating a more multidimensional representation of behavioral engagement from which to collect and analyze data.

In the same vein, Hughes and Kwok (2007) found that lower-achieving first-graders' effort and attention positively influenced their reading achievement. They utilized a 10-item teacher-report scale to evaluate each participant's behavioral engagement with items encompassing "effort, attention, persistence and cooperative participation in learning" (p.43). Latent variable structural equation modeling indicated that: 1) student-teacher and parent-teacher relationships mediated the impact of students' background factors on behavioral engagement, and 2) students' behavioral engagement then mediated the impact of student-teacher and parent-teacher relationships on reading achievement the next year (as represented by *Woodcock-Johnson III Broad Reading W Scores*). In sum, the researchers concluded that student-teacher and parent-teacher relationships influence children's behavioral engagement which, in turn, impacts reading achievement. Similarly, Guo et al. (2011) demonstrated via structural equation modeling that first-grade reading

achievement outcomes (as measured by letter–word identification, picture vocabulary, and word attack subtests of the *Woodcock Johnson Psychoeducational Battery-Revised*) positively predicted third-graders' ($n = 1,364$) behavioral engagement (i.e., attention and self-reliance). Furthermore, third-grade reading engagement was found to positively influence reading achievement. The researchers concluded that “higher levels of children’s behavioral engagement were associated with higher reading achievement” (p.1).

In a longitudinal study of lower-achieving students spanning first to third grade, Hughes, Luo, Kwok, and Loyd (2008) demonstrated that behavioral engagement in second grade mediated the relationship between first-grade “teacher-student relationship quality (TSRQ)” and third-grade reading achievement, suggesting there to be a long-term impact of engagement on reading achievement in younger children (p.1). Again, the researchers relied upon a 10-item teacher report measure of behavioral engagement; however, this design also controlled for prior levels of the dependent variable (achievement), independent variable (TSRQ), and mediator (engagement). Furthermore, evidence of a bidirectional relationship between behavioral engagement and achievement was found, suggesting engagement influences achievement and achievement influences engagement.

However, a more recent longitudinal study did not find evidence of a bidirectional relationship between behavioral engagement and reading achievement; instead, Guo et al. (2015) found reading achievement to mainly predict behavioral engagement in young children. Guo and colleagues examined the cross-lagged relations between these variables across multiple timepoints by collecting data specific to engagement and achievement on students in preschool, first grade, third grade, and fifth grade. However, the tool utilized to measure behavioral engagement (*The Classroom Observation System*) was not used to collect behavioral data on students in preschool,

and therefore did not permit the researchers to look for a bidirectional relationship between preschool behavioral engagement and first-grade achievement. Furthermore, shorter-term outcomes (e.g., behavioral engagement in first grade as a predictor of reading achievement in second grade) were not investigated due to the data collection schedule (data was collected every other year). These are limitations of the study that limit its applicability to the current project.

These seven studies inform the present study in several ways: 1) more than one indicator of behavioral engagement (e.g., effort, persistence, attention, self-reliance) tends to better represent the complexity of the construct; 2) like motivation, reading engagement can be influenced by the environment (e.g., student-teacher relationship); 3) like motivation, reading engagement appears to influence reading achievement; and 4) like motivation, reading achievement appears to influence reading engagement. In relation to this dissertation's conceptual framework, these seven studies serve to support my decision to attempt to validate child participants' motivation-related perceptions of the reading intervention with adult reports of their behavioral engagement.

A Kindergarten Engagement Tool (n=1)

A final article found within the review of relevant literature investigated the psychometric properties of a teacher-report reading engagement tool for use with kindergarten students. *The Kindergarten Reading Engagement Scale (KRES)*, developed and tested by Clarke and colleagues (2004), consists of five items, three of which examine behavioral engagement with specific regard to effort (i.e., "How hard does this student work in reading?"), active participation ("How actively does this child participate in reading activities?"), and attention ("How well does this child pay attention in reading?") (p. 144). Two additional items strive to evaluate children's enjoyment and learning with regard to classroom reading engagement. The scale was found to have good internal consistency and test-retest reliability. However, due to the small sample size of 27 kindergarteners,

results should be interpreted with some caution. The wording of KRES items directly informed the behavioral engagement questionnaire (Appendix C) utilized in this study.

Limitations

More research is needed to say with certainty that a bidirectional relationship exists between early reading engagement and reading achievement. Furthermore, behavioral engagement appears to be one of three common dimensions of engagement that should be considered to more thoroughly investigate engagement (Fredricks et al., 2004). For this reason, participatory interviews intended to draw out students' motivation-related perceptions (i.e., benefits and costs) of a Tier 2 reading intervention program (which can also be considered representative of emotional engagement) have been incorporated into the current study to complement teacher and researcher reports of children's behavioral engagement.

Summary of Prior Literature and Rationale for Study Design

The current study acknowledges the limitations of the three bodies of literature just reviewed and builds upon their strengths in an effort to better understand how child participants' (N=14) motivation to read within a specific intervention program may have been shaped by the reading intervention program. First, the body of literature reviewed specific to the development of K-2 students' reading motivation suggests the importance of investigating young children's reading motivation in reference to the relationship between motivation and achievement. It also offers evidence that young children can self-report on their reading motivation when developmentally-appropriate methods are utilized. Furthermore, multiple studies attest to the relevance of E-V theory (this study's conceptual core) to the lived experiences of young readers. However, no studies surfaced directly probing young U.S. children's unconstrained motivation-

related perceptions (i.e., benefits and costs) of imposed Tier 2 reading interventions. The current study begins to address this gap in light of these understandings.

Although no literature framed by E-V theory could be found probing students' perceived costs of reading intervention, the three studies reviewed specifically investigating upper elementary and college students' perceived costs of physical activity are relevant to the current project in that they offer methodological insight regarding how cost perceptions might be successfully explored in other populations and across domains. As evidence and theory suggest, students' perceived programmatic costs can influence their desire to involve themselves in specific activities within programs as well as outside activities they perceive to be similar (Eckert et al., 2017; Flake et al., 2014). The three cost studies reviewed here informed the semi-structured interview questions (See Appendix E) utilized in this dissertation to elicit child participants' perceived programmatic benefits and costs associated with their reading intervention involvement.

Additionally, studies conducted mainly in the U.K. and Australia and framed by the new sociology of childhood have successfully probed students' perceptions of literacy programming and, as such, have given children voice; they offer valuable methodologic insight regarding how such perceptions might be elicited from students participating in studies in the U.S. and elsewhere. That said, the studies framed by the new sociology of childhood reviewed here generally do not ground students' motivation-related perceptions (e.g., attitudes, self-efficacy, values) in relevant theoretical and/or empirical literature; a well-supported rationale for why students' motivation-related perceptions matter with specific regard to their influence on learning and/or achievement was largely absent. As such, an opportunity to advocate for children's adaptive learning is missed. The current study seizes upon the participatory approaches

characteristic of studies framed by the new sociology of childhood to elicit students' understandings (See Appendices D and E) and utilizes the frame of children's rights as an additional rationale for surveying students' motivation-related perceptions of programming.

Lastly, as a means of securing additional trust for students' motivation-related perceptions of intervention, the current study draws upon the behavioral engagement literature. Though admittedly only one of three dimensions of engagement that are posited to contribute to overall engagement, behavioral engagement can generally be considered symptomatic of students' underlying motivation (Unrau & Quirk, 2014). Examining this dimension through adult reports complements the investigation of children's motivation-related programmatic perceptions (i.e., perceived benefits and costs) through participatory interviews; students' perceptions resemble the dimension of emotional engagement (Fredricks et al., 2004) and so two of the three dimensions of children's engagement are considered. Evidence (e.g., Hughes & Kwok, 2007) suggests behavioral engagement, like motivation, positively influences achievement, making the construct all the more relevant to the present investigation. In Chapter 3 the methods informed by this literature review will be described in greater detail.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Chapter 1 of this dissertation explains why the research questions are being asked. Chapter 2 situates the present study in relevant empirical literature. Specifically, what we know more generally about young children's reading motivation is discussed, and the fact that we know very little about young children's motivation-related perceptions of reading intervention programming is highlighted. Although no literature exists specifically probing children's perceived costs of reading intervention, several studies investigating older students' perceived costs of educational programming were reviewed, as they offer methodological insight regarding how cost perceptions might be successfully explored in this study. Additionally, literature framed by the new sociology of childhood is examined to attest to the successful elicitation of young children's unconstrained perspectives, and literature examining young children's reading engagement is explored to demonstrate how adult reports of children's behavioral engagement might complement children's motivation-related perceptions within this study. In this chapter, I explain how the research questions will be answered. The step-by-step description and the justification of methods and procedures that follows is intended to assist future researchers who seek to replicate this study.

Study Design

The purpose of this dissertation is to represent a more nuanced and comprehensive portrayal of child participants' unique motivation-related perceptions and experiences in a Tier 2 pull-out reading intervention program from which informed inferences about how the program potentially shaped students' developing motivation to read within it can be made. To do this, I elected to use a qualitative case-study design (Merriam, 1998) for several key reasons. First, a

case study design facilitates the creative collection and combining of multiple types of ethnographic data (e.g., interviews, fieldnotes, observations) from a variety of sources (i.e., children, reading specialists, researcher) within a bounded system (i.e., a specific Tier 2 reading intervention program; Lichtinger & Kaplan, 2015; Merriam, 1998; Yazan, 2015). The combining of ethnographic data types from multiple members of the system's community (i.e., student, reading specialist, researcher) better ensures that participants' understandings are adequately understood and communicated by the researcher (Geertz, 1973; Maxwell, 2013; Merriam, 1998). Furthermore, a qualitative case-study design derived from a multitude of sources aligns with the critical realist epistemological position (Maxwell, 2012) through which I view the world. This position, though rooted in ontological realism, or the belief that an actual world "exists independently of our perceptions, theories and constructions," concurrently recognizes that "our understanding of this world is inevitably a construction from our own perspectives and standpoint" (Maxwell, 2012, p.5). In sum, data of varying types and from differing perspectives permits the triangulation of findings and, in turn, leads to more accurate conclusions (Geertz, 1973; Maxwell, 2012; 2013).

Additionally, the employment of a qualitative case-study design suits the project as it does not confine the investigation of motivation-related factors in the way quantitative psychological investigations often do (Kaplan, 2016; Merriam, 1998; Smith et al., 2005). In advocating for more qualitative investigations focusing on children's understandings specific to schooling, Grau and Walsh (1998) criticized the way "researchers often reduce the complex realities of children's lives to scores on instruments and questionnaires, to counts of individual behaviors, or to behaviors in contrived settings" (p.3). Motivation has been evidenced to be influenced by a multitude of contextual factors (Kaplan, 2016; Lichtinger & Kaplan, 2015;

Marinak, 2013), some of which surfaced in previous pilot work (Erickson, in press) examining young students' motivation-related perceptions and some of which did not, thus supporting the need for a flexible qualitative design open to capturing students' diverse motivation-related perceptions. Furthermore, as no studies of young U.S. children's motivation-related perceptions specific to Tier 2 reading interventions surfaced in a review of the literature and the understudied construct of cost has not been studied within this population specific to reading motivation, the constraining of motivational variables was all the more inappropriate (Chen & Liu, 2009).

Social variables (e.g., peer collaboration; Nolen, 2001), educators' general instructional approaches (e.g., child-centered approaches vs. skills-based approaches; Stipek et al., 1995), and specific curricular materials (e.g., eBooks; Ciampa, 2016) are a few of the many factors evidenced within the motivation literature to influence children's reading motivation in specific situations; these and/or others could potentially arise in students' spontaneous utterances and semi-structured interview responses. As K-2 students' motivation-related perceptions, an area in desperate need of additional study, are the primary focus of this research, it is essential that their understandings not be narrowly confined. A qualitative case-study approach not only allows for the emergence and further investigation of any and all motivational factors perceived by students during the study, but also permits the triangulation of findings across information types (e.g., interviews, fieldnotes, questionnaire) and sources (e.g., students, reading specialists, researcher; Lichtinger & Kaplan, 2015; Merriam, 1998) which serves to "[balance] the limitations of interviewing young children" (McGhee-Brown, 1995, p.202).

As alluded to above, conducting research with young children poses methodological challenges stemming in large part from developmental issues (Lichtinger & Kaplan, 2015; Measelle et al., 1998; O'Reilly & Dogra, 2017). These challenges notably include a less-

developed capacity for expressive language and a shorter attention span. Furthermore, the traditional standing of children in a lower position of power in relation to adults can threaten the validity of findings (Graue & Walsh, 1998; Hatch, 1995; O'Reilly & Dogra, 2017). However, many empirical investigations (e.g., Clark & Moss, 2001; Daniels et al., 2001; Harris, 2015; Measelle et al., 1998; Smith et al., 2005) have largely overcome such challenges through the use of participatory methods which encourage children to execute some control over the research process (e.g., children operating recording equipment, children leading walking tour interviews). Participatory approaches often include use of concrete supports (e.g., photographs, manipulatives, props, physical spaces, drawings) and other developmentally-sensitive techniques (e.g., modifying phrasing and vocabulary during interviews to better facilitate understanding) which better facilitate the accurate elicitation of children's views (O'Reilly & Dogra, 2017). A qualitative case-study design permits the flexibility necessary to incorporate and adapt research methods to more closely align with participants' strengths and needs beforehand and in the moment. In sum, this design is especially advantageous to the current project in so much as students' motivation-related understandings can be flexibly elicited and considered alongside reading specialist and researcher perceptions of students' engagement within the reading intervention program.

Research Questions

The following questions guided this dissertation:

RQ1. What, if any, distinction do kindergarten, first-, and second-grade students in the sample make between reading instruction occurring in the reading intervention setting and in the general classroom?

RQ2. What, if anything, do K-2 students enrolled in reading intervention at the Mayflower School (pseudonym) perceive to be the benefits and/or costs of their involvement in reading intervention?

RQ3. What do students' perceived benefits and costs reveal about the ways in which their basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (as defined within the SDT motivation literature) are supported in intervention sessions?

RQ4. In what ways do students' perceptions of intervention align with or differ from reading specialist and researcher perceptions of students' behavioral engagement in intervention?

Setting

The school selected for study, Mayflower Elementary (pseudonym), is located in a predominantly white (92%) middle-class suburban town. 13% of students are considered “economically disadvantaged,” according to the 2017-2018 demographic data reported by the State Department of Education, while 6% were reported to speak a first language other than English (Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2018). The K-5 school was selected primarily due to my familiarity with the reading intervention program occurring there in conjunction with the established relationships I had maintained with school leadership and staff; such relationships largely permitted the five-month data collection period to occur. Before beginning my doctoral work at the University of New Hampshire, I served as the school's reading specialist and literacy coach and had largely earned the trust of the school's principal, teachers, and parents. The site was considered ideal for this study due to my general understanding of the Tier 2 literacy intervention offered, the quality of the educators delivering the intervention (as indicated by specialists' professional credentials and years of experience), and my lack of familiarity with the students currently enrolled in the intervention program. After

I presented the research proposal to the school principal, she granted permission for the work to proceed.

Intervention

The intervention offered to students can be considered balanced in that it integrated all five pillars of reading (phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension) identified by the National Reading Panel (2000) as essential in promoting reading achievement plus writing. The intervention, which was designed by the lead reading specialist (Mrs. Lori) and executed by her and another certified reading specialist (Mrs. Casey), typically substituted phonological and/or phonics activities (e.g., building words, letter keyword sound drill, letter formation) from Wilson *Foundations* (Wilson Language Training, 2018) for the word work portion of Fountas and Pinnell's *Leveled Literacy Intervention* (LLI) (Fountas & Pinnell, 2018). For example, letter keyword sound drills generally consisted of one or more students saying a letter or letter combination printed on a *Foundations* cue card, then saying the keyword associated with that letter(s) (also on the cue card), and finally making the associated sound; multiple cue cards were drilled within a short period of time. The *Foundations* scope and sequence utilized in the intervention were selected based on students' grade levels and assessed needs (e.g., first-grade intervention students were placed within the first-grade *Foundations* scope and sequence based on needs identified with an associated placement test). LLI is a grade-specific system of leveled texts, roughly half of which are fiction and the other half nonfiction; the system includes multiple color (for school) and black-and-white (for home) copies of each text to facilitate a guided reading-like experience for students at school that can be extended at home with repeated readings. LLI further arms the reading interventionist with detailed text-specific lessons that address the five essential pillars of reading as well as writing.

Both packaged reading programs argue that they are research-based, and the U.S. government has endorsed the general effectiveness of LLI in promoting early reading achievement (What Works Clearinghouse, 2017). Students who were not on individualized education plans but were identified by the school as not meeting grade-level reading benchmarks on assessments such as the Developmental Reading Assessment were assembled into grade-level groupings of three to five students; the groups were then pulled three or four times per week for targeted (with specific regard to placement in LLI texts) and balanced intervention sessions that generally lasted between 20 and 30 minutes. The Mayflower school considered the intervention program a Tier 2 reading support under the RTI umbrella. As such, sessions were targeted in that students' individual differences (e.g., reading level, phonics needs) were carefully considered during lesson planning. These sessions were typically scheduled during classroom reading workshop time; reading workshop, which mainly consisted of strategy instruction (mini-lesson) and independent reading practice, occurred daily for about an hour. Students' classroom phonics instruction, which was typically comprised of scripted Wilson *Foundations* lessons (15-20 minutes long), was intentionally not interrupted so as to ensure students received both phonics instructional periods.

The reading intervention took place in a converted classroom; cubicle dividers split up the space so that three groups (two for reading intervention and one for students receiving English language support) could meet at the same time with some privacy. Each of the two reading spaces were decorated with a large white board, sight word word-wall, and several *Foundations* anchor charts. *Foundations* anchor charts illustrated the letter and keyword for each letter of the alphabet and other important phonics concepts including vowel teams and digraphs. Each reading specialist (Mrs. Lori and Mrs. Casey) typically sat behind a medium-sized table

with her back to the whiteboard. The small group of students sat around the table. Three cloth floor chairs were scattered on the floor nearby and served as spaces for children to spread out and read independently. Mrs. Lori (lead reading specialist) and Mrs. Casey (supporting reading specialist) each had their desks in opposite corners of the room, adjacent to their cubicle spaces. Children occasionally met them at their desks during intervention sessions for individual progress monitoring assessments.

During the pull-out intervention, students most often reread one or more LLI books (5-10 minutes), did several short *Foundations* activities (5-7 minutes), began a new LLI book (7-10 minutes), and drafted written responses to text-based prompts (5-7 minutes) as time permitted. Writing was often the activity eliminated if time ran out. Kindergarten students tended to spend more time involved in phonological and/or phonics activities than did first- and second-grade students. Specifically, in kindergarten sessions, *Foundations*-based phonological awareness and phonics activities were often substituted for the 5-10 minutes of rereading that typically occurred at the start of intervention in first and second grade, nearly doubling the amount of time kindergarten students were involved in these types of activities.

Participants

Once the University of New Hampshire Internal Review Board and principal approval for the study were received, I met with the head reading specialist, Mrs. Lori, to invite her to participate and to ask for her help in disseminating and collecting student information and consent packets to parents as well as recruiting the school's second reading specialist for participation in the study. At the time of the study, Mrs. Lori was in her third year as head reading specialist and coach of the building. Before arriving at Mayflower, she had worked as a Speech and Language Pathologist and/or reading specialist in three other New England public

school systems. She had been certified in a variety of literacy intervention techniques including Orton-Gillingham, Lindamood Phoneme Sequencing (LIPS) Program, and Reading Recovery. Mrs. Casey, who was also a state-certified reading specialist, worked under the direction of Mrs. Lori as a reading interventionist. Mrs. Casey adapted (as needed) and delivered the programming to her intervention groups that Mrs. Lori designed. Mrs. Casey was a certified Wilson Reading System teacher. The two women had at least a decade of experience each serving public school children at the time of the study.

Once both reading specialists had agreed to participate in the study, I began conducting informal observations and taking fieldnotes as a participant observer to gain familiarity with the intervention program as a whole. Mrs. Lori sent home the information and consent packets (See Appendix B) I had generated with all kindergarten, first-grade, and second-grade intervention students the first week of January 2018. The qualitative sampling strategy employed can be considered both “purposeful” and “convenient” (Maxwell, 2013, p.97; O’Reilly & Dogra, 2017, pp. 80-81). The strategy was purposeful in that it “deliberately” aimed to include at least three students (who were not on individualized education plans for language-based disabilities, had attended intervention for at least six weeks, and had returned consent and demographic paperwork) from each of the three early grade levels (K-2) to capture a range of age-specific perceptions (Maxwell, 2013, p.97). In essence, grade-specific groups, or “panels,” of child-experts on the intervention program were assembled from which motivation-related perceptions were later elicited (Maxwell, 2013, p.97). The sample can also be considered convenient due to the familiarity of the setting and the aim of including the first 15 students to return signed consent forms and demographic paperwork (O’Reilly & Dogra, 2017). However, as gaining access to study multiple young struggling readers within a specific reading intervention program

can be especially challenging, a sampling strategy that relies upon convenience is entirely justifiable (Maxwell, 2013; Weiss, 1994). All first-grade (n=5), second-grade (n=4), and kindergarten (n=8) students who returned completed paperwork by the third week in January (2018) were initially included in the study. A first-grade boy and a kindergarten boy were dropped from the study in March due to qualifying for language-based special education services, and a kindergarten girl was also dropped in March due to her exit from the program (which eliminated her availability for interviewing and video recording).

The final student sample (N=14) consisted of four boys and ten girls. Tables 3.1-3.3 (below) present general information (i.e., name, age at start of study, grade, sex, interventionist) about each child participant. For additional context, the tables also include information regarding whether the child was or had received additional outside literacy tutoring at the time of the study and most recent Developmental Reading Assessment (DRA) independent level (the school prioritized the independent level). It is also important to note that Alyssa was receiving English language support five times a week for 45 minutes during the study, as she was identified by school and state as an English language learner (ELL) of developing proficiency; Alyssa's first language is Portuguese. Oral assent was sought individually from students before all interviews and video recordings.

Table 3.1 Second-Grade Participant Information

Name	Age as of 01/06/2018	Grade	Sex	Interventionist	Receives Outside Supplemental Reading Support	September 2017 DRA Independent Reading Level
Lizzy	7	2 nd	F	Mrs. Casey	No	12 (middle of 1)
Henry	8	2 nd	M	Mrs. Casey	No	8 (middle of 1)
Vivian	8	2 nd	F	Mrs. Casey	No	12 (middle of 1)
Alyssa*	7	2 nd	F	Mrs. Lori	No	8 (middle of 1)

*denotes ELL

Table 3.2 First-Grade Participant Information

Name	Age as of 01/06/2018	Grade	Sex	Interventionist	Receives Outside Supplemental Reading Support	September 2017 DRA Independent Reading Level
Penelope	6	1st	F	Mrs. Lori	No	1 (beginning of k)
Josh	7	1st	M	Mrs. Lori	No	2 (middle of k)
Madison	7	1st	F	Mrs. Casey	No	3 (end of k)
Agnes	6	1st	F	Mrs. Casey	No	3 (end of k)

Table 3.3 Kindergarten Participant Information

Name	Age as of 01/06/2018	Grade	Sex	Interventionist	Receives Outside Supplemental Reading Support	March 2018 DRA Independent Reading Level
Jacob	5	K	M	Mrs. Lori	No	1 (beginning/middle of k)
Izzy	5	K	F	Mrs. Lori	No	1 (beginning/middle of k)
Hope	5	K	F	Mrs. Lori	No	< 1 (beginning of k)
Chrissy	5	K	F	Mrs. Lori	No	< 1 (beginning of k)
Daniel	5	K	M	Mrs. Lori	No	< 1 (beginning of k)
Sadie	5	K	F	Mrs. Lori	No	< 1 (beginning of k)

Data Collection

Informal and Formal Observations of Intervention

During the month of January (2018), I spent approximately six hours per week conducting informal observations in which I acted primarily as a participant observer (Wragg, 1999) in the reading intervention program. Observations occurred throughout the duration of the study; however, they substantially decreased in frequency as I began to layer on other components of the study (i.e., student interviews and videos) and focused more specifically on the dataset currently being completed. Second-grade participant observations, from which fieldnotes were largely generated, ended in February. First-grade participant observations ended in March, and Kindergarten observations ended in May. Participant observation is a common feature of qualitative designs involving young children (Einarsdottir, Dockett, & Perry, 2009; Wragg, 1999), as the method permits a more complete picture of what occurs in the classroom

including children's lived experiences and teachers' instructional approaches (Graue & Walsh, 1998; Wragg, 1999).

My "sustained presence" and action in the intervention setting allowed me to become a part of the community, thus permitting me to gain trust amongst and familiarity with the school community members (e.g., children, reading specialists, classroom teachers) as well as general intervention routines early on; over time my involvement allowed me to garner a sense of individual children's typical behavioral engagement patterns in intervention (Maxwell, 2013, p.126). Furthermore, I elected to be actively involved in the program for several months in accordance with Maxwell's (2013) endorsement of prolonged participant observation as a provider of "more complete data about specific situations and events than any other method" (p.126). Put another way, my prolonged engagement in the setting as a participant observer enhanced the study's overall validity (Maxwell, 2013). I took fieldnotes reflecting specifically on what occurred instructionally (e.g., word work, repeated reading, writing) in each intervention session I was privy to as well as on children's behavioral responses (utterances and actions) to the various instructional components as they stood out to me throughout my time at the school. The notes served as "an essential grounding and resource for writing broader, more coherent accounts of [children's reading intervention] lives and concerns" largely in adherence with the recommendations of Emerson, Fretz, and Shaw (2011, p.15).

From January 8th through the 17th I was largely unaware of who target students would be, and so I observed and interacted with all intervention groups (K-2). Although I took occasional notes specific to instructional methods and routines during intervention sessions as I was able on a pad of paper, the bulk of my fieldnotes were generated and/or refined during down time in between groups or at the end of the day. All notes were transferred to an electronic fieldnote

Microsoft Word document which I reviewed often. Once I learned the identities of target children, my involvement and fieldnotes became more focused on specific intervention groups and individuals. In total, I took 32 single-spaced pages of typed fieldnotes.

In addition to fieldnotes, I periodically generated short subjectivity memos (Maxwell, 2013) as or shortly after I experienced strong reactions to specific situations. Being a former reading specialist who occupied the same physical space (the current program takes place in the same room in which I ran my former program), I occasionally experienced strong emotions in response to both reading specialists' instruction. For example, I was struck by the small amount of time kindergarten students read connected text; I found myself concerned that they would not understand how the work they were doing in intervention transferred to real reading. Recognizing feelings like this in brief subjectivity memos enabled me to be conscious of my underlying biases and, in turn, better able to separate my own reactions toward specific practices out from my interpretation of students' behaviors (Maxwell, 2013).

Lastly, I video-recorded a minimum of two intervention sessions per target child from which I more closely observed and analyzed students' behavioral engagement in intervention, or the interactions between target children and the intervention; 22 videos each representing a single intervention session (approximately 20 to 30 minutes per session) were recorded in total. Video data allowed me to more comprehensively analyze each child's behavioral engagement specific to what was occurring within the reading intervention (Graue & Walsh, 1998; Parkinson, 2001). If more than two videos per student were available (e.g., some groups included multiple target children and so more than two videos were necessary to capture the faces of all target children twice), I analyzed the two for which the student was most clearly visible (e.g., student was seated more directly in the camera's line of sight). I was able to review video data multiple

times and manipulate the viewing pace and, as a result, better document evidence of individual children's behavioral engagement (Grau & Walsh, 1998). Logged video data, in which I noted students' engagement behaviors in reference to the time, served as the primary source from which I completed the same behavioral engagement questionnaire (described in detail below) as reading specialists specific to each target child; one questionnaire was completed per video session, resulting in two researcher questionnaires and one reading specialist questionnaire per child.

Reading Specialist Questionnaire and Follow-Up Interview

In an effort to better understand how target children's reading motivation specific to intervention was being shaped within the reading intervention program as well as to facilitate the "triangulation of data collection methods and data sources," reading specialists were asked to provide information related to students' behavioral engagement during intervention sessions (Hatch, 1995, p.202). In line with Hatch's (1995) recommendations for the effective use of questionnaires within qualitative research designs involving young children, the reading specialist questionnaire (Appendix C) employed in this study was short (i.e., comprised of seven engagement questions), open-ended, and clearly worded with regard to the construct of interest (all items were previously found to be empirically valid and reliable indicators of engagement and/or behavioral engagement specifically). To further ensure construct validity, I created and revised the questionnaire in collaboration with my doctoral advisor Dr. Wharton-McDonald (Maxwell, 2013; Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002).

In accordance with Unrau and Quirk's (2014) view of the "observable involvement of academic tasks (e.g., effort, persistence, concentration, attention, etc.)" as "the most salient definition of behavioral engagement's impact on learning," the reading specialist questionnaire

strived to evaluate each target child's general behavioral engagement in reading intervention (p.266). Items from two engagement tools which had been previously validated specific to young children were adapted and combined to accomplish this. Four items from Clarke and colleagues' (2004) five-item *Kindergarten Reading Engagement Scale* (KRES) were adapted and included in the current tool; questions were reworded to fit the reading intervention context (e.g., "How hard does this student work in *reading intervention*?"). Additionally, space was included beneath each question so that educators could provide an associated rationale to support each numerical Likert-scale rating (where a rating of 1 indicated "Much less than other students in intervention", 2 indicated "Somewhat less," 3 indicated "About as much," and 4 indicated "Somewhat more"). Three additional items were adapted from Ponitz et al.'s (2009) previously validated *Observed Child Engagement Scale* (OCES) to represent a more complete range of engagement behaviors. These additional items strived to survey reading specialists' perceptions of target children's overall engagement, self-reliance, and frequency of disruptive behaviors within intervention sessions (See Appendix C for full questionnaire).

Questionnaires were distributed to reading specialists in three waves. Second-grade questionnaires were distributed and collected first (late February 2018); this was soon after the completion of second-grade interviews and video observations. First-grade questionnaires were distributed and collected next (early April 2018) after the completion of first-grade interviews and observations. Kindergarten questionnaires were distributed and collected in May of 2018. Follow-up interviews with reading specialists served to confirm my interpretation of information conveyed on the questionnaires, permitted reading specialists to note any major changes in students' engagement since completing the questionnaire, and permitted the asking of any lingering questions regarding the behavioral engagement of individual students that emerged

during initial analysis; interviews served as an additional means of triangulation (Maxwell, 2013). In sum, interviews lasted about 40 minutes and asked reading specialists to confirm my understanding of their evaluation of each child's typical behavioral engagement in the reading intervention.

Student Interviews

The two types of child interviews employed within this study strived to recognize target children as experts with regard to their lived experiences (Clark, 2007; Langsted, 1994) as a means of better understanding how the specific reading intervention program was potentially shaping their developing motivation to read in the intervention setting. This goal required “a keen eye to [children’s] needs, rather than to the needs of the research project” and thus commanded “attention to the special circumstances that allow children to show us their worlds” (Graue & Walsh, 1998, p.13). As mentioned previously, methodological challenges often associated with the developmental immaturity of young children as well as adult-child power dynamics have been presented as risks to study validity that can be overcome with appropriate research techniques (Clark & Moss, 2001; O’Reilly & Dogra, 2017).

Developmentally-sensitive interview strategies. Traditional interview techniques utilized with adults have been demonstrated to be less effective in eliciting desired information from young children (Grau & Walsh, 1998; Measelle et al., 1998; O’Reilly & Dogra, 2017). However, when researchers adapt interview methods in developmentally-appropriate ways, young children have been found to be quite adept at sharing their perceptions (e.g., Clark & Moss, 2001; Einarsdottir, 2007; Einarsdottir et al., 2009; Grau & Walsh, 1998; Measelle et al., 1998; O’Reilly & Dogra, 2017). A semi-structured format, hypothetical questions, and participatory approaches that permit students some control over the process are several

techniques researchers have employed successfully with young children and, as such, were utilized in the present study.

Semi-structured interviews allow the researcher flexibility in phrasing and rephrasing questions to better facilitate understanding; “This means that the researcher can actively listen to what the children say during an interview and use these responses to modify or change questions, or even ask new ones that are relevant to the individual experience of the participant” (O’Reilly & Dogra, 2017, p.39). Language flexibility, permitting the researcher to incorporate children’s own lexicon and syntax into questioning, has been employed with success in numerous empirical investigations (e.g., Clark & Moss, 2001; Eder, 1989; Einarsdottir, 2007; Measelle et al., 1998). For example, Measelle and colleagues (1998) combined the use of puppets with children’s own speaking styles and permitted children to respond to questions verbally or non-verbally (by pointing to ratings); the Berkeley Puppet Interview (BPI) has repeatedly been found to be a valid measure of young children’s self-perceptions about school adjustment. Additionally, *hypothetical questions* can be integrated and adapted during semi-structured interviews. This mode of questioning can feel less threatening to children in that pressure to provide a single “correct” answer is decreased (Graue & Walsh, 1998). Both of these techniques (flexible use of language and hypothetical questioning) were used successfully in a pilot study (Erickson, in press) to elicit young children’s motivation-related perceptions of a camp guided reading intervention.

Participatory approaches to interviewing cast child participants as active agents in research and can partially offset power imbalances; they promote autonomy, engagement, and, in turn, the construction of meaning which can then be more readily shared with the researcher (Clark & Moss, 2001; O’Reilly & Dogra, 2017; Parkinson, 2001). A wide range of participatory

methods exist (e.g., photography, drawing, storytelling, walking tours). Conversational interviews that involve *drawing* are often employed to relax young children and focus their attention on a topic in a concrete way that is familiar to them (O'Reilly & Dogra, 2017). The use of *concrete supports* such as drawings, photographs, and other props have been recommended as a developmentally-appropriate way of encouraging young children to maintain attention during interviews (e.g., Cappello, 2005; Clark, 2005; 2007; Einarsdottir et al., 2009; Graue & Walsh, 1998; Measelle et al., 1998). Additionally, the act of drawing has been credited with promoting active participant engagement, permitting children time to think before verbally responding, providing multiple opportunities for meaning clarification, partially offsetting adult-child power imbalances (by decreasing eye-contact demands and by encouraging more student control), and providing an additional mode of self-expression (Clark, 2005; 2007; Einarsdottir, 2007; Einarsdottir et al., 2009; Parkinson, 2001). Within the current study, the method of inviting children to draw and converse during and after composition was rooted in the recommendations of Einarsdottir and colleagues (2009) and was employed as a way “to access young children’s views and experiences” by “paying attention to their narratives and interpretations” (p.217).

In general, researchers (e.g., Clark, 2007; Dockett & Perry, 1999; Einarsdottir, 2007; Einarsdottir et al., 2009) who have employed drawing approaches in research with young children recommend paying particular attention to what children say as they draw and/or engaging children in related conversation afterwards. The richness found in students’ words can be more insightful than what is gleaned from the researcher analyzing the child’s artwork, as the words are derived directly from the child’s understandings (Einarsdottir et al., 2009; Stanczak, 2007). For example, in her work with five- and six-year-olds in Iceland, Einarsdottir (2005) utilized child drawings as one means of better understanding how children perceived life in their

preschool. Specifically, children were asked to draw what they liked about their preschool on the front of a piece of paper and what they disliked on the back. Students were then asked to explain their drawings; student responses were recorded by the researcher. Children's responses were analyzed alongside other data sources including group interviews and photographs to better understand children's perceptions of preschool.

Einarsdottir and colleagues (2009) utilized a similar approach in asking primary children to share insights specific to their school experiences and concluded that "the activity of asking children to reflect upon their experiences [while drawing] has been a very successful strategy" (p.221). Einarsdottir and colleagues (2009) further recommend that the researcher conduct the drawing interview with the child in a familiar context so as to avoid the influence of the teacher on the drawing and associated conversation and decrease the likelihood that the child will view the task as "work" (p.222).

Inviting students to lead the researcher on a *walking tour* is another participatory technique that has been used effectively to elicit the understandings of young children. Specifically, Clark and Moss (2001) have gained much notoriety for incorporating this technique into their "Mosaic Approach", or multidimensional methodological framework for listening to young children in early childhood settings all over the world. Other researchers (e.g., Hart, 1997; Langsted, 1994) have also employed a walking-tour style of interviewing young children with success.

During a walking tour interview, the child takes the researcher on a "guided walk" around the classroom, school, or other setting of interest (Clark, 2005; Clark & Moss, 2001). During the tour, the child exerts some control over not only where she or he and the researcher physically move, but also what the pair focus their joint attention on. For example, if giving a

tour of the general classroom, the child might organically direct the researcher's attention (or the researcher might prompt the child) to a favorite activity center or object that then becomes a central topic of discussion. An additional aspect of walking tours over which children can exercise autonomy is the manipulation of recording devices (cameras, audio recorders, and video recorders); for example, the child decides when to commence the tour by pressing record. Walking tours may be especially effective in eliciting the perceptions of primary-aged children due to the accessibility of concrete supports (e.g., the physical space and everything inside it) in combination with the amount of control child participants are able to maintain during the process. Students' autonomy is often constrained in schools; a substantial power differential exists between children and adults in school settings (O'Reilly & Dogra, 2017). Traditional interviews reinforce this dynamic. However, the more conversational nature of walking tours in combination with a balancing of participant and researcher control promotes a greater sense of equality (Clark & Moss, 2001); the child has something important to teach the researcher which involves autonomy of expression.

Procedures. Two participatory interviews per student were conducted to investigate target students' intervention-related perceptions between the months of February and June. Second-grade students were interviewed at the end of January and into early February, first-grade participants were interviewed in late February and March, and kindergarten students were interviewed in April and May. Kindergarten students were interviewed last due to kindergarten intervention programming beginning in November of 2017 (all other groups commenced in September). The two interviews served as the primary data sources informing the study. All students completed a conversational drawing interview before completing a walking tour interview. The two consecutive interviews occurred no more than ten days apart for each student.

Both interviews were comprised of a semi-structured format (though the first was far less structured than the second), and student assent was obtained at the start of each activity.

Interview procedures and questions (See Appendix D and Appendix E for drawing and walking tour protocols respectively) were informed by previous E-V studies (Chen & Liu, 2009; Watkinson et al., 2005) probing older students' perceived programmatic benefits and costs of physical education in combination with established participatory methods literature detailing how to interview young children as active agents in research via drawings and walking tours (e.g., Clark & Moss, 2001; Einarsdottir et al., 2009; O'Reilly & Dogra, 2017). Additionally, protocols were informed by previous pilot work (Erickson, in press) probing primary students' perceptions of a guided reading intervention occurring at a thematic summer camp.

First interview: conversational drawing. The first interview was largely unstructured, though a few common semi-structured questions (e.g., “Can you tell me about your drawing?”) were utilized to facilitate procedural understanding and prompt conversation as needed. Ahead of the interview, I coordinated with classroom teachers and reading specialists to establish a quiet area out of the way inside the classroom/reading intervention room or right outside of it in an effort to make children feel more comfortable (Einarsdottir et al., 2009). Most teachers placed a desk right outside of the room permitting children to peer into the classroom. In line with Einarsdottir and colleagues' (2009) recommendations for conducting drawing interviews with primary-aged children, I invited each child individually to participate in a drawing activity with me and explained that it involved drawing how he or she did reading in the classroom and how she or he did reading in the intervention room. Child assent was achieved before conducting the interview.

Students were invited to operate the audio recorder and were provided with a sheet of white drawing paper and a selection of drawing instruments (pencils, markers, crayons, etc.). Once the audio recorder had been turned on, I asked the student whether he or she would prefer drawing himself or herself doing classroom reading or intervention reading first. We then walked together to that space where the student drew and talked about the first picture. Upon completing the first drawing, we walked to the second space and repeated the procedure. To engage the child in conversation about the picture, various prompts were used as needed such as: “Can you tell me about what you are drawing?” and “Who is that?” and “What is the teacher doing there?”. Students’ drawings were used as needed to generate conversation during the second interview.

Second interview: walking tour. The second semi-structured interview began right outside of the general classroom where, upon receiving assent from the student and turning on the recorder, I posed the hypothetical question, “Let’s pretend that your teacher said you could stay here and do reading in the classroom or go do reading with Mrs. (specialist’s name) in the reading room. Which would you choose to do?” After exploring the child’s rationale on the spot, I invited him or her to give me a tour of the space that corresponded to the choice, encouraging him or her to describe how he or she did reading in that space. I then asked the remainder of the semi-structured questions (Appendix E), probing the student’s likes and dislikes specific to instruction in that space. Sample questions included, “Can you tell me what you like about doing reading in here?” and “Is there anything you don’t like about doing reading in here?” Afterwards, we toured the space not chosen and repeated the above procedure.

Data Analysis

Due in large part to the waterfall approach to collection of child observational and interview data (i.e., second-graders, followed by first-graders and then kindergarten students)

over the period of five months, the bulk of data was analyzed in three specific sets organized by grade level. The primary exception was reading specialist interviews, which were collected at the end of the study (i.e., May-June) and transcribed and analyzed over the summer; these interviews mainly served to further confirm findings that emerged from the already intact datasets. Each grade level dataset was comprised of fieldnotes and memos, verbatim transcripts of student drawing and walking tour interviews, reading specialist behavioral engagement questionnaires, reading specialist interviews, and researcher behavioral engagement questionnaires.

Phase 1: Transcribing, Video Logging, Reformatting, and Initial Coding

In phase one of analysis, I transcribed all student interviews in the grade-level dataset myself and provided first-cycle/initial descriptive codes, preserving participants' own words (*in vivo* codes) whenever possible to immerse myself in the data (Charmaz, 2006; Miles et al., 2014). These first codes were done by hand; I highlighted the actual transcripts and scribbled *in vivo* codes in the margins. For example, *in vivo* codes relating to the benefits of intervention included, "We get to bring [the books] home!" and "It's really quiet [in the intervention room]". *In vivo* codes specific to intervention procedures included phrases such as "[Mrs. Lori] picks books...and sends them home." Memos in which I investigated emergent themes (e.g., noise as a barrier to reading) within and across datasets were generated in the moment and added to over time through the qualitative and mixed-methods software package, Dedoose (www.dedoose.com); Dedoose was also utilized for higher-level coding and analysis.

I then read through all fieldnotes relating to the dataset and assigned first-cycle descriptive codes again by hand. These codes typically signified procedural elements (e.g., "Word work: *Foundations* letter keyword sound card drill") and target children's behavioral engagement (e.g.,

“all students appeared engaged”). Fieldnotes (which I reorganized by student) were uploaded to Dedoose for higher-level analysis in the same manner as student interviews.

Next, I viewed all videos specific to the grade-level dataset to get an overall sense of participants’ engagement in intervention. Each video was then reviewed as many additional times as necessary to generate two detailed session logs per target child describing participants’ behaviors within the intervention session (See Appendix H for sample log). Put another way, I would view the video and log the behaviors and utterances of a single individual at a time using a video representation form and logging procedure adapted from Flewitt (2006). Two logs were completed per student; if more than two videos depicted a target student, the two videos within which the student was most directly in the camera’s line of sight were logged. Upon finalizing all student logs in the grade-level dataset, I completed the same behavioral engagement questionnaire that the reading specialists utilized to evaluate target students’ behavioral engagement. My ratings for the behavioral engagement questions (e.g., 3 = “About the same as other students in intervention”) on the form were supported by evidence taken directly from the associated log, which I noted in the spaces provided on the form. These logs were uploaded to Dedoose and linked to each student. They were further coded using Dedoose in the second phase of analysis.

Lastly, I reviewed and reformatted reading specialist behavioral engagement questionnaires (i.e. hand-written questionnaires were transferred into electronic files) and hired Landmark Associates Incorporated (<https://www.thelai.com/>) to transcribe reading specialist interviews as they became available. Interviews first marked up by hand with initial in vivo codes in the margins were then divided up by student and uploaded along with the reformatted engagement questionnaires to Dedoose. In sum, within phase one, I carefully reviewed the dataset in its

entirety before moving on to more focused coding and analysis as a means of heightening validity (Maxwell, 2013; Miles et al., 2014). Phase one was repeated for each dataset in the order data was collected (i.e., second grade, first grade, kindergarten).

Phase 2: Categorical Codes, Theoretical Codes, and Matrices

After reading through the dataset in its entirety and assigning initial codes to student interviews, fieldnotes, and reading specialist interviews, I simplified and consolidated the complex coding scheme into second-level, categorical codes (Miles et al., 2014) specific to the research questions and aided by the qualitative/mixed-methods, cloud-based software package, Dedoose. For example, a student’s description of an intervention routine, “We do magnet boards,” was coded as IR, or Intervention Routine. As a second example, a second-grade student’s response “It’s really quiet [in the intervention room]” was coded as a PBOI, or Personal Benefit of Intervention, to indicate that she found this aspect of intervention advantageous. Similarly, an in vivo code stemming from fieldnotes that read “Lizzie raises her hand [to answer reading specialist’s comprehension question]” was coded as PBE to indicate evidence of Positive Behavioral Engagement. After all student interviews were coded, a final set of categorical codes was organized into a coding manual that included definitions and examples specific to students’ perceived benefits and costs, engagement, and understandings about classroom and intervention reading programs.

At this point, I trained a graduate student in the categorical coding procedure; the student and I coded two anonymized first-grade walking tour interviews together for students’ perceived benefits and costs. Next, the graduate student was asked to first read through the anonymized set (n=4) of second-grade walking tour interviews and identify any sections where participants’ intervention benefits and costs were not already identified or identified inaccurately with first-

level, in vivo codes. None were found. The education master's student was next asked to apply second-level, categorical codes specific to the reading intervention (i.e., Personal Benefit of Intervention, Personal Cost of Intervention, Hypothetical Benefit of Intervention, and Hypothetical Cost of Intervention) using an excerpt of the researcher's code book (See Appendix F for the excerpt provided to graduate student) as another means of strengthening the study's validity and reliability (Miles et al., 2014). Overall interrater-reliability specific to categorical codes of second-grade walking tour interviews (as calculated by the total number of agreements for all codes divided by the total number of agreements and disagreements for all codes) was found to be 90%. This number is quite good given the complexity (several codes could often be applied to a single excerpt of text) of the exploratory coding scheme (Campbell, Quincy, Osserman, & Pederson, 2013).

Shortly thereafter, the graduate student was enlisted again to repeat the above process specific to the anonymized set of kindergarten (n=6) walking tour interviews. Again, the graduate student was asked first to identify any relevant portions within the kindergarten interviews that I neglected to code or coded inaccurately with first-level, in vivo codes. None were identified. After a brief review of the categorical (second-level) coding scheme specific to the remaining two anonymized first-grade walking tour interviews, the graduate student was asked to assign my second-level, categorical codes (specific to costs and benefits) to the kindergarten walking tour interview excerpts. Overall interrater-reliability specific to cost and benefit categorical codes of kindergarten walking tour interviews (as calculated by the total number of agreements for all codes divided by the total number of agreements and disagreements for all codes) was found to be 95%. Again, this number is acceptable.

Upon the completion of assigning categorical codes, theoretical codes (Charmaz, 2006; Maxwell, 2013; Miles et al., 2014) stemming from the E-V and SDT literature were layered on top as applicable. For example, a second-grade student's remark indicating that she preferred reading intervention over classroom reading time due to the quiet better enabling her to focus was coded as PBOI-UV to denote that this perceived positive benefit of reading intervention had utility value (in reference to E-V theory) for her; the quiet time provided within the intervention enabled her to better practice her reading because she could concentrate. This remark also earned a SDT code of "CS" (competence supportive), as the child credited the quiet of the intervention room with better enabling her to read assigned texts, thus supporting her psychological need to feel competent. A complete codebook with definitions can be found in Appendix G.

All codes were organized in a master matrix subdivided by student and generated by the Dedoose program (Miles et al., 2014). The matrix facilitated the quick retrieval of key information including each student's hypothetical choice (i.e., doing reading in the intervention room or in the classroom), description of intervention procedures, description of classroom reading procedures, perceived costs of intervention, perceived benefits of intervention, observed indicators of positive behavioral engagement, and observed indicators of negative behavioral engagement.

Phase 3: Extended Descriptions and Within-Case and Across-Case Thematic Memos

In phase three, an extended description (Boeije, 2010; Merriam, 1998), or miniature case-report, of each individual child within the dataset, aimed at both answering the research questions and supporting answers with detailed examples of students' perceptions and experiences in intervention, was composed. Relevant examples illustrating student-specific and subcase (grade-specific) trends were easily retrieved with the aid of Dedoose. For example, all

perceived intervention costs relayed by an individual or all individuals in a specific grade were represented in the master Dedoose frequency matrix; by clicking on the number of cost codes assigned, I easily accessed a print-out of all excerpts (i.e., articulated drawbacks) from which I was able to add illustrative examples to each extended description. After completing each student-specific extended description, I generated inferences rooted in the master matrix and rich descriptions about how the intervention was shaping the child's developing reading motivation specific to the intervention.

Upon the completion of all student-specific extended descriptions, analytic memos (Boeije, 2010; Charmaz, 2006; Maxwell, 2013; Miles et al., 2014) were generated tracing the similarities between individual children within the grade-level subcase or recurrent themes in relation to the research questions. Similarly, across-case themes were explored first in analytic memos upon the completion of all three grade-level cases. These themes often emerged from the master Dedoose code frequency matrix.

In the next three chapters, findings specific to each grade-level subcase are presented in detail. Chapter 4 will first present findings in relation to the research questions specific to each individual second-grade participant in the form of an extended description or miniature case report. Within-case themes by grade level and in relation to the research questions are synthesized at the end of the chapter. Chapters 5 and 6 adhere to a similar formula with respect to first-grade and then kindergarten participants. Across-case themes in relation to the research questions will be presented in Chapter 7 along with the study's conclusions and implications.

Chapter 4: Second-Grade Findings

Introduction

This chapter presents findings detailing how second-grade participants' (n=4) reading motivation specific to a balanced literacy Tier 2 reading intervention provided at the Mayflower school during the 2017-2018 school year was shaped within the intervention. The four child participants that made up the second-grade subcase were pulled for reading intervention from three different second-grade classrooms during classroom reading time; two students came from the same classroom. All general education classrooms (K-2) relied upon a traditional reader's workshop instructional model during classroom reading time. Information from classroom benchmark assessments (e.g., Developmental Reading Assessment) was combined with teacher recommendations to determine which students would attend reading intervention. The Developmental Reading Assessment (DRA) is an informal reading inventory that offers information about the learner's independent and instructional reading levels and provides diagnostic teaching recommendations. Upon being identified for intervention in September of 2017, the four students in the subcase were distributed across three intervention groups; two students were in the same intervention group. Basic demographic information specific to each child is presented below in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Second-Grade Participants' Demographics

Student	Age	September 2017 DRA Independent Reading Level	Interventionist	Intervention Group	Classroom	Amount of Intervention Time
Lizzy	7	12 (middle of 1 st)	Mrs. Casey	#1	#1	30 min 4x/week
Henry	8	8 (middle of 1 st)	Mrs. Casey	#2	#2	20-30 min 4x/week
Vivian	8	12 (middle of 1 st)	Mrs. Casey	#2	#2	20-30 min 4x/week
Alyssa*	7	8 (middle of 1 st)	Mrs. Lori	#3	#3	30 min 4x/week

*denotes ELL

The chapter will briefly introduce each child participant to the reader, synthesizing known relevant individual characteristics (e.g., sex, first language) not presented in Table 4.1 and key aspects of the intervention received (e.g., main components, group size); these context-specific representations are intended to offer a sense of the unique complexity of the individual to which the research questions have been applied. After each participant introduction, results of the study pertaining to the below research questions are shared, and the way(s) in which data sources (i.e., fieldnotes, child interviews, behavioral engagement questionnaires, and reading specialist interviews) triangulate to inform context-specific conclusions are discussed. Lastly, a final summary sheds light on emergent themes relating to the second-grade participants in this subset of the study.

Research Questions

RQ1. What, if any, distinction do kindergarten, first-, and second-grade students in the sample make between reading instruction occurring in the reading intervention setting and in the general classroom?

RQ2. What, if anything, do K-2 students enrolled in reading intervention at the Mayflower School (pseudonym) perceive to be the benefits and/or costs of their involvement in reading intervention?

RQ3. What do students' perceived benefits and costs reveal about the ways in which their basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (as defined within the SDT motivation literature) are supported in intervention sessions?

RQ4. In what ways do students' perceptions of intervention align with or differ from reading specialist and researcher perceptions of students' behavioral engagement in intervention?

Lizzy

Lizzy, a female in the second grade, was participating in intervention four times a week for 30 minutes a session; this was her second year in the program. She had not received outside-of-school reading support in the past, nor was she receiving it at the time of the study. Lizzy was seven years old in comparison to many of her eight-year-old peers. Her intervention group, led by Mrs. Casey (reading interventionist), met mid-morning and included two additional second-grade girls and one second-grade boy, none of whom were participating in the study. As all students in the group were found to be about a half a year behind grade level as evidenced by the DRA and other assessments, instruction was rooted largely in second-grade Leveled Literacy Intervention (LLI) routines. Sessions typically consisted of about ten minutes of rereading, five

to seven minutes of word work, ten minutes of new book introduction, and five to seven minutes of writing (time permitting). Vowel team work stemming from Wilson *Foundations* was typically substituted for the LLI word work component of the intervention. Often, Mrs. Casey briefly introduced the new book to students towards the end of the session and then asked them to read it over thoroughly at home; students were then to reread that same book before making other selections the following intervention session. Writing for this group generally involved responding to a reading-related prompt provided within the LLI lesson guide; prompts typically centered on a predominant theme or lesson in the text.

In the observation weeks prior to our first formal interview, Lizzy stood out as an eager intervention participant. She seemed to constantly have her hand in the air and often could not keep from uttering, “Oh! Oh! Oh!” or “I know! I know!” when Mrs. Casey posed questions to the group. Within fieldnotes Lizzy was characterized as “[tending] to dominate conversation,” and I remarked that she was quite enthusiastic to “share her intervention experiences with me.” Lizzy was very outgoing and was easier to win favor with compared to other child participants. For this reason, she was the first child I interviewed within the study. Mrs. Casey asked Lizzy privately if she felt comfortable being the first to interview with me, to which Mrs. Casey reported that Lizzy beamed and replied, “Sure!”

The following week, Lizzy became the first child in the study to embark on the conversational drawing interview with me. She chose to begin by drawing and discussing how she did reading in the intervention room. Choosing to sketch in pencil, Lizzy drew how she understood herself doing reading in the intervention room and then in her classroom; she sat just outside each of these spaces when completing the corresponding drawing. Her drawings (Figures 4.1 and 4.2 below) clearly depict her typical seating arrangement in each space; she pointed out

in her interview that she was seated with a book at a desk in the upper right corner of the classroom drawing.

Figure 4.1 Lizzy's Intervention Drawing

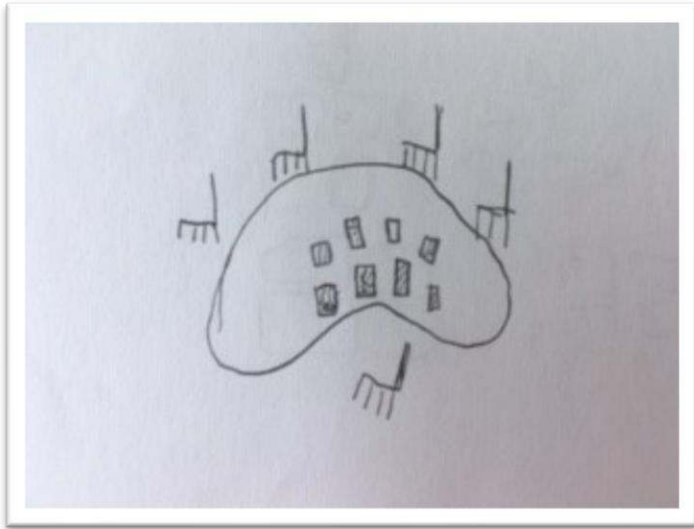
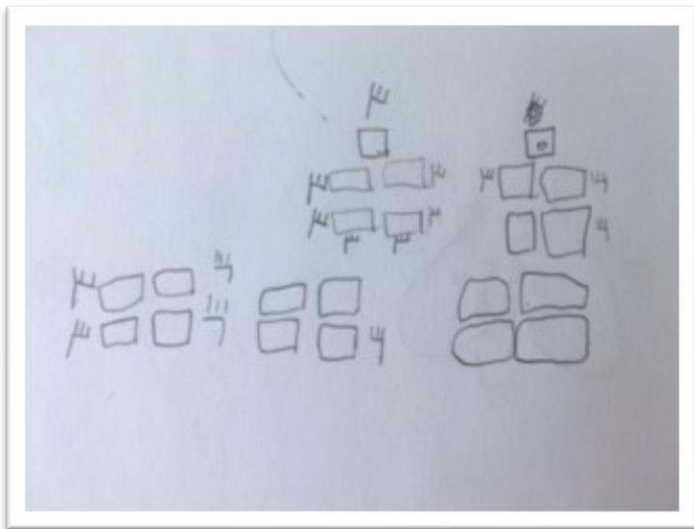


Figure 4.2 Lizzy's Classroom Drawing



Lizzy freely answered my questions as she drew and often offered additional details relating to aspects of each program that she enjoyed. For example, during the drawing interview, Lizzy spoke at length about Judith Viorst and Lane Smith's Lulu series of chapter books, which her

teacher had been reading aloud to her. After characterizing the series as “weird” and providing an array of details specific to characters and plot lines, Lizzy indicated that she especially liked the series because it was comprised of chapter books—a perceived advantage of reading in the classroom that surfaced again in the walking tour interview. Insights like this one specific to Lizzy’s perceived benefits and costs of intervention and classroom reading were elicited fairly easily. Much like in intervention, she assumed a primarily active role in both the drawing and the walking tour interviews.

Lizzy’s walking tour, like most others, occurred the week after her drawing interview. Upon being asked whether, if provided the choice, she would opt to do reading in the intervention setting or remain in the classroom, she chose the intervention room with minimal hesitation; “Um, reading with Mrs. Casey,” she quickly replied. This comment was followed up with the rationale that the intervention setting was “really quiet.” Lizzy’s discontent with the noise level characteristic of her classroom during reading surfaced again later within the same interview and appeared to be a major reason she preferred the reading intervention to classroom reading instruction. The sections that follow provide a synthesis of data specific to Lizzy and in reference to the research questions that guided this study.

Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction

Lizzy made clear distinctions between that which occurred in the intervention setting and that which occurred in the classroom specific to reading time. Her interview responses describing the two programs generally fell into three broad categories: the room set-up, the instructional routines, and the teacher’s role. Her characterizations of the two environments were largely supported by her drawings, Mrs. Casey’s feedback, videos, and fieldnotes.

With regard to room set-up, Lizzy made distinctions such as sitting at a small table in the intervention room with several peers and the reading specialist, in comparison to sitting at a group of desks separate from her classroom teacher during reading time or in another area of the classroom of her choosing (e.g., carpet). Her remarks about instructional routines indicated that Mrs. Casey generally put books out on the table from which students could choose during rereading time; in contrast, while in the classroom, Lizzy went to a corner of the room to collect her “book pot” which included books she had chosen herself from the classroom library. Other intervention routines described by Lizzy included the process by which she earned stickers on a bookmark for reading at home, *Foundations* letter keyword sound drills, tapping out words (Wilson *Foundations* decoding strategy), and crafting written responses to reading. With regard to the teacher’s role, Lizzy remarked that the classroom teacher often read aloud to students and checked homework, and that the reading specialist often listened to children read. In sum, it was evident that Lizzy made clear distinctions between classroom and intervention reading instruction.

Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention Involvement

Benefits. In total, Lizzy relayed 10 benefits she associated with her involvement in intervention and two costs. Several provided benefits aligned with traditional E-V theory value subcomponents. For example, Lizzy listed getting to choose books she enjoyed, and more of them than in the regular classroom, as aspects of the reading intervention that she valued. These benefits corresponded to the E-V theory subcomponent of *intrinsic value*, or engaging in an activity because one finds it inherently interesting or satisfying (Eccles, 2005). Similarly, Lizzy indicated that both she and others valued reading intervention because they were able to learn new things; specifically, she remarked, “Reading can change your mind a lot. ... You get stuff in

your brain. ...I like that part, and probably the kids that come here [to intervention], they like it too.” The opportunity to learn new things via reading within the intervention added additional *intrinsic value* to the program for Lizzy.

Other benefits included the consistent quiet, earning stickers for reading, getting to bring books home for practice, and learning about useful strategies such as tapping out words that she understood as helping her to improve her reading. These four benefits suggest Lizzy attributed some *utility value* to the reading intervention; put another way, she perceived them to be useful in reaching her personal goals (e.g., completing reading tasks, accumulating a favorite prize, practicing reading at home, and improving as a reader) (Eccles, 2005). Lizzy also provided a benefit indicative of the intervention’s *attainment value* (Eccles, 2005); specifically, she indicated that she valued having her bookmark, complete with her name and the stickers she had earned for reading books at home, hanging on the wall for others to see. This benefit suggests that Lizzy valued others’ acknowledgment of her as a reader; the hanging bookmark supported her view of herself as a competent reader.

Lizzy listed two additional benefits of intervention that pertained to her physical comfort within the setting. Specifically, she listed the cushioned “comfy” chairs and the adequate amount of space between persons as valuable aspects of intervention. It could be argued that these aspects support Lizzy’s ability to complete reading tasks and, as such, might be categorized as indicators of *utility value*; however, as Lizzy herself did not make this connection, I am not comfortable classifying them as such. Instead, I consider them valuable aspects of the intervention with regard to her physical comfort while reading.

Costs. Lizzy listed two specific costs of intervention involvement. Both were related to an inadequate amount of time spent practicing her reading. First, she critiqued the amount of

time it took to prepare for intervention. Specifically, she said, “You don’t get to read enough in here because it takes a while to get in and get things out.” Additionally, she remarked that more time should be spent tapping out words because she found the strategy particularly helpful. Upon further probing, I was able to understand that Lizzy believed the group should spend time tapping out words of increasing challenge (i.e., greater length). In Lizzy’s mind the time spent getting organized to begin and the lack of time devoted to tapping increasingly challenging words were missed opportunities for meaningful reading practice. That said, for Lizzy, the benefits of intervention outweighed these *opportunity costs* (Flake et al., 2015; Perez et al., 2014); if given the choice, Lizzy indicated that she preferred to spend her time reading in the intervention setting as opposed to the classroom.

What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs

All in all, Lizzy’s articulated benefits suggest the intervention was largely meeting her basic psychological needs and, as such, positively supporting her developing reading motivation to do reading specific to the intervention (Niemic & Ryan, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2002). Many of the benefits and costs she shared provided evidence of meeting or neglecting one or more basic psychological needs (i.e., *autonomy, competence, relatedness*). For example, Lizzy’s listing of the two costs related to wasted time that could be better spent improving her reading highlights aspects of the program that were not fully satisfying her need for *competence* with respect to advancing her skills. These features of reading intervention could potentially be modified in the future to better address Lizzy’s concerns. However, the *Foundations* decoding strategy (being taught how to tap out words) and the provided quiet are two aspects of intervention that Lizzy valued; they supported her need to feel *competent* within the reading intervention (Niemic & Ryan, 2009). Furthermore, earning stickers on a bookmark for reading at home and seeing her

bookmark hang on the classroom wall are additional supports that nurtured Lizzy's view of herself as a *competent* reader.

Several of Lizzy's remarks were also indicative of how the intervention nurtured her need for *autonomy*. For example, getting to choose books that were of interest to her was one aspect of the intervention that allowed her to have some perceived control over her learning. The fact that she was also able to take these books home and practice reading them there at her convenience further supported her decision-making power within the intervention (Niemic & Ryan, 2009). Additionally, Lizzy valued the opportunity to learn new information via reading; the intervention allowed her to do just that and, as such, further supported her need to feel *autonomous* within the program (Ryan & Deci, 2002). The option of utilizing comfortable chairs if she so desired and the ability to spread out also arguably provided her some perceived control within the program (these features may have also supported her need for *competence* if she viewed them as enabling her to complete tasks). The substantial nurturing of Lizzy's needs for *competence* and *autonomy* coupled with her preference for doing reading in the intervention setting suggest the program was, at the time, positively impacting her developing motivation to do reading there.

How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement

Both teacher and researcher evaluations of Lizzy's behavioral engagement indicated that she was "about as engaged" as other second-grade intervention students during reading intervention. Table 4.2, below, provides each of the four second-grade students' total behavioral engagement scores (out of 28) as evaluated by me (n=2) and the reading specialist (n=1) on the behavioral engagement questionnaire. I completed one questionnaire for each of two separate video observations; the reading specialist completed one form based on the child's overall engagement in the program. The table also includes the general label each evaluator assigned to

the child’s overall engagement specific to the situation (i.e., single video observation, overall).

Descriptive choices for each indicator of engagement included 1) somewhat less engaged than others, 2) about as engaged as others, 3) somewhat more engaged than others, and 4) much more engaged than others.

Table 4.2 Overview of Second-Grade Behavioral Engagement Evaluations

Child	Reading Specialist Overall Behavioral Engagement Score (Total = 28)	General Label Assigned	Researcher Overall Behavioral Engagement Score (Video #1)	General Label Assigned	Researcher Overall Behavioral Engagement Score (Video #2)	General Label Assigned
Vivian	28	Somewhat more engaged than others	25	Somewhat more engaged than others	24	About as engaged as others
Lizzy	22.5	About as engaged as others	24	About as engaged as others	22	About as engaged as others
Henry	20	About as engaged as others	17	Somewhat less engaged than others	18	Somewhat less engaged than others
Alyssa	19	Somewhat less engaged than others	18	Somewhat less engaged than others	20	About as engaged as others

The reading specialist (Mrs. Casey) and I indicated that Lizzy was highly engaged during structured activities. Specifically, she nearly always offered to answer questions, paid careful attention when others spoke, and followed directions. Furthermore, fieldnotes specified that Lizzy “tended to dominate” text-based discussions and that she often had her hand in the air first to answer Mrs. Casey’s questions. Lizzy’s enthusiasm for collecting stickers on her bookmark

was also supported by researcher fieldnotes. The indicator that largely kept me and the reading specialist from giving Lizzy the highest behavioral engagement rating was her distractibility. Both the reading specialist and I indicated that Lizzy could get distracted during independent reading; specifically, she would take lengthy pauses to eat her snack. It is hard to say whether such distractibility is an indicator of her disinterest in the reading intervention, more of a personal trait, or a coping behavior she exhibits when she encounters a difficult word. Regardless, there is sufficient evidence to suggest that Lizzy was largely engaged behaviorally in the reading intervention; this conclusion lends further support to the intervention generally nurturing her developing motivation to do reading in the intervention setting.

Henry

Henry, a rambunctious eight-year-old, was in the second grade at the time of the study. Henry always had something to say and he often said it with his whole body; for example, upon noticing the video camera soon after settling into his seat in the intervention room, Henry jumped up from his seat to look at it and asked me, “Are we going to get to watch it afterwards?” Henry was also in his second year of reading support at the Mayflower school and received small-group (1:3) reading intervention four times per week for either 20 or 30 minutes each session (times varied due to classroom scheduling complications). Henry had not received outside literacy support previously, nor was he receiving it at the time of the study. Henry’s group, led by Mrs. Casey, took place mid-morning and included two other female members, one of which (Vivian) was also enrolled in the study. Henry’s group, like Lizzy’s, was on average reading about a half a year below grade level as indicated by the DRA and other assessments; the second-grade Leveled Literacy Intervention (LLI) system and associated routines were primarily used with this

group. Sessions typically consisted of the same routine's as Lizzy's for about the same time increments.

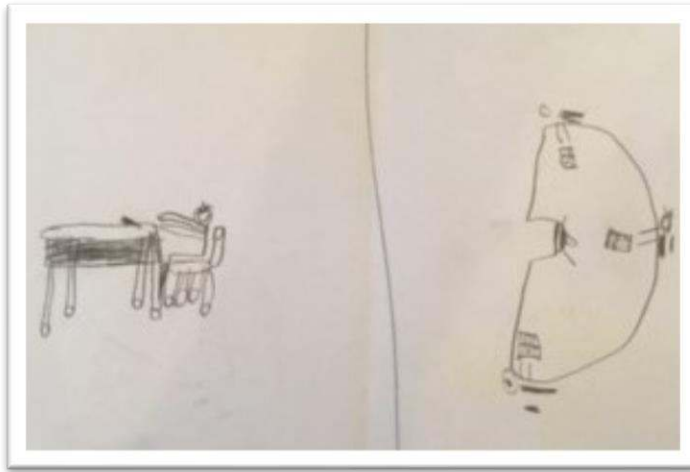
From the very beginning of my time at Mayflower, Henry grabbed my attention. "What is she doing here?" he asked Mrs. Casey as soon as he spotted me on the first day. He also often attempted to include me in intervention activities. One Friday in January, the group was preparing to read a play; Henry insisted that Mrs. Casey reserve a part for me. With minimal contemplation, he turned to me and stated, "You'll be the frog." Henry seemed to talk substantially more than the others, and the answers, thoughts, and ideas he shared were animated and loud. He was witnessed several times on video and in my fieldnotes making a variety of silly faces and noises; some of these interruptions were likely inspired by intervention subject matter (e.g., characters' feelings, phonogram endings) while others seemed to be purely for his own personal amusement and/or to garner the attention of other people (e.g., sticking his tongue out at the camera). He prided himself on making what he called his "evil smile," which did in fact look devious, but in my experience tended to suggest innocent enjoyment of various activities (e.g., indulging in *Calvin and Hobbes*).

Though typically sparked by intervention subject matter, the personal connections Henry regularly made and shared with the group (whether he was called on to answer or not) were lengthy. Much like his facial expressions, I recognized some comments to be quite insightful, while others came across as a way of commanding attention and/or exerting control over the flow of intervention; Mrs. Casey remarked to me once that Henry "loves air-time!" For example, on one occasion Henry interrupted Mrs. Casey's introduction of a new LLI book to offer his interpretation of how a boy on the cover was feeling. The boy was walking out of a house with a box, and Henry had taken the box to represent the boy's memories of the house. He further

described the boy as feeling “a bit sad” about the move, but reasoned that he would soon “recover” after he got used to his new house and school. As Henry reported moving in kindergarten, it appeared that he was speaking from personal experience. Within the same session, during the *Foundations* letter keyword sound drill, Henry again interrupted; this time, he spoke at length about farm machines. As Mrs. Casey strived to move the group quickly through the drill cards, Henry noticed a tractor on one card. The tractor prompted Henry’s outburst. He swiftly assumed control of the group, continuing on about how machines assisted on his family’s farm. He had to be redirected by Mrs. Casey so that the group could move on with the drill. Mrs. Casey, seemingly not wanting to squelch Henry’s enthusiasm for the group time, soon thereafter gave him the word “cow” to share during a word sort activity. Throughout my time observing and working with Henry, it was apparent that he desired more of a say in that which occurred during intervention sessions than other students. This theme was largely supported by his interview responses and researcher and reading specialist evaluations of his intervention engagement.

Henry was the second student to interview with me. Like Lizzy, he chose to draw in pencil, depicting himself doing reading in the intervention room and in the classroom on the same page (See Figure 4.3 below). He seated himself at his desk in the classroom and, like Lizzy, at a kidney-shaped table in the intervention setting. Furthermore, he placed Mrs. Casey with him and others at the intervention table. In both pictures, he drew himself with a book.

Figure 4.3 Henry’s Classroom Drawing (left) and Intervention Drawing (right)



Henry spoke freely to me during the drawing interview about the aspects of reading in the classroom that he enjoyed; “I like my desk!” he remarked after explaining that although he could read in a variety of places within the classroom, he preferred to read at his desk. He also shared that he enjoyed reading *The Magic Treehouse* chapter book series and *Calvin and Hobbes* comics. He made a point of telling me that he could choose nearly anything he wanted to read in the classroom, but in the intervention setting, the group usually read a book selected by Mrs. Casey all at the same time. Henry seemed to enjoy the interview and asked towards the end when I would be coming back to do his walking tour interview.

We completed the walking tour interview the following week; Henry smiled and answered, “Sure!” when I asked if he wanted to begin. Upon being asked what he would do if given the choice to do reading in the intervention room or classroom, Henry quickly replied “[I’d] stay here.” He reiterated his choice, raising his voice a bit and remarking, “I would stay in my classroom!” while making a silly face. Henry’s rationale for staying in the classroom included that he found it to be generally less noisy and that he preferred having the freedom to choose his own books and read by himself at his desk. Though he disclosed without prompting

that the classroom could also get noisy, he insisted that it was typically quieter than the intervention setting. His desire to have more of a say regarding intervention procedures came up repeatedly during his walking tour interview. Specifically, Henry branded intervention as a place where “there’s not much decisions [to make]”. Henry’s view that his autonomy could be better supported within the intervention reveals an aspect of the intervention that could potentially be modified to enhance his underlying motivation for doing reading there. This theme emerged time and time again throughout Henry’s responses in relation to the research questions.

Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction

Henry made clear distinctions between that which occurred in the intervention setting and that which occurred in the classroom specific to reading time. Like Lizzy, his interview responses describing the two programs generally could be classified into three broad categories: the physical set-up, the routines, and the teacher’s role. Henry’s drawings, Mrs. Casey’s feedback, and my videos and fieldnotes largely supported Henry’s claims.

Henry described reading in the classroom as a quiet time centered on “solo reading” where he was able to read whatever he wanted from his book bin. He specified that he chose the books that were in his book bin and that he could read in a variety of places in the classroom; his favorite place to read was at his desk. Henry described his classroom teacher’s role as meeting with small groups and individuals. He reported that he generally did not work with the classroom teacher because she knew he was meeting with Mrs. Casey in the intervention room.

In contrast, Henry described reading during intervention session as mainly occurring at a “large desk with friends” where everyone usually worked on the same book at the same time. Henry went on to recall that during intervention, “Mrs. Casey gives you a certain book that you need to read instead of one you want to choose.” He conceded that he did get to choose from a

selection of books on Fridays, but remarked, “There’s not much of my favorites.” Henry also indicated that he worked on solving words and remembering sounds in the intervention room: “We do words and sounds,” he said. As mentioned before, Henry took issue with what he perceived to be “not much decisions” for him to make in the intervention room. Put another way, Henry perceived reading during intervention to be substantially more teacher-directed than the reading he did in the classroom. In sum, Henry made clear distinctions between that which occurred in intervention and the classroom, and these distinctions informed his preference for the classroom.

Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention Involvement

Benefits. Henry relayed several aspects of reading intervention that he viewed favorably. First, he found aspects of the phonics instruction somewhat helpful. Specifically, he indicated that learning the “magic e” rule had permitted him to better solve words. Additionally, he indicated that it was “sometimes quiet” and that when it was, it helped him focus on reading. Finally, Henry explained that sometimes he was allowed to read at a desk away from the others in the group, and that he preferred this desk to the rug where he was also sometimes sent to read independently. Henry further explicated that the desk kept the book from falling through his legs, unlike when he sat on the floor. These three benefits suggest Henry attributed some *utility value* (Eccles, 2005) to the structured reading intervention with regard to better enabling him to read. Lastly, Henry indicated that he enjoyed picking out books (from among a collection assembled by Mrs. Casey) on Fridays; this aspect of the intervention contributed some *intrinsic value* (Eccles, 2005) to the reading intervention for Henry.

Costs. Despite the four valued aspects of intervention just mentioned, Henry articulated five features of the intervention that he did not appreciate. Most salient with regard to his

preference for doing reading in the classroom were the noise level and lack of books that interested him in the intervention setting. During Henry's reading intervention time, two other groups were meeting for English language support and reading support, which sometimes resulted in the space being especially noisy. Discussing book options, Henry explained to me, "There's not much books, like good ones, like *Magic Treehouse* [or] sea creatures." He continued on to say, "[Mrs. Casey usually] gives you a certain book that you need to read instead of one you choose." For Henry, the noise level, lack of choices, and uninteresting books seemed to largely contribute to the *opportunity cost* (Flake et al., 2015; Perez et al., 2014) he associated with attending intervention; he preferred to read in the classroom, where he perceived it to be quiet and felt he had more autonomy.

Additionally, Henry indicated that even though he found the word work portion (where he learned about "magic e") of the intervention somewhat helpful, he did not like that it took time away from actual reading, another identified *opportunity cost* (Flake et al., 2015; Perez et al., 2014). Specifically, in reference to the phonics component of intervention, Henry remarked, "It's extra time from my class. ... Sometimes all I just wanna do is read!" Furthermore, he remarked more generally that there were few opportunities for him to make decisions within the intervention. Lastly, as mentioned previously, Henry found reading on the floor in a "special chair," as he was sometimes directed to do, problematic; he struggled to stabilize his book in his lap. All in all, Henry's critiques of intervention largely center on his perceived lack of autonomy within the setting.

What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs

Henry's perceived benefits and costs reveal quite a bit about how his basic psychological needs and, in turn, his motivation, were satisfied or not within the reading intervention.

Specifically, Henry recognized that the phonics work helped him to solve words; this aspect of the intervention supported his need to feel *competent*. Similarly, Henry valued instances when the room was quiet and when he was able to read alone at a desk; he perceived these two features of intervention as further supporting his *competence* (Niemic & Ryan, 2009) with regard to completing reading tasks.

That said, the above benefits were not enough to make Henry want to read in the intervention. Though he acknowledged that the word work he did in intervention could be helpful, it took time away from him being able to read whatever he wanted. Henry clearly desired more *autonomy* within the intervention. Additionally, his more specific critique regarding the provided books (i.e., there were not enough interesting books for him to choose from) further evidences his unsatisfied need for *autonomy* (Niemic & Ryan, 2009). Perhaps the statement that most clearly demonstrates this need going unmet is his summation that “there’s not much decisions” to make within intervention. Furthermore, Henry perceived the noise level to interfere with his ability to read *competently*. Similarly, books falling through his legs while he read on the floor interfered with him completing reading tasks. In sum, Henry’s underlying perceptions that the intervention is typically too noisy and does not provide him with enough *autonomy* over his reading, coupled with his decision not to attend if given the choice, suggest the reading intervention was not a generally positive influence on his motivation for doing reading there.

How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement

Henry’s motivation-related perceptions are in part supported by adult evaluations of his behavioral engagement. As displayed in Table 4.2 (above), Henry’s overall behavioral engagement scores (across evaluators) were considerably lower than Vivian’s scores and several

points lower than Lizzy's scores. That said, Henry was also labeled "about as engaged as others" on Mrs. Casey's behavioral engagement evaluation form; Mrs. Casey again confirmed this overall categorization during her interview, with the caveat that Henry "adds his own thoughts.... His leaps [connections] are a little too big". Although he was generally involved, attentive, and enthusiastic during the intervention, as indicated by both researcher and reading specialist across multiple data sources (i.e., interviews, behavioral engagement evaluations, and fieldnotes), Henry's disruptive outbursts and prolonged tangential remarks were largely responsible for him appearing slightly less engaged than the two other second-grade participants.

Researcher and reading specialist data indicated that Henry often called attention to himself in what appeared to be an effort to connect with the program. For example, during a word sort activity focusing on the phonograms or glued sounds -ung, -ang, and -ong, Henry made loud noises and/or associated gestures as he sorted each word; many of the noises and gestures were suggestive of connections he was making to the words. Specifically, he pretended to bang a gong and make the associated sound as he sorted the word under the "-ong" heading. Mrs. Casey had to redirect Henry several times during the activity in order to keep pace and prevent others from being distracted. During her interview, Mrs. Casey remarked that she generally perceived Henry to be slightly more engaged in independent reading than word work. Similarly, as described earlier, Henry would often tell lengthy personal stories out of turn that, though they were often sparked by an aspect of intervention (e.g., character, setting, or item in a book), resulted in him and others straying off task. Mrs. Casey expressed this as, "We're all reading, and...he'll start to chat about something, so he gets off a little bit...referring to his life and his home." Henry's mild disruptions and off-task behaviors were largely responsible for his

intervention engagement being evaluated slightly lower than others, an evaluation which aligns with his perceived lack of autonomy within the intervention.

Similarly, the event previously relayed specific to Henry's substantial effort to connect with the -ang, -ong, and -ung word sort via noises and gestures supports his expressed frustration with word work; Henry indicated that although he found word work to be somewhat helpful, he preferred to sit and read connected text. However, Henry's expressed dissatisfaction with books provided in the intervention was not evidenced within researcher or reading specialist evaluations of his behavioral engagement. Mrs. Casey and I indicated that Henry appeared generally satisfied with the provided books. Specifically, Mrs. Casey remarked that Henry "always wants to finish [reading] the books." In sum, though Henry appeared, for the most part, engaged behaviorally in the reading intervention, there is some evidence to support his understanding that the intervention could better address his need for autonomy. Henry's motivation for doing reading within the intervention could potentially benefit from him being permitted to make more decisions.

Vivian

Vivian, like Henry, was also eight years old and in the second grade at the time of the study. She was in the same intervention group as Henry at the Mayflower school. Vivian had not received outside literacy support previously, nor was she receiving it at the time; she was receiving school reading support for the second year. She had been late to join the group this year, starting after Thanksgiving. Vivian was referred by her teacher after being found to be reading approximately a half a year below grade level in November of 2017.

Vivian's frequent smile lit up the intervention room. Both Mrs. Casey and I remarked that her smile made her appear especially enthusiastic about that which occurred in reading

intervention. Furthermore, Vivian seemed to sincerely enjoy sharing her thoughts with the group. Although Mrs. Casey maintained that Vivian was typically most enthusiastic about the writing component of intervention, I interpreted her enthusiasm as more pronounced when she was introduced to new books. For example, she was caught on video beaming while tightly hugging a new LLI book Mrs. Casey had provided. That said, Vivian's writing pieces were typically lengthier and more detailed than those of other students, and she appeared eager to read them aloud to the group. Vivian's articulated benefits of intervention centered primarily on reading books; she did not share her feelings about the writing portion of the intervention with me. All in all, Vivian came across as the most engaged of the four second-grade students; Mrs. Casey gave her a perfect behavioral engagement score.

As such, it was not surprising when Vivian eagerly agreed to share her intervention experiences with me and offered multiple aspects of intervention that she valued. As with the other second-graders, Vivian's drawing interview occurred before her walking tour interview. Her drawings are provided below (Figures 4.4 and 4.5).

Figure 4.4 Vivian's Classroom Drawing



Figure 4.5 Vivian's Intervention Drawing



Vivian chose to complete her drawings in color, in contrast to Lizzie and Henry, both of whom chose to sketch in pencil. She indicated that in the classroom (Classroom #2) she typically read a book of her teacher's choosing with her teacher to start and finished at her desk. She further remarked that she would meet at a later time with her teacher to talk about the book. Though she

could not remember the title, Vivian talked at length about the current book she was working on in the classroom; the book involved a raccoon struggling to determine what he did well among other animals skilled at playing an outdoor game. Vivian indicated that she appreciated that her classroom teacher and Mrs. Casey selected books for her to read. Vivian's perceived utility of having others select books for her would surface again in her walking tour interview.

During the drawing interview Vivian described intervention as reading with a group of her peers led by Mrs. Casey. In addition to being able to choose from a selection of books Mrs. Casey put out for them to read, Vivian described the word work portion of intervention (e.g., "We usually do some reading cards...[with] vowel teams") and shared that she enjoyed doing plays on Fridays.

Vivian continued to share that which she enjoyed specific to reading intervention (e.g., reading out loud, getting stickers for reading) throughout the walking tour interview the following week. She did not articulate any aspects of intervention that she perceived to be problematic and indicated that she enjoyed reading in general. As such, it came as no surprise that she maintained that if given the option, she would choose to do reading in the intervention room. What did come as a bit of a surprise was her immediate rationale: "Because, when we're in the [Classroom #2], it's very noisy and a lot of people can't focus." Again, noise was named by a second-grade participant as a perceived barrier to being able to concentrate on reading at school. Vivian's willingness to participate in the reading intervention is further illustrated in the below sections that focus on each research question.

Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction

Vivian made clear distinctions between classroom and intervention reading practices. For example, she described reading most often in a small group within the intervention setting and

largely one-on-one with her teacher or by herself in the classroom. Her interview responses describing the two programs fit into the three broad categories of the physical set-up, the routines, and the teacher's role. Vivian's drawings, Mrs. Casey's feedback, videos, and my own observations largely supported Vivian's perceptions of the two programs.

Vivian described classroom reading time as typically comprised of reading "to Mrs. [classroom teacher] and then [reading] the rest at my desk and then [going] back...to talk about it [with the classroom teacher]." She also mentioned that she was occasionally able to read with a partner or entirely on her own in the classroom, a process which involved her choosing books from a collection she took out of the library and stored in a red bookbag on a hook. More often than not, Vivian insisted that her classroom teacher picked books for her and that she preferred this to choosing her own; specifically, she reasoned, "I don't really know what I can read."

With regard to reading intervention, Vivian described reading in a group with Henry and another girl at a table led by Mrs. Casey. She indicated that Mrs. Casey usually chose the books for the group and that when Vivian came in, she had to first read over whatever book she took home the night before. After reading that book, Vivian stated, she could choose another book from a selection of many others she had read in the past. Vivian next described "reading some cards" that helped the group learn "vowel teams." She shared that on Fridays, she was able to choose several books she had read previously to take home and that the group usually read a play together based on a story they had read the day before. In sum, Vivian painted two distinct portraits of classroom reading time and intervention time comprised of differing physical set-ups, routines, and teacher roles.

Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention Involvement

Benefits. Vivian articulated nine aspects of intervention that she valued across the two interviews. As mentioned previously, Vivian relayed that she preferred doing reading in the intervention setting because she perceived it to be much quieter than the classroom which, in turn, better enabled her to maintain focus. As such, some *utility value* (Eccles, 2005) can be attributed to the reading intervention, as the quietness of the intervention setting supported Vivian in her efforts to complete reading-related tasks. Similarly, Vivian appreciated that Mrs. Casey picked out books that she could read and taught her decoding strategies; Mrs. Casey's guidance permitted Vivian to more efficiently practice her reading. Also related to *utility value* was Vivian's valuing of gaining stickers from Mrs. Casey for doing her at-home reading. Specifically, Vivian remarked, "[I really like] when she gives us stickers on our bookmarks for reading. I collect stickers." Put another way, the intervention supported her goal of collecting these rewards.

Additionally, Vivian indicated that she valued being able to read out loud to others during intervention time. In order to tease out whether Vivian enjoyed reading aloud to learn or reading to demonstrate competence to peers, I specifically asked her if she valued the opportunity to read out loud because she liked to learn. She shook her head no with respect to learning and nodded yes to my follow-up question about whether she liked when others listened to her read. As such, the intervention likely offered some *attainment value* (Eccles, 2005) for Vivian in that it helped her to think of herself as a competent reader. In the same vein, Vivian stated that she especially enjoyed reading the plays aloud on Fridays. Vivian also noted that she enjoyed reading within the small group, even more so than the partner reading that occasionally occurred in her

classroom. It can be inferred that she valued this aspect of intervention due to having an audience to showcase her skills.

Lastly, Vivian stated that she largely enjoyed reading and that she also liked picking her own books once Mrs. Casey had identified a selection that she could read. The value Vivian attributed to these aspects of intervention can be classified as *intrinsic* (Eccles, 2005); Vivian appreciated the opportunity to read in general as well as that of being able to choose books that specifically interested her.

Costs. Vivian did not share any perceived intervention drawbacks with me. It is unclear whether she was unable to think of any or simply did not feel comfortable sharing them with me. As mentioned previously, she was observed on video at one point griping about having to write during intervention. Specifically, she remarked, “Do we have to write today?!” However, Vivian did not discuss the writing portion of intervention at any time during the two interviews.

What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs

Many of Vivian’s perceived benefits of intervention suggest her need to feel *competent* (Niemic & Ryan, 2009) within the reading intervention was nurtured. Specifically, the quiet setting, the word-solving instruction, and the just-right books supported Vivian’s ability to read on her own within the intervention and outside of it. Additionally, the intervention allowed her to showcase her ability to read out loud; Vivian was able to demonstrate *competent* reading within the intervention, further giving her confidence in her reading ability.

Vivian’s expressed enthusiasm for collecting stickers within intervention may also represent an aspect of the intervention that supported her need to feel *competent*, as she received one sticker per book read at home. However, Vivian did not share a specific underlying reason explaining why she enjoyed collecting stickers. Similarly, her preference for doing reading in

the small-group setting could be due to the intervention supporting her need to feel *competent*; however, it may also have supported her need to *relate* to others (Niemic & Ryan, 2009).

Evidence to support these rationales did not surface in her interviews.

Vivian's perceived benefits of intervention indicated that her need for *autonomy* (Niemic & Ryan, 2009) was at least partially met within the intervention. Specifically, she was able to engage in reading, an activity she enjoyed. Furthermore, she indicated that she enjoyed being able to choose from among a selection of just-right books Mrs. Casey gathered for her.

How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement

Both reading specialist and researcher evaluations of Vivian's behavioral engagement indicated that she was generally more engaged than the other second-grade intervention students during reading intervention. Table 4.2 further evidences Vivian's high overall scores on reading specialist and researcher behavioral engagement questionnaires. Specifically, Mrs. Casey and I noted Vivian's tendency to stay on task, complete all tasks, and pay attention to peers and to Mrs. Casey when each spoke. Furthermore, Vivian was observed to raise her hand to answer questions often, to share her understandings, and to move her lips when reading independently.

Mrs. Casey perceived Vivian to especially enjoy writing, while I documented her enthusiasm for reading new books and collecting stickers on her bookmark. Vivian's general enthusiasm for and active involvement in intervention activities was supported by adult evaluations of her engagement. Though Mrs. Casey reported a perfect behavioral engagement score for Vivian, I observed her to occasionally become momentarily distracted and twice express disappointment within activities. Specifically, Vivian remarked "Do we have to write today?" to Mrs. Casey on one occasion and "Noooo" another time when Mrs. Casey stated rereading time was going to be cut short for word work. Lastly, both the reading specialist and

researcher documented Vivian’s substantial effort on intervention tasks. Specifically, Vivian appeared to expend more effort than others on her writing. All in all, adult evaluations of Vivian’s intervention engagement as well as many of her perceived advantages (e.g., new books, stickers, and the ability to read) further supported her interview response indicating that if she were given the choice, she would choose to do reading in the intervention setting.

Alyssa

Alyssa, like Lizzy, was seven years old at the start of the study. Alyssa’s intervention group, led by Mrs. Lori, met mid-morning and included one other second-grade girl and two second-grade boys. As with the three other study participants, instruction was rooted largely in second-grade Leveled Literacy Intervention (LLI) routines. Wilson *Foundations* activities focusing on vowel teams were substituted for the LLI word work component of the intervention. Mrs. Lori, like Mrs. Casey, typically first invited students to reread books they had previously read. This was followed by phonics activities (i.e., building, writing, or sorting words), the introduction of a new book, and finally (time permitting) writing about reading. This group, like Mrs. Casey’s, often practiced plays adapted from LLI texts on Fridays.

Alyssa was of Brazilian heritage and spoke Portuguese as her first language; she was the only English language learner (ELL) involved in the study. She had attended kindergarten in another more urban elementary school before enrolling at Mayflower in November of her first-grade year. Mayflower had evaluated her English proficiency with a state-mandated assessment and determined her to be at a higher “developing” level. Mrs. Lori explained that Alyssa could understand most standard speech and comprehend underlying plots, main ideas, and details in many texts. However, she struggled with academic language and was still reading about a half a year below grade level. In addition to the reading intervention, Alyssa was receiving 45 minutes

of ELL support each day at the time of the study. She was in her second year of reading support at Mayflower and had received reading and ELL support in kindergarten at her previous school.

My first impression of Alyssa was that she much appreciated the freedom to read independently while enjoying a delicious pastry. As I sat down to observe her reading intervention group for the first time, she looked up at me from her book and remarked, “Look at this muffin!” Her affinity for eating her snack while reading independently would surface time and time again in interviews, engagement questionnaires, and fieldnotes. Mrs. Lori expressed both on the engagement questionnaire and during her interview that Alyssa’s attention during independent tasks often drifted from the task at hand to her snack. Although Alyssa appeared to generally enjoy and pour substantial effort into reading and writing on her own during intervention, video footage also evidenced her being frequently distracted by her snack. Furthermore, in expanding upon her preference for doing reading in the classroom, Alyssa remarked, “[classroom teacher] lets us have a little bit more snack.”

Alyssa was interviewed third out of the four second-grade participants. Her classroom and intervention drawings are shown below (Figures 4.6 and 4.7). She chose to compose her drawings with markers. Her snack (yogurt with a spoon and a muffin) is depicted in her classroom drawing, as is a book; she intentionally pointed out her snack and book to me as she completed the drawing. Her intervention drawing included the intervention table and five chairs. She explained that there was a chair for each group member and one for Mrs. Lori.

Figure 4.6 Alyssa’s Classroom Drawing



Figure 4.7 Alyssa’s Intervention Drawing



Alyssa’s walking tour took place the week after her drawing interview. Although Alyssa described Mrs. Lori as “nice” and recognized that she helped her with her reading, Alyssa largely took issue with being interrupted during her independent reading to work on “spelling.” Furthermore, she maintained that if given the choice, she would stay in the classroom to work on

her reading. Her rationale, which included additional time for eating and more freedom in deciding what to read, are expanded upon in the sections below that refer specifically to the research questions.

Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction

Although Alyssa indicated that what she did in the classroom with regard to reading was similar to that which occurred in the intervention setting, she was able to articulate several key distinctions. Specifically, she remarked, “[What we do in intervention] is the same as Mrs. [classroom teacher’s name] but a little different.” Having her snack and reading on her own were the two main similarities she listed. With regard to the physical set-up of the two spaces, Alyssa described herself most often reading by herself and eating her snack at a table in the corner of the classroom. In contrast, she remarked that she read at a table with three other children and the teacher during reading intervention. In speaking about typical routines, Alyssa indicated that while she usually got to pick “three or four” books to read in the classroom, within the intervention setting she had to read the books that Mrs. Lori selected for her and put in her bookbag. Specifically, she commented that she could read chapter books in her classroom. Additionally, Alyssa relayed that she and her peers were not interrupted during independent reading in the classroom to do word work: “[Classroom teacher] doesn’t stop us when we’re reading...to do spelling or to do sounds and stuff.” Alyssa also noted that Mrs. Lori used the whiteboard to list things she would like them to do; she further explained that Mrs. Lori would write reading comprehensions questions (e.g., What is the main character’s problem?) on the board for students to think about before, during, and after reading.

With regard to the teacher’s role in each space, Alyssa remarked that neither teacher taught her to read per se, but that her classroom teacher would sometimes sit and listen to her

read “like four pages” as she did with all the children in the class and that Mrs. Lori often reminded her to “Read. Read softly. And read at my house,” and would help her when she found herself stuck on a word. Lastly, Alyssa reported that her classroom teacher updated the class on how many minutes they had left to read on their own. Fieldnotes, videos, and reading specialist interviews largely confirmed Alyssa’s distinctions between the two reading programs.

Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention Involvement

Benefits. Alyssa listed two benefits she associated with her involvement in reading intervention. First, she valued being with the other members of her group. Although she did not explain her reasoning in detail, she did indicate her preference for being at a table with others rather than sitting alone in her classroom. It is not entirely clear whether this aspect of intervention offered *intrinsic value* and/or *utility value* (Eccles, 2005) for Alyssa. If she simply enjoyed time spent with peers, the added value would be *intrinsic* in nature. If she viewed group time as an opportunity to make friends or get help from friends, the added value would be categorized as *utility value*. Regardless, Alyssa appreciated this aspect of intervention. Additionally, she valued the help Mrs. Lori provided when she got stuck on a word. Specifically, Alyssa remarked that she could “point to a word” and Mrs. Lori would help her (and others) figure it out. The help she received from Mrs. Lori likely contributed some additional *utility value* to the intervention for Alyssa, as it permitted her to better solve challenging words when striving to complete a text. Alyssa mentioned during her drawing interview that she often struggled with reading and usually read “the easier [books] because I don’t know how to read.” As such, Mrs. Lori’s help was likely valuable to Alyssa in that it provided her some much-needed additional support.

Costs. Alyssa articulated three main costs of intervention. Most important to Alyssa was the limited amount of time she perceived herself having to read independently within intervention. Specifically, Alyssa remarked that she would prefer to stay in the classroom because the classroom teacher “tells us how much minutes there is [for reading]” and further maintained that she did not like Mrs. Lori “[stopping] us when we’re reading.” She described Mrs. Lori interrupting independent reading “to do spelling.” Similarly, Alyssa indicated that she preferred the classroom because she was able to eat more of her snack and choose her own books. She perceived all three opportunities to be forfeited when attending intervention and, as such, had associated *opportunity costs* (Flake et al., 2015; Perez et al., 2014) with the intervention. Furthermore, these costs appeared to somewhat outweigh the benefits of attending intervention for Alyssa.

What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs

The two benefits Alyssa associated with intervention suggest the intervention, at least in part, addressed her need to perceive herself as *competent* and *connected* to others (Niemic & Ryan, 2009). Specifically, the help she received from Mrs. Lori better enabled her to complete intervention books (*competence*), and the small group arrangement permitted her a sense of belonging within a social group (*relatedness*). Alyssa’s articulated costs largely signify her need for *autonomy* (Niemic & Ryan, 2009) not being satisfied within the intervention. Put another way, Alyssa viewed herself as not being permitted the amount of freedom she had in the classroom with respect to reading what she wanted, reading as much as she wanted, and eating as much as she wanted. As further testament to Alyssa’s desire to have more control over that which occurred in intervention, a video segment depicted an attempt to negotiate with Mrs. Lori for additional books to take home after Mrs. Lori had permitted her to choose two from a

prepared selection. Specifically, Alyssa remarked, “How about four?” When Mrs. Lori replied, “Two,” Alyssa retorted, “Three!” Alyssa’s perceived costs specific to her lack of *autonomy* within intervention appeared to outweigh the benefits of the intervention; modifications to the intervention aimed at increasing her ability to make decisions within it might serve to better support her underlying motivation for doing reading there.

How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement

In general, researcher and reading specialist evaluations of Alyssa’s behavioral engagement found her to be less engaged than other intervention students (Table 4.2). This finding aligns with her preference for doing reading in the classroom. Specifically, although Alyssa was observed to frequently answer questions and exert effort when reading challenging texts, she often got off-task. More often than not, Alyssa’s breaks during intervention activities (i.e., independent reading, writing, and word work) were to eat her snack; however, she was also observed to occasionally become distracted by the flow of students entering and exiting the intervention room (multiple groups were meeting at the same time). It is important to keep in mind that Alyssa was still acquiring English at the time of the study and, as such, may have found intervention more challenging than other participants.

Summary

This chapter aimed to answer each of the four research questions in relation to the second-grade participants (n=4) that made up a subcase of the full case study sample (N=14). First, all second-grade students, identified as struggling readers at the Mayflower School, made clear distinctions between how they perceived themselves to do reading in the classroom and how they perceived themselves to do reading in the intervention setting. Additionally, as displayed in the summary table (Table 4.3), all students articulated distinct benefits associated

with reading intervention, and all but Vivian articulated costs related to intervention involvement. Vivian and Lizzy remarked that the noise level in their classrooms was the main reason they preferred reading intervention to reading time in their classroom. Alyssa and Henry, the two students demonstrating the greatest need of the four participants (as indicated by the DRA), largely preferred the additional freedom afforded within the classroom during reading time; Henry also took issue with the noise level in the intervention setting. For Alyssa and Henry, perceived costs of intervention involvement appeared to outweigh perceived benefits.

Table 4.3 Second-Grade Summary Table

Student	Instructional Preference	Number of Articulated Benefits	Number of Articulated Costs	Average Behavioral Engagement Score (Total = 28)
Vivian	Intervention	9	0	26
Lizzy	Intervention	10	2	23
Alyssa	Classroom	2	3	19
Henry	Classroom	4	5	18

Furthermore, students' motivation-related perceptions shed some light on how individuals' basic psychological needs were being satisfied or not satisfied within the intervention. In general, the intervention arguably nurtured students' needs for competence and autonomy; most appreciated the provided quiet and/or help from the teacher as well as opportunities to read and choose books. However, Henry did report that the noise level interfered with his focus. The intervention fell short for Alyssa and Henry in satisfying their unique needs for autonomy. Alyssa was the only participant to indicate that she appreciated being with others (relatedness).

Adult evaluations of second-grade participants' behavioral engagement in intervention provided support for students' articulated preferences and rationales for either doing reading in the classroom or doing reading in the intervention setting; Table 4.3 clearly shows that students who preferred the classroom (Henry and Alyssa) had lower overall behavioral engagement scores than did students who indicated a preference for the reading intervention program. That said, the questionnaires were insufficient in explaining why students who articulated a preference for the classroom felt the way they did. For example, although one can arguably infer from reading specialist and researcher questionnaire responses that Henry desired some additional control within the intervention setting, his voiced concerns with respect to decision-making are much more apparent and nuanced in his interview responses, as is his complaint about the noise level in the intervention setting. Such information is essential if interventions are to be adapted to better support students' engagement, motivation, and, in turn, achievement.

Though not directly related to the research questions, it is important to highlight that Alyssa, an ELL student of Brazilian ancestry and Henry, a male student with abundant energy, were the two participants in the subcase to indicate a preference for doing reading in the classroom; this finding is in line with claims that the reading motivation of boys and students of color is more vulnerable than that of females and whites (e.g., Wigfield, Gladstone, & Turci, 2016). Both students articulated a strong desire for additional autonomy within the intervention. The two students' aversion to the intervention is less surprising, yet all the more troubling, when considering that their DRA scores fell below those of the other second-grade participants (See Table 4.1 for DRA scores).

Chapter 5: First-Grade Findings

Introduction

This chapter presents findings specific to how first-grade participants' (n=4) motivation for doing reading in a balanced literacy Tier 2 reading intervention provided at the Mayflower school during the 2017-2018 school year was shaped by the intervention. The four child participants that made up the first-grade subcase were pulled for reading intervention from three different first-grade classrooms during classroom reading time; two students came from the same first-grade classroom. All general education classrooms (K-2) relied upon a traditional reader's workshop instructional model during classroom reading time. Information from classroom benchmark assessments (e.g., Developmental Reading Assessment) was combined with teacher recommendations to determine which students would attend reading intervention. The Developmental Reading Assessment (DRA) is an informal reading inventory that offers information about the learner's independent and instructional reading levels and provides diagnostic teaching recommendations. Upon being identified for intervention in September of 2017, the four first-grade students in the subcase were distributed across three intervention groups; two students were in the same intervention group. Basic demographic information specific to each child is presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 First-Grade Participants' Demographics

Student	Age	September 2017 DRA Independent Reading Level	Interventionist	Intervention Group	Classroom	Amount of Intervention Time
Penelope	6	1 (beginning of k)	Mrs. Lori	#1	#1	30 min 4x/week
Josh	7	2 (middle of k)	Mrs. Lori	#1	#2	30 min 4x/week
Madison	7	3 (end of k)	Mrs. Casey	#2	#2	30 min 4x/week
Agnes	6	3 (end of k)	Mrs. Casey	#3	#3	30 min 4x/week

The chapter will briefly introduce each child participant to the reader, synthesizing known relevant individual characteristics (e.g., sex, first language) and key aspects of the intervention received (e.g., main components, group size); these context-specific representations are intended to offer a sense of the unique complexity of the individual to which the research questions have been applied. After each participant introduction, results of the study pertaining to the below research questions are shared and the way(s) in which data sources (i.e., fieldnotes, child interviews, behavioral engagement questionnaires, and reading specialist interviews) triangulate to inform context-specific conclusions are discussed. Lastly, the final summary sheds light on emergent themes specific to the first-grade participants in the subsample of this study.

Research Questions

RQ1. What, if any, distinction, do kindergarten, first-, and second-grade students in the sample make between reading instruction occurring in the reading intervention setting and in the general classroom?

RQ2. What, if anything, do K-2 students enrolled in reading intervention at the Mayflower School (pseudonym) perceive to be the benefits and/or costs of their involvement in reading intervention?

RQ3. What do students' perceived benefits and costs reveal about the ways in which their basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (as defined within the SDT motivation literature) are supported in intervention sessions?

RQ4. In what ways do students' perceptions of intervention align with or differ from reading specialist and researcher perceptions of students' behavioral engagement in intervention?

Penelope

Penelope, a six-year-old female, was in the first grade at the time of the study. Mrs. Lori led Penelope's reading intervention (intervention group #1) which met at 11:40 am four times per week. This was her first year in the program; however, Penelope had received reading support at her previous school. She had not received outside-of-school reading support in the past, nor was she receiving it at the time of the study.

Penelope's intervention group included three male peers when I first began observing the group in January of 2018 (one boy exited intervention the week before Penelope's drawing interview). Another boy, Josh, also participated in the study. Mrs. Lori reported that Penelope was about a year behind grade level as indicated by classroom benchmark assessments (e.g.,

DRA); the DRA also suggested her to be the farthest behind in reading of the four first-grade study participants.

Penelope's intervention instruction was rooted largely in first-grade *Leveled Literacy Intervention* (LLI) routines. Sessions typically consisted of about ten minutes of rereading one or more LLI books (occasionally a decodable text was substituted to reinforce the previous day's word work), seven to ten minutes of word work, and five to ten minutes of new book introduction and/or writing. Phonics word work stemming from the first-grade Wilson *Foundations* program was typically substituted for the LLI word work component of the intervention. Word work usually involved a letter keyword sound routine (flashcard drill involving consonants, vowels, and digraphs), building or writing consonant-vowel-consonant words with and without digraphs, and reviewing trick words (sight word flashcard drill). Toward the end of the session, Mrs. Lori typically previewed a new LLI book with students; she invited them to read several pages together before asking students to read the book over thoroughly at home. Writing generally involved responding to a reading-related prompt provided within the LLI lesson guide; prompts typically centered on a predominant theme or lesson.

Penelope was typically quiet when I observed her and read with her in the weeks leading up to her walking tour interview. This made me a bit nervous about how comfortable she would be during our interview. She always agreed to read with me whenever I asked, but it was difficult to gauge whether she enjoyed the experience. To my surprise, she did appear eager to interview when invited; I observed her ask Mrs. Lori if it was yet her turn to meet with me. Upon beginning the first drawing of her doing reading in the general classroom, Penelope made a point of telling me, "I'm gonna do a dress!" to which I responded, "Do you like to wear dresses?!" and she remarked, "Uh-huh, but I'm not wearing one today because my mom picked out this shirt

and pants.” She went on unprompted to inform me that she enjoyed reading nonfiction books about bugs (especially “bees and beetles and fireflies”) and that she had one currently in her personal “book box” in the classroom. Less than a minute into the interview it became apparent that Penelope was comfortable conversing with me outside of the reading intervention setting. She seemed completely at ease drawing and describing the two spaces and reading programs.

While drawing, Penelope intentionally brought my attention to the “comfy cushions” that she typically sat on while reading in her classroom. Specifically, she drew herself reading “the bug book” while sitting on a cushion in her classroom drawing (Figure 5.1 below).

Figure 5.1 Penelope's Classroom Drawing



Figure 5.2 Penelope's Intervention Drawing



Her perceived importance of the cushion became even more pronounced during her walking tour interview the following week. Specifically, when asked whether if given the choice she would do reading in the intervention room or the classroom, Penelope answered, “My classroom.” Her first

reason for this decision was the noise level; she understood the noise level in the intervention room to be greater than that of her classroom. Her second reason was rooted in her personal comfort: “It’s more comfortable!” she reported. When I probed what specifically made it more comfortable, she explained, “There are cushions [in the classroom] and because we have to sit on chairs in the reading room.” In line with this rationale, she had drawn herself sitting on a chair in the intervention setting (Figure 5.2) during the drawing interview. I was surprised by her answer, as I had never witnessed her complaining or expressing any other visible signs of dissatisfaction with either the intervention room chairs or the noise level. However, I had observed within my fieldnotes that Penelope often required redirection from Mrs. Lori due to distractibility. The sections that follow provide a synthesis of data specific to Penelope and in reference to the research questions that guided the study.

Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction

Penelope made clear distinctions between that which occurred in her classroom (Classroom #1) during reading time and that which occurred within Mrs. Lori’s reading intervention. As was characteristic of the second-grade subcase, Penelope’s distinctions fell under the categories of the physical set-up, the routines, and the teacher’s role. Her characterizations of the two environments were largely supported by her drawings, Mrs. Lori’s feedback, and my videos and fieldnotes.

With regard to the physical set-up, Penelope described being able to choose whether she read at a table within the classroom or on the floor on a cushion. She indicated a clear preference for reading on the floor and further explained, “And sometimes, if you don’t want to sit on them, you can put them at the back [of the classroom], and you can lay on them there.” Penelope

described the typical intervention set-up as being comprised of chairs around a table. She described sitting in a chair at the table with “all the noisy boys.”

With respect to routines, Penelope explained reading in the classroom as a time when she would choose books from her “reading folder.” She reported that her teacher would first select books for her and place them in a bag from which she could choose those that interested her to put in a special folder for reading time. Specifically, she remarked, “You pick the books out [from the bag] and then whatever we like, we put those in our reading folders.” Upon getting this folder during reading time, Penelope would read quietly to herself, usually on the floor. Also, during this time, she would occasionally ask her teacher for help solving a word. She further explained that whenever she finished a book, she usually read one page from the book to her teacher.

In the intervention room, Penelope reported that she usually began by reading a book that Mrs. Lori gave her to read. Penelope mentioned that Mrs. Lori sometimes let them sit in special “comfy chairs” on the floor during this time. She specified that sometimes she was given a new book to read and other times she was given a book she had read before. Mrs. Lori relayed that she occasionally asked intervention students to read a short decodable text before rereading LLI books to reinforce the previous day’s word work. Penelope explained that upon finishing the book Mrs. Lori provided, she could then pick another book from the table to read until Mrs. Lori called everyone back to the table. Once called to the table, Penelope reported, she and the other students usually worked on “making sentences” and “words”. She reported that the group would “sometimes make hard words and sometimes easy words.” After doing word and sentence activities, Penelope explained, they then “read more books” before choosing books to take home to read. Penelope further explicated that they chose books to take home but could not color or

keep those books. She continued on to say, “We take them [copies of LLI books] home and then we also have the paper books...and she writes ‘keep at home’ on them.” The paper books were books Mrs. Lori printed from an online leveled library and gave to students to keep at home. Penelope’s descriptions of that which occurred in both reading spaces were especially detailed compared to others in the first-grade subcase.

With regard to the classroom teacher’s role, Penelope reported that she helped kids with both reading and math during reading time, that she selected books for students, that she listened to kids read, and that she helped them when they were stuck on words. In the intervention room, Penelope relayed that Mrs. Lori picked books for them, called students to the table for word work, and told them where to sit. In sum, it can be concluded that Penelope held distinct understandings of that which occurred both in the classroom and in the intervention setting.

Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention Involvement

Benefits. Penelope shared three primary benefits that she attributed to her intervention involvement. First, she relayed that she enjoyed being able to keep certain books Mrs. Lori sent home because she could “do whatever” she wanted with them there. For example, she reported enjoying coloring the black and white books at home. As such, this particular advantage likely contributed some *utility value* to the reading intervention; Penelope perceived this perk as enabling her to do something else she desired (e.g., coloring the printed books at home) (Eccles, 2005). Next, she expressed appreciating being able to sit in the “comfy chairs” when permitted. When probed why she liked this, she simply remarked that it was “more comfy.” As such, the option to periodically sit in the special seats might have added some additional *utility value* to the reading intervention for Penelope if by increasing her physical comfort, she was better able to complete reading tasks; however, like Lizzy, she did not explicitly state this. Finally, Penelope

remarked that she liked “reading with people” in the intervention room. More specifically, Penelope indicated that she enjoyed reading aloud and listening to her peers read aloud at Mrs. Lori’s table—which they often did after Mrs. Lori introduced a new book and the group had practiced reading all or a portion of it to themselves. This aspect of intervention likely contributed some *intrinsic value* due to it being a source of inherent satisfaction for Penelope (Eccles, 2005).

Costs. Penelope also relayed three main disadvantages she associated with her intervention involvement. First, she indicated a clear preference for the classroom due to her perception that the intervention room was somewhat louder. Specifically, she clarified that the intervention room was “a little bit noisier” than her classroom, making it more difficult to concentrate. Second, Penelope perceived the intervention room as less comfortable than the classroom and suggested that she be permitted to sit in the “comfy chairs” more often. Last, Penelope indicated that she wished they could spend some intervention time coloring the black and white books Mrs. Lori printed and sent home for the students to keep: “[I would like to] color the books that say, ‘keep at home’!” she remarked towards the end of the walking tour interview. As such, it is evident that Penelope was aware of several *opportunity costs* (Flake et al., 2015; Perez et al., 2014) stemming from her intervention involvement; given her preference for doing reading in the classroom, these costs appeared to outweigh the benefits she attributed to her involvement.

What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs

Several of the benefits and costs Penelope shared offer evidence of either promoting or neglecting of one or more of her basic psychological needs (i.e., *autonomy*, *competence*, *relatedness*; Ryan & Deci, 2002). First, Penelope’s perceived benefit of being able to take

printed books home to color or to do other things with offers evidence that the intervention promoted some *autonomy* outside of the actual intervention setting. Additionally, Penelope expressed that she appreciated reading with other people; specifically, she enjoyed taking turns reading at the table during intervention. Penelope's explanation suggests that the intervention provided an opportunity to demonstrate her reading *competence* and, as such, likely supported her need to perform well within the intervention (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

Penelope's perceived benefit of occasionally being permitted to sit in the "comfy chairs" does not fit neatly into a basic needs category. She did not suggest this comfort enabled her to better concentrate on her reading (as she did when talking about how noise impacted her ability to read). As such, I categorized this benefit as meeting a desire for physical comfort. This categorization differed somewhat from that of Lizzy (second-grade participant), who also acknowledged appreciating the comfortable chairs, as Lizzy indicated that she valued having the choice in her intervention with Mrs. Casey of whether to utilize the comfortable chairs and/or spread out; Lizzy's comments more readily suggest these options support her need for autonomy within the intervention. Nevertheless, a desire to be physically comfortable during intervention time surfaced for the second time in the study.

The noise level in the intervention room at times represented a barrier for Penelope when she was striving to complete reading tasks and, as such, did not always support her need for *competence* (Niemic & Ryan, 2009). It is possible Penelope's dissatisfaction with the amount of physical comfort provided within the intervention also interfered with her perceived *competence*; however, she did not explicitly indicate this. Last, Penelope's request to spend some intervention time coloring the printed take-home books suggests she craved more *autonomy* to do things she enjoyed within the intervention; the intervention could have better supported her need for

autonomy. In sum, Penelope's underlying perceptions that the intervention was too noisy and less comfortable than her classroom, coupled with her decision not to attend if given the choice, suggest the reading intervention was not generally promoting her underlying motivation for doing reading there.

How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement

Both teacher and researcher evaluations of Penelope's behavioral engagement indicated that she appeared "somewhat less engaged" overall than other first-grade intervention students. Table 5.2, below, provides each of the four first-grade students' total behavioral engagement scores (out of 28) as evaluated by me (n=2) and the reading specialist (n=1) on the behavioral engagement questionnaire for reference. I completed one questionnaire for each of two separate video observations; the reading specialist completed one form based on the child's overall engagement in the program. The table also includes the general label each evaluator assigned to the child's overall engagement specific to the situation (i.e., single video observation, overall). Descriptive choices for each indicator of engagement included: 1) somewhat less engaged than others, 2) about as engaged as others, 3) somewhat more engaged than others, and 4) much more engaged than others.

Table 5.2 Overview of First-Grade Behavioral Engagement Evaluations

Child	Reading Specialist Overall Behavioral Engagement Score (Total =28)	General Label Assigned	Researcher Overall Behavioral Engagement Score (Video #1)	General Label Assigned	Researcher Overall Behavioral Engagement Score (Video #2)	General Label Assigned
Agnes	27	Somewhat more engaged than others	26	Somewhat more engaged than others	23	About as engaged as others
Madison	23	About as engaged as others	23	Somewhat more engaged than others	22	About as engaged as others
Josh	17	About as engaged as others	21	About as engaged as others	19	Somewhat less engaged than others
Penelope	13	Somewhat less engaged than others	18	Somewhat less engaged than others	19	Somewhat less engaged than others

Both researcher and reading specialist (Mrs. Lori) behavioral engagement questionnaires indicated that Penelope struggled with maintaining focus during structured (e.g., *Foundations* drills) and unstructured (e.g., independent reading) activities; Penelope was redirected many times in both video observations. Furthermore, fieldnotes on three separate occasions noted that “Penelope had to be redirected by Mrs. Lori throughout the intervention.” Fieldnotes and video observations also lent support to Penelope’s claim that the intervention could get loud due to the “noisy boys.” Specifically, Josh and another male group member were observed acting silly together on multiple occasions which resulted in loud laughter that distracted all group members

including Mrs. Lori. Regardless, Penelope presented as the most easily and frequently distracted student of the four in the first-grade subcase. It seems unlikely that decreasing the noise level in the intervention room would entirely solve this issue, as Penelope was also observed becoming distracted when the room was nearly silent. For example, fieldnotes captured her pretending to reread (flipping through the pages and looking around the room) a book that she chose from a selection Mrs. Lori had put out for the group during a quiet rereading time. As such, it is difficult to determine whether her distractibility is due to her disinterest in the reading intervention, the noise level, a personal trait, or something else entirely. Regardless, there is sufficient evidence to suggest that Penelope was less engaged than others in the reading intervention; this conclusion lends support to the inference that the intervention was not largely supportive of her developing motivation for doing reading there.

Josh

Josh, a seven-year-old male, was in the first grade at the time of the study. Josh, who was in the same intervention group as Penelope (intervention group #1), participated in intervention four times a week with sessions lasting approximately 30 minutes each. This was his second year in the program. He had not received outside-of-school reading support in the past, nor was he receiving it at the time of the study. However, Josh was being evaluated for a language-based disability; he was reading about a year behind grade level.

Josh seemed to especially enjoy reading independently to himself and to others, though his attention did drift at times. On multiple occasions he requested to read with me, always smiling and sharing personal connections. Josh had an enormous amount of energy, and Mrs. Lori and the school counselor often met to brainstorm ways for him to release his energy during intervention. For example, they placed a fidget band under his chair so that he could move it with

his feet when forced to sit at the reading table for instruction. Josh was also permitted to take breaks as needed, and Mrs. Lori typically sat Penelope between Josh and his male friend who was also in the reading intervention group. Although these supports appeared to help Josh focus more on instruction, controlling his outbursts during Mrs. Lori's lessons still proved difficult at times. He would frequently interrupt Mrs. Lori and his peers mid-sentence to share his own ideas; however, his ideas, much like Henry's interruptions, were usually connected to intervention topics and activities. For example, on one occasion I observed Mrs. Lori attempt to correct Josh after he substituted his own keyword (dig) into a *Foundations* letter keyword sound drill (the drill word was dog); Josh quickly prevented Mrs. Lori from completing her explanation by loudly exclaiming, "I like dig better. Dig is better!"

Just as Josh had been excited to read with me in the weeks leading up to his first interview, he appeared eager to participate in the drawing interview, nearly yelling "Yes!" when Mrs. Lori asked him if he would like to work with me. Josh's drawings (Figures 5.3 and 5.4) are far more involved than the drawings of other first-grade participants; Josh seemed to get caught up in the physical details of each setting's surroundings (e.g., flag, room number, rug). He explained while drawing that he primarily read by himself in the classroom and with a group in the intervention setting.

Figure 5.3 Josh's Classroom Drawing

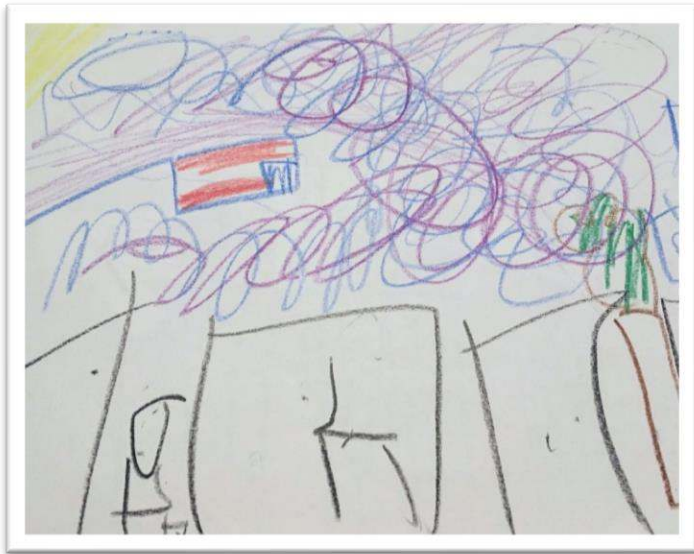


Figure 5.4 Josh's Intervention Drawing



However, in the classroom he had to read the books in his book bag in a specific order. Josh indicated that although he largely enjoyed reading in both spaces, he appreciated not having to read books in a particular order during independent reading in the intervention room. Furthermore, Josh indicated that he preferred doing reading in the intervention room with Mrs.

Lori. The sections that follow provide a synthesis of data specific to Josh and in reference to the research questions that guided the study.

Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction

Josh maintained that he brought the same mantra to his classroom (Classroom #2) reading time and his intervention reading time: “We read and we stop and we keep trying and then we finally get it correct and we keep going,” he remarked when I asked him to describe what he did in each space. However, Josh’s distinctions between the two programs grew increasingly apparent as we continued interviewing. His interview responses describing the two programs generally fell into the three broad categories of the room set-up, the instructional routines, and the teacher’s role. Josh’s characterizations of the two environments were largely supported by his drawings, Mrs. Lori’s feedback, and my videos and fieldnotes.

With regard to room set-up, Josh remarked that he typically read on the rug in his classroom, but that he was also permitted to read at a table if he wanted. He pointed out a large bin labeled “Owl Bin” and explained that it housed the books he chose when he went book shopping. He also pointed out where his book bag was stored in the classroom. In contrast, he described the intervention room set-up as consisting of a table that his group usually sat at, but he clarified “sometimes people sit on the floor [in the blue cushiony chairs] to read when it’s their turn.” He also pointed out the green LLI boxes where Mrs. Lori pulled leveled books for the group to read and a *Foundations* letter keyword sound chart that he explained helped him solve words.

With regard to routines, Josh described reading time in his classroom as a time when he would grab his bookbag, find a spot to read, and read the books from his bookbag in order by himself. He explained that “about every three weeks,” he would choose new books from the Owl

Bin to put in his book bag. He also indicated that his teacher would occasionally sit down and read with him. Upon entering intervention, Josh described first giving the books that he took home the night before back to Mrs. Lori and then choosing a few books she put out on the table to read. He listed several titles that he had recently reread in Mrs. Lori's room including *Chicken Little* and *The Fish Tank*. Josh went on to explain that after rereading, the group would work on words and sounds, do some more reading, and get new books in their bookbags to take home to read before leaving for recess.

Josh described his classroom teacher's role during reading time as going up to kids and "sharing reading with them." He described Mrs. Lori's role as writing on the white board to teach the group things like "bs and ds" and putting books in their take-home reading bags. Josh made clear distinctions between the two reading programs; he ended our walking tour interview by remarking, "They [classroom and intervention reading time] are both pretty fun, but that one's [pointing to Mrs. Lori's room] better!"

Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention Involvement

Benefits. Specifically, Josh shared three main aspects of the intervention reading program that he appreciated. First, Josh underscored that he valued the way Mrs. Lori would let him choose from among a selection of books to reread upon entering the room; he enjoyed choosing "the hard ones" from the offered selection. This rationale suggests being able to choose the books he wanted to read contributed some *intrinsic value* to the reading intervention for Josh (Eccles, 2005). It may have also contributed some *utility value* (Eccles, 2005) if Josh equated reading the harder books with improving his reading; however, he did not explicitly state this. Similarly, Josh valued that Mrs. Lori allowed him to read the books he chose in whatever order he wanted; this differed from his classroom where he was asked to read the books in his bookbag

in the order they appeared. Having the freedom to choose the order of books also likely added *intrinsic value* to the program, as Josh could read books he was most interested in first.

Furthermore, Josh appreciated *Foundations* trick word and letter keyword sound routines: he liked getting his own pile of trick words and/or sound cards and reading them aloud. He remarked, “It’s cool because we say our own pile. . . . and sometimes you get hard ones, and I like to do the hard ones so that I can learn new words!” In sum, the *Foundations* drills offered some *utility value* for Josh because of his perception that they helped him learn new words, and they also likely contributed some *intrinsic value* because of the overall joy participation in these specific activities brought him.

Costs. Josh relayed one cost that he associated with his intervention involvement. Specifically, he did not like missing reading time in his classroom, which occurred at the same time as intervention. He remarked, “Sometimes I don’t even get to do [reading on the rug in his classroom], because I go here for help with reading.” As Josh largely held favorable views of both reading programs, he associated some *opportunity cost* (Flake et al., 2015; Perez et al., 2014) with attending intervention.

What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs

The benefits Josh shared offer insight regarding how the intervention supported his basic psychological needs (i.e., *autonomy, competence, relatedness*; Ryan & Deci, 2002). First, the way in which Mrs. Lori permitted him to choose from a selection of books during rereading time and read those that he selected in the order he pleased nurtured his need to execute some control over his own learning, or *autonomy* (Ryan & Deci, 2002). The “hard” books Josh self-selected to read and the trick word and letter keyword sound drill activities he perceived to be adaptively challenging supported his need for *competence* in that he experienced a sense of satisfaction in

solving the more difficult words and/or furthering his learning (Niemic & Ryan, 2009). The opportunity cost Josh shared specific to him missing reading time in his classroom does not suggest his basic psychological needs were not being met; instead, it suggests Josh's needs were likely nurtured in both places and, as such, he largely enjoyed participating in both programs.

How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement

Mrs. Lori rated Josh overall as “about as engaged as others,” while I observed him to be “about as engaged as others” in video observation #1 and “somewhat less engaged than others” in video observation #2 (See Table 5.2). The average of Josh's three behavioral engagement scores was three points higher than Penelope's average score (See Table 5.3). Josh's enjoyment specific to choosing his own book was captured on video and in researcher fieldnotes; specifically, he smiled and remarked “Yes!” on one occasion when Mrs. Lori announced it was time to select books. Furthermore, video evidence portrayed Josh happily sharing the books he selected with a friend. Mrs. Lori, too, noted Josh's expressed excitement specific to intervention books, remarking on her questionnaire, “He is enthusiastic for new books.” Similarly, Josh's enjoyment specific to participating in the *Foundations* trick word drill was also supported within Mrs. Lori's behavioral questionnaire responses. She noted, “[Josh] gets excited when he confidently reads a stack of trick word cards”; video evidence further supported this claim.

Josh's behavioral engagement scores were lower than two other students in the subcase largely due to his frequent interruptions during group time. Mrs. Lori indicated on Josh's behavioral engagement questionnaire, “He lacks impulse control, and constant physical movement and verbal output at times makes sitting still and not interrupting others' learning time a challenge.” Similarly, video observations detailed numerous instances when Josh interrupted others; however, these interruptions were generally on topic. It is important to note that soon

after the completion of the study, Josh was placed on a language-based individualized education plan; his struggle to calm his body and control his verbal interruptions was deemed by the school as a substantial barrier to his learning. Although all agreed Josh largely enjoyed reading intervention, adult reports suggest he could have been more engaged. As such, adult observations of Josh's behavioral engagement partially supported his perceptions of reading intervention.

Madison

Madison was seven years old at the time of the study. She had been receiving reading intervention support at Mayflower since kindergarten. Madison was one of four students in her intervention group (intervention group #2) led by Mrs. Casey; she participated in intervention four times a week, and sessions lasted approximately 30 minutes each. The group met at 11:40 am (at the same time as intervention group #1, but on the opposite side of the room). Madison had not received outside-of-school reading support in the past, nor was she receiving it at the time of the study. Madison was about two months behind grade-level reading expectations, as indicated by classroom benchmark assessments (e.g., DRA); however, the school was concerned about her rate of progress due to her age.

Madison's intervention (group #2) was similar to that of intervention group #1; however, this group used LLI texts exclusively and was farther along in the first-grade *Wilson Foundations* scope and sequence. Specifically, Madison's group was working intensely on words that contained r-controlled sounds (e.g., girl, herd, barn) at the time of her video observations. I came to learn during her drawing interview that the word work aspect of intervention was something Madison appreciated very much. She always appeared enthusiastic to attend intervention in my experience, and she credited intervention with transforming her into a capable reader. Specifically, she remarked to me during our first interview, "We get to learn new words here! I

used to be really bad at reading but I'm really good now cuz now I know that e doesn't say its name when it's at the end [of a word]!" Madison went on to comment that she had not learned rules like this one in her classroom: "Only here I learned them," she said.

Madison made other comparisons between her classroom and intervention reading experiences without being prompted during her drawing interview and the following week during her walking tour interview. For example, she expressed that she was the only girl in her intervention group and that while she typically read to herself at a table in the classroom, she read to herself and to others in the intervention room. Her drawings depict her reading silently at a table in her classroom with her friend Stacey (Figure 5.5) and entering the reading intervention room (Figure 5.6).

Figure 5.5 Madison's Classroom Drawing



Figure 5.6 Madison's Intervention Drawing



In addition to appreciating the word-solving support she received at intervention, Madison enjoyed playing word-solving games with Mrs. Casey. For example, Madison highlighted a

version of musical chairs the group often played with r-controlled words. As such, it came as no surprise that Madison indicated a preference for doing reading in the intervention room. The sections that follow provide a synthesis of data specific to Madison and in reference to the research questions that guided the study.

Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction

Madison appeared to easily make distinctions between classroom and intervention reading programs. She was in the same general education classroom as Josh (Classroom #2) and her descriptions of the structure, routines, and teacher's role during classroom reading time largely mirrored Josh's descriptions. Specifically, Madison described being able to sometimes choose whether she sat at a table comprised of several desks or on the rug for classroom reading time. She particularly enjoyed sitting next to her friend, Stacey (pictured reading next to Madison in Figure 5.5). She also described choosing books "once in a while" from the large book bins Josh had mentioned and placing selected books into a clear bag that she would utilize during reading time. In contrast, Madison remarked that in the intervention setting she usually sat with a small group of boys and with Mrs. Casey around a table; she indicated that she was also permitted to sit in the more comfortable blue chairs on the floor during independent reading.

Classroom routines involved Madison collecting her clear book bag, going to her spot (table or rug), and then "practicing reading for a while." Though she did not relay a mantra for persevering through challenging text during reading time like Josh did, she did explain that she would try and tap words out (*Foundations* decoding strategy) before asking an adult for help in the classroom. In the intervention setting, Madison described taking out the book she was directed to read the night before from her intervention bookbag and rereading. She indicated that afterwards, she was permitted to choose from a selection of books Mrs. Casey placed on the table

(all of which she had read before) and read for a bit longer before “doing some learning.”

Madison remarked that when it was time to learn about words and sounds, Mrs. Casey first gave each member of the group a sticker to place on a bookmark if they had done their reading the night before. She next described the group learning about trick words and “ar and ir” and sometimes doing some writing. Mrs. Casey even let members of the group “be the teacher” and lead different word activities, Madison stated. Last, Madison indicated that the group did some more reading together and then some on their own.

With regard to each teacher’s role, Madison described her classroom teacher and two assistants sitting at desks in the room during reading time and helping students when they “got stuck.” Sometimes Madison would read to them. Madison described Mrs. Casey as calling the group to the table to do “some learning” where she would teach them things. In sum, Madison, too, articulated distinct understandings of that which occurred both in the classroom and in the intervention setting during reading time.

Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention Involvement

Benefits. Madison shared eight benefits associated with intervention involvement. She first shared two primary reasons for preferring to do reading in the intervention space: 1) Madison maintained that there was less noise in the intervention room which permitted her to “concentrate better,” and 2) she looked forward to the opportunity to switch groups in the future because it enabled her to “make new friends” and spend time with both Mrs. Lori and Mrs. Casey. Madison had been in Mrs. Lori’s intervention group in kindergarten and was excited to be in her group again. Both of Madison’s primary reasons for preferring intervention contributed *utility value* to the reading intervention (Eccles, 2005); the intervention better enabled her to

complete reading-related tasks due to decreased noise, and it helped her to establish and maintain relationships.

Another aspect that added *utility value* to the reading intervention for Madison was the availability of support with regard to solving challenging words while reading independently. Specifically, she explained, “In both rooms the teacher helps us, but like, the teachers in my classroom [classroom teacher and aides]—there’s not many. There’s usually one at the table and then there’s another one, but you have to wait for a while, or for like the whole reading time [to get help].” Additionally, Madison valued the phonics strategy instruction she received in intervention, maintaining that she had learned many rules for solving words in intervention that she had not learned in her classroom. Other aspects that added *utility value* to the reading intervention for Madison by better enabling her to reach personal goals (Eccles, 2005) included receiving and collecting stickers for completing her at-home reading and having the option to sit in the “comfy” blue chairs during independent reading, which she claimed helped her focus on her reading.

Furthermore, Madison explained that she enjoyed going to intervention because she liked reading and learning new things in general: “I like reading!” she exclaimed during her walking tour interview. Additionally, she remarked that it was “fun” to use Mrs. Casey’s special pointer when practicing her sight words. Time spent reading and doing reading-related tasks with or without special props in the intervention setting proved enjoyable and/or interesting for Madison, thus adding *intrinsic value* (Eccles, 2005) to the reading intervention.

Costs. Madison relayed two costs associated with her intervention involvement. The first pertained to her missing time spent with her friends in the classroom. Specifically, Madison missed sitting with Stacey and other girls not involved in the reading intervention. As such,

Madison attributed an *opportunity cost* (Perez et al., 2014) to her intervention involvement. Furthermore, she indicated that she wished she had already changed groups; Madison had grown somewhat tired of the people in her current grouping. Regardless, the benefits Madison associated with going to intervention appeared to far outweigh the costs at the time of the study.

What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs

With respect to her need for *autonomy*, several of Madison's perceived benefits can be considered autonomy-supportive (Niemi & Ryan, 2009). Specifically, being able to access a teacher for help as needed during independent reading nurtured Madison's need for *autonomy* (as well as her need for *competence*) by permitting her some control over when to seek assistance. Additionally, having the option to sit in the "comfy" blue chairs during independent reading time and to utilize Mrs. Casey's special pointer when practicing her sight words encouraged Madison to exercise some control over her learning. Lastly, being able to engage often in an activity she enjoyed, reading, supported her need for *autonomy*.

In addition to the ability to access the teacher for support during independent reading, the quiet afforded within the intervention space and the phonics instruction Madison received there supported her need for *competence* (Niemi & Ryan, 2009). It is unclear whether receiving a sticker each time she completed her at-home reading supported Madison's need for competence or not. She simply indicated that she enjoyed collecting the stickers, not that they made her feel good about the reading she had done. As such, I am not able to determine whether this aspect of intervention nurtured a specific need.

Lastly, being able to forge new friendships with peers and maintain previous friendships with peers and teachers through the reading intervention largely supported Madison's need for *relatedness* (Niemi & Ryan, 2009). Meeting new people was one of the primary reasons

Madison preferred to do reading in the intervention setting. That said, she also identified missing reading near her classroom friends (e.g., Stacey) as an opportunity cost associated with intervention involvement; perhaps being able to partake in both reading times daily would better fulfill this need. Furthermore, she indicated that she wanted to change groups to make new friends and reconnect with Mrs. Lori. In sum, Madison perceived the reading intervention as a crucial way of connecting with others. As such, the reading intervention appeared to sufficiently support all three of Madison's basic psychological needs; this conclusion aligns with her preference for doing reading there.

How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement

Numerically speaking, adult evaluations of Madison's behavioral engagement on engagement questionnaires can be interpreted as supporting her preference for doing reading in the intervention space (See Table 5.3 for overall group comparison); Madison's average behavioral engagement score (23/28) was higher than all other first-grade participants with the exception of Agnes, whose average score was two points higher. However, Mrs. Casey labeled her "about as engaged as others" overall, and I evaluated her engagement in one video to be "about as engaged as others" and in a second video as "somewhat more engaged than others." During the end of her study interview, Mrs. Casey confirmed Madison's ranking right below Agnes: she clarified that although Madison was at times more engaged than others, overall, she was not quite as engaged as Agnes.

Both Mrs. Casey and I found Madison to be extremely enthusiastic about most intervention tasks: she was observed on video doing a victory dance after correctly solving the ar word, barn, during word work. We also both indicated that she often persevered through challenging tasks; Madison typically attempted known strategies such as tapping out words

before asking Mrs. Casey for help. And, Madison often shared her understandings and personal connections with others. For example, on one occasion she walked over to the r-controlled anchor chart, picked up the pointer and explained how she solved an r-controlled word to a confused peer.

In contrast to these positive behaviors, fieldnotes and video observations revealed that Madison would occasionally interrupt peers and Mrs. Casey while they were talking. These infrequent interruptions could be quite off-putting; for example, during a transition period between the conclusion of a word game and book introduction, Madison interrupted Mrs. Casey as she was giving instructions and yelled, “Noooooo! One more time!” Mrs. Casey categorized these occasional outbursts as Madison being “a little sassy.” Fieldnotes and video observations also indicated that Madison was occasionally distracted by peers during independent reading time; however, she was quick to redirect herself. All in all, adult evaluations of Madison’s behavioral engagement specific to the reading intervention support her preference for doing reading in the intervention setting.

Agnes

Agnes, a cheerful female, was six years old at the time of the study. Agnes had been receiving reading intervention support at Mayflower since kindergarten. She was nearly always smiling in my experience, and she seemed especially enthusiastic to participate in Mrs. Casey’s reading intervention group (group #3). No other participants attended intervention at 1:15pm with Agnes; however, her intervention group met just as the others did—four times per week with sessions lasting about 30 minutes. She was the only participant in her first-grade classroom (Classroom #3).

Agnes had not received outside-of-school reading support in the past, nor was she receiving it at the time of the study. Like Madison, Agnes was about two months behind grade-level reading expectations as indicated by classroom benchmark assessments (e.g., DRA). The content and routines characteristic of Agnes's intervention (group #3) largely mirrored those of Madison's group (group #2). Agnes was one of four students in her intervention group.

Agnes very much appreciated attending reading intervention; this was in part due to the way she characterized herself as a reader—as a “middle-diddle.” The following conversation better illustrates her understanding:

Agnes: I'm a middle-diddle!

Researcher: You're a what?

Agnes: I'm a middle-diddle!

Researcher: A middle-diddle?

Agnes: Yeah

Researcher: Is that what [your classroom teacher] calls you?

Agnes: No. Me and my friends just made it up. If you think you're in the middle [in between reading levels], then you can say, “I'm a middle-diddle!” Yippee!

Researcher: Because one level is too easy and the other is a little bit too tough?

Agnes: Yeah!

These remarks emerged after Agnes expressed frustration with reading challenging books in her classroom; she perceived herself as having limited opportunities for help in solving difficult words during independent reading. In contrast, she viewed the intervention setting as highly supportive and articulated her appreciation for multiple aspects that ranged from the limited

noise to the word games played there. Agnes further remarked, “If you read with Mrs. Casey or Mrs. Lori, you get to be a great reader!”

Agnes brought this same level of enthusiasm to her drawing and walking tour interviews. As was the case with all other participants, her drawing interview occurred about a week before her walking tour interview. Her drawings appear below in figures 5.7 and 5.8.

Figure 5.7 Agnes’s Classroom Drawing



Figure 5.8 Agnes’s Intervention Drawing



To distinguish between the two reading settings, Agnes remarked that she drew herself reading *Is this a Monster?*, a favorite informational book she read on the floor of her classroom during reading time, and *Pop! Pop! Pop!*, an LLI book she enjoyed reading in the intervention “comfy” chairs. Agnes liked reading in both spaces; however, if given the choice she indicated a preference for doing reading in the intervention setting. A synthesis of data specific to Agnes and in reference to the research questions is provided below.

Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction

Agnes easily distinguished between classroom and intervention reading room set-ups, routines, and teacher roles. Specifically, Agnes described the classroom as having “flexible seating” which allowed her to read with or without a partner on the floor or at a table, as well as

“a little library” from which she selected books at her level to place in her bookbag for independent reading time. In contrast, Agnes described the intervention room as involving reading in chairs around a table with her group or reading in “comfy” chairs independently on the floor (as depicted in Figure 5.8).

During reading time in her classroom, Agnes described, her classroom teacher taught the class something about reading before permitting her to get out her bookbag and choose a spot to read. Agnes could read the leveled books in her bookbag in any order, but was not to read the same book the entire time. Agnes explained that at the time of the study, her class was focusing on “nonfiction reading and writing” and that she had recently read the nonfiction text, *Is this a Monster?*, which she enjoyed. Sometimes independent reading would involve a partner; specifically, Agnes indicated that occasionally the class would be instructed to read sections of the book they were working on to their reading partner, who would provide assistance if needed. Agnes’s classroom teacher also checked in with her “sometimes”. Agnes remarked that the books she experienced in the classroom were sometimes “really hard,” and she explained that it was difficult for her to help her partner or for her partner to help her when they were on different books. In contrast, she indicated that she appreciated everyone reading the same books in the intervention setting, as they could more readily help each other when stuck on challenging words.

Additionally, intervention routines differed from classroom routines, according to Agnes, in that in intervention, “Mrs. Casey does words and stuff at different times—not just at the beginning”; the programs also differed, according to Agnes, with regard to what was taught. Specifically, Agnes referenced phonics rules including “magic e” to show she was introduced to concepts not yet discussed in her classroom. Agnes also indicated that silent reading typically

occurred at the start and end of intervention, but that students read out loud together following new book introductions. Agnes described Mrs. Casey's new book introductions: "She reads with us and shows us the new book, but we can't bring that one home – it's just for practice." These introductions, Agnes stated, preceded first silent reading in her head and then reading out loud as a group. In sum, the flow and content of classroom and intervention routines differed substantially in Agnes's mind.

With regard to each teacher's role, Agnes described the classroom teacher as teaching the class something about reading (a mini-lesson) at the very beginning of reading time and then sending students off to read silently, during which time the teacher would "sometimes practice" books with them individually. Agnes described Mrs. Casey's role as helping with words often, reading with students, and teaching "words and stuff" in the "middle" as well as at other times during the intervention. In sum, Agnes understood the two programs to be independent in many ways.

Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention Involvement

Benefits. Agnes relayed six distinct benefits associated with her intervention involvement. Agnes's main rationale for preferring reading intervention to classroom reading time was that she very much enjoyed the word activities she did there. For example, she indicated that her favorite word activity was "word musical chairs" in which the children would build a word ladder with *Foundations* target words (centered on vowels teams, word families, etc.) and then switch seats as Mrs. Casey hummed to them; at their new seat, they would practice reading a peer's word ladder. This aspect of the reading intervention added substantial *intrinsic value* (i.e., fun) to the intervention for Agnes. Additionally, Agnes indicated a preference for intervention because she was able to easily access help when she needed it: "[In the classroom]

we usually get stuck on a word and then we keep having to try stuff and we try everything, but we can't raise our hand and go ask for help from [the classroom teacher]. In here we can point to the word and raise our hand and Mrs. Casey will help us." In the same vein, Agnes appreciated that all students were working on the same books at the same time in Mrs. Casey's class and, as such, could better help each other when they got stuck on words; this support was less available in her classroom where her reading partner was reading a different book of a higher level. Mrs. Casey's help and the help of her small-group peers contributed *utility value* to the intervention for Agnes by better enabling her to successfully complete reading tasks. Furthermore, Agnes indicated there to be far less noise in the intervention space and described it to be "much calmer" than her classroom during reading time; she credited the provided quiet with helping her to better focus on her reading. Specifically, she stated, "[In the intervention space] you sometimes get distracted, but in [the classroom] I get distracted a lot!" The decreased noise contributed additional *utility value* to the intervention for Agnes. Lastly, Agnes indicated her appreciation for being able to sit in the "comfy blue chairs" during independent reading in the intervention setting; she described the chairs as "more comfortable" than the regular chairs. As such, they too may have contributed some *utility value* to the intervention by helping her to be more physically comfortable as she read; however, Agnes did not explicitly state that they helped her read. As a final testament to the intervention's *utility value*, Agnes explained that she thought intervention involvement helped each student to "be a great reader!"

Costs. Agnes relayed only one cost of intervention. Specifically, she indicated that she could become distracted at times by other people in the intervention space. Such distractions would interrupt her independent reading and cause her frustration as she attempted to refocus;

however, she described these distractions to be far less frequent than those experienced in the classroom.

What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs

Agnes's perceived benefits of intervention suggest the intervention was both *autonomy*-supportive and primarily *competence*-supportive for her. Specifically, by giving her the ability to engage in tasks that she enjoyed (e.g., word musical chairs) and seek out help as she saw fit, the intervention permitted Agnes some control over her learning (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). Although Agnes remarked that she occasionally became distracted by others within the intervention, she largely recognized her *competence* to be supported in numerous ways there including via the decreased noise, the phonics instruction, and the peer and interventionist support. Her appreciation of peer and interventionist support while reading also suggested the intervention nurtured her need for *relatedness* within the space.

How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement

Researcher and reading specialist evaluations of Agnes's engagement within the reading intervention largely supported Agnes's perceptions as well as her preference to do reading in the intervention setting. Specifically, both researcher and reading specialist evaluated Agnes to be "somewhat more engaged" in the reading intervention than other students, and numerically speaking, she scored higher on average on the behavioral engagement questionnaire than all other participants (See Table 5.3 below for participant averages).

Mrs. Casey described Agnes as her "most enthusiastic student" and supported her high evaluation of Agnes's engagement in intervention by maintaining that she "listens carefully, asks questions, and contributes her thoughts and opinions" often. Furthermore, Mrs. Casey noted Agnes' enthusiasm for word work games and new books as well as her tendency to complete all

assigned tasks. Researcher fieldnotes and video logs largely supported Mrs. Casey's understandings. For example, Agnes offered the following connection during a group reading of an informational text about octopi: "Octopi have eight legs—just like spiders!" Furthermore, Agnes was observed more than once to expend considerably more effort than others; specifically, she would request to stay after intervention to complete her writing or finish reading a newly introduced text. Additionally, researcher fieldnotes and video logs depicted Agnes on multiple occasions asking for help to solve words during independent reading after first attempting to utilize known fix-up strategies (e.g., tapping, referencing anchor charts). Lastly, researcher evaluations and Mrs. Casey's final interview confirmed that Agnes could occasionally become distracted by side conversations with peers during intervention. All in all, adult evaluations of Agnes's reading intervention engagement largely support her perceptions and preference to do reading in the intervention setting.

Summary

This chapter aimed to answer each of the four research questions in relation to the first-grade participants (n=4) who made up a subcase of the full case study sample. First, all first-grade participants made clear distinctions between how they perceived themselves to do reading in the classroom and how they perceived themselves to do reading in the intervention setting. Additionally, as displayed in the below summary table (Table 5.3), all students articulated distinct benefits and costs associated with reading intervention.

Once again, noise and physical comfort appeared to heavily influence students' setting preferences. Penelope indicated a preference for reading in her classroom due to her perceptions that the intervention setting was louder and far less comfortable, while Madison and Agnes preferred the intervention setting in part because they considered it to be much quieter.

Furthermore, Agnes and Josh valued the opportunities provided within intervention; Josh appreciated the level of challenge afforded, and Agnes appreciated the fun she experienced playing games and the help she got specific to word solving. For all students except Penelope, intervention benefits outweighed perceived costs as indicated by their preferred settings. As was the case with the two second-grade participants who indicated a preference for reading in the classroom, Penelope was identified as being further behind all other subcase participants with respect to reading proficiency benchmarks (e.g., DRA).

Table 5.3 First-Grade Summary Table

Student	Instructional Preference	Number of Articulated Benefits	Number of Articulated Costs	Average Behavioral Engagement Score (Total = 28)
Agnes	Intervention	6	1	25
Madison	Intervention	8	2	23
Josh	Intervention	3	1	19
Penelope	Classroom	3	3	17

Furthermore, students' motivation-related perceptions again shed light on how their basic psychological needs were being satisfied or not satisfied within the intervention. In general, the intervention arguably nurtured students' needs for autonomy and competence; most students appreciated opportunities to choose their own books and/or engage in the reading of connected text and word work activities/games, as well as the provided quiet and/or help from the teacher. However, Penelope did report that the noise level bothered her. The intervention fell further short for Penelope with regard to satisfying her unique need for autonomy; she indicated that she would prefer to do other things (e.g., color intervention books) rather than reading connected text

and doing word work. Madison's understandings suggested the intervention largely supported her need for relatedness; for Madison, reading intervention provided an important means of making and maintaining relationships with teachers and friends.

Adult evaluations of first-grade participants' behavioral engagement in intervention tended to buttress students' articulated preferences and rationales for either doing reading in the classroom or doing reading in the intervention setting; Table 5.3 clearly shows that Penelope (who preferred reading in the classroom) had a lower average overall behavioral engagement score than did students who indicated a preference for the reading intervention program. That said, the questionnaires were again insufficient in explaining why students preferred one program over another. For example, although one can arguably infer from reading specialist and researcher questionnaire responses that Penelope might prefer the classroom due to her intervention engagement suffering more than most, her voiced concerns with respect to the noise level, lack of comfort, and lack of autonomy are realized through her interview responses. Given that Penelope struggled more than others with meeting reading proficiency benchmarks, it is all the more important that information about her perceptions be elicited and utilized; such information can be used to make the intervention more acceptable to Penelope as a means of better supporting her reading motivation specific to the intervention and, in turn, her reading achievement.

Chapter 6: Kindergarten Findings

Introduction

This chapter presents findings specific to how kindergarten participants' (n=6) motivation for reading within a balanced literacy pull-out reading intervention provided at the Mayflower school during the 2017-2018 school year was shaped by the intervention. The six child participants that made up the kindergarten subcase were pulled for reading intervention from two different kindergarten classrooms during their morning classroom reading time three times a week for approximately 20 minutes a session; four students came from one classroom and two from another. All general education classrooms (K-2) relied upon a traditional reader's workshop instructional model during classroom reading time. Information from classroom benchmark assessments (e.g., Developmental Reading Assessment, Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills) was combined with teacher recommendations to determine which students would attend reading intervention in November of 2017. The Developmental Reading Assessment (DRA) is an informal reading inventory that offers information about the learner's independent and instructional reading levels and provides diagnostic teaching recommendations. The Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS) are a series of one-minute literacy fluency measures (e.g., first sound fluency [FSF]) intended to evaluate reading development in primary-age children. Upon being identified for reading intervention in November of 2017, the six students in the subcase were distributed across two intervention groups; four students were placed in one group and two students were placed in the other. Basic demographic information specific to each child is presented below in table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Kindergarten Participants' Demographics

Student	Age	9/2017 DIBELS FSF	3/2018 DRA Independent Level	Interventionist	Intervention Group	Classroom
Jacob	5	0 (well- below benchmark)	1 (beginning/middle of k)	Mrs. Lori	#1	#1
Sadie	5	3 (well- below benchmark)	<1 (beginning of k)	Mrs. Lori	#1	#1
Izzy	5	16 (meets benchmark)	1 (beginning/middle of k)	Mrs. Lori	#2	#2
Hope	5	0 (well- below benchmark)	< 1 (beginning of k)	Mrs. Lori	#2	#2
Chrissy	5	8 (below benchmark)	< 1 (beginning of k)	Mrs. Lori	#2	#2
Daniel	5	17 (meets benchmark)	< 1 (beginning of k)	Mrs. Lori	#2	#2

This chapter will briefly introduce each child participant to the reader, synthesizing known relevant individual characteristics (e.g., sex, outside reading support) and key aspects of the intervention received (e.g., main components, group size); these context-specific representations are intended to offer a sense of the unique complexity of the individual to which the research questions have been applied. After each participant introduction, results of the study pertaining to the below research questions are shared and the way(s) in which data sources (i.e.,

fieldnotes, child interviews, behavioral engagement questionnaires, and reading specialist interviews) triangulate to inform context-specific conclusions are discussed. Lastly, the final summary sheds light on emergent themes specific to kindergarten participants.

Research Questions

RQ1. What, if any, distinction do kindergarten, first-, and second-grade students in the sample make between reading instruction occurring in the reading intervention setting and in the general classroom?

RQ2. What, if anything, do K-2 students enrolled in reading intervention at the Mayflower School (pseudonym) perceive to be the benefits and/or costs of their involvement in reading intervention?

RQ3. What do students' perceived benefits and costs reveal about the ways in which their basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (as defined within the SDT motivation literature) are supported in intervention sessions?

RQ4. In what ways do students' perceptions of intervention align with or differ from reading specialist and researcher perceptions of students' behavioral engagement in intervention?

Jacob

Jacob, a rambunctious five-year-old male, participated in Mrs. Lori's first kindergarten intervention group of the day on Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Fridays; Mrs. Lori led all kindergarten intervention groups. Jacob spoke louder than his peers and was observed often running to and from the intervention setting when he was not accompanied by an adult. Jacob's group had one other male in it at the beginning of the study, and the two enjoyed making each other laugh during sessions. The other male child was eventually placed on a language-based,

individualized education plan and transferred out of intervention in late March. Though Jacob continued to get distracted and occasionally act silly after the student's departure, researcher and reading specialist data (i.e., fieldnotes, reading specialist interview, and engagement questionnaires) documented a slight improvement in Jacob's focus during intervention. Two females also attended the morning reading intervention session with Jacob; all three students were pulled from the same general education classroom for intervention during classroom reading time.

Although Mrs. Lori emphasized that he had been making steady progress since December, Jacob, like nearly all other kindergarten intervention students in the sample, was identified for and remained in the reading intervention program largely due to his underdeveloped phonological awareness (See FSF in Table 6.1). As such, the kindergarten balanced literacy intervention involved approximately 12 minutes of *Foundations* phonological and/or phonics activities (e.g., letter keyword sound drill; sight word flashcards; phoneme isolation; phoneme picture matching; word building; word writing), five minutes of reading connected text, and three minutes of text-based discussion, drawing, and/or writing. The A and B leveled texts and associated discussion and/or writing prompts utilized during intervention sessions came from Fountas and Pinnell's Leveled Literacy Intervention (LLI); students typically read part of the text together and another part independently after Mrs. Lori introduced the book (if it was new).

As mentioned already, Jacob was observed to often act silly during intervention in the weeks leading up to his first interview; he appeared to crave the attention of others. For example, during a word-building activity in April, he went to great lengths to make me laugh; specifically, he intentionally did the opposite of what Mrs. Lori asked him to do (e.g., pulling out the wrong

letters, putting letters in the wrong order on purpose), each time looking directly at me and laughing. It appeared his aim was to get me to join in his fun. Jacob also often invited me to listen to him read or watch him write. As such, his eagerness to interview with me came as no surprise. Jacob's drawing interview commenced the last week of March with his walking tour interview occurring shortly thereafter. Jacob's drawings of him doing reading in his classroom (Figure 6.1) and him doing reading in the intervention room (Figure 6.2) are shown below.

Figure 6.1 Jacob's Classroom Drawing



Figure 6.2 Jacob's Intervention Drawing



In the classroom drawing, Jacob drew himself completing a worksheet; in the intervention room, he is pictured reading a book. Jacob remarked during his drawing interview, “We don’t really do reading [in my classroom].” However, he went on to describe reading time in his classroom as typically comprised of doing worksheets that sometimes had letters on them

and occasionally reading a book from his book bin by himself. During his walking tour interview, he clarified that independent reading time in his classroom was called “towel time” during which he could spread out on a beach towel and read books from his book bin on the floor; Jacob reported that he did not have towel time every day. When he was asked if he would rather do reading in his classroom or in the intervention setting, Jacob relayed that he enjoyed both, but if he had to choose one, he would go to intervention. A synthesis of data specific to Jacob and in reference to the research questions is provided below.

Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction

Jacob easily distinguished between classroom and intervention programs; specifically, he relayed differences in room set-up, routines, and teachers’ roles. In his classroom, Jacob reported sitting at a table with about six other students where he worked on a worksheet independently. He indicated that when he finished that worksheet, he could look at books from the classroom library or his book bin. In contrast, Jacob indicated that in the intervention space, he sat at a table with three other students and Mrs. Lori.

With regard to routines, Jacob at first remarked that he did not do reading in his classroom, insisting that he mostly did “papers” that he could ask for help completing if he got stuck; however, upon further probing, he revealed that when finished with the paper he could review books from the classroom library or from his book bin. He also mentioned that the class occasionally had “towel time” where he spread out a beach towel and read books from his book bin. In contrast, Jacob understood intervention reading time as a time to practice “letters and sounds” and read books.

He indicated that his classroom teacher generally did not read with him; she was available for help if he got stuck on a worksheet, but Jacob maintained that if he read, he read by

himself in the classroom. In contrast, when asked if he read by himself in the intervention room he remarked, “No” and immediately listed Mrs. Lori as the first person (followed by specific peers) he read with. In sum, Jacob understood the two reading times to be quite different.

Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention

Benefits. Jacob relayed four distinct benefits associated with his intervention involvement. First, when asked to choose between doing reading in the classroom and doing reading in the intervention setting, Jacob indicated that he would choose the intervention setting because he liked working on letters and sounds. He mentioned that he enjoyed working on letters and sounds three separate times within his walking tour interview and made a point of showing me the *Foundations* letter keyword sound cards. As such, this drill likely added some *intrinsic value* (i.e., fun) (Eccles, 2005) to the reading intervention for Jacob. Similarly, Jacob indicated that he enjoyed reading in general and as a result liked “trying to read” books during intervention; this aspect of intervention likely also contributed some *intrinsic value*. He further indicated that he wanted to get better at reading and that the reading intervention helped him learn to read, suggesting he understood the intervention as having some *utility value* in that it facilitated his goal of being able to read well (Eccles, 2005). Lastly, Jacob indicated that he enjoyed being challenged by Mrs. Lori to write specific words on small white boards with dry-erase markers during intervention; this component likely also offered some *intrinsic value* to the intervention for Jacob.

Costs. Jacob did not list any specific costs he associated with reading intervention involvement even after being asked specifically if there was anything he did not like or wished he could change. However, he did remark that his favorite reading activity was being read to by his father at home. Though it can be inferred that Jacob preferred this to school reading activities,

this remark was made in reference to classroom reading activities; furthermore, the fact that his father was unavailable (due to being at work) during the school day prevented such an activity from being a feasible alternative to reading intervention and, as such, it was not considered a true *opportunity cost* (Perez et al., 2014) associated with intervention involvement.

What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs

Jacob's perceived benefits of intervention suggest the intervention was both *autonomy*-supportive and *competence*-supportive. Specifically, Jacob indicated that he found reading books and doing letter and sound drills enjoyable. The intervention permitted him to participate in tasks that specifically interested him; as such, this aspect can be considered *autonomy*-supportive (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Furthermore, Jacob indicated that he especially liked being presented with challenging words that he wrote down on a small white board; his anticipated and experienced satisfaction specific to meeting this challenge suggests the task further appealed to his need for *autonomy* (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Jacob also indicated that he considered the intervention helpful in learning to read, which suggests it supported his need for *competence*, or to feel successful in this endeavor (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement

Adult evaluations of Jacob's intervention engagement, while partially supportive of his intervention understandings, portray a more complex picture of his motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting. Table 6.2 provides each of the six kindergarten students' total behavioral engagement scores (out of 28) as evaluated by me (n=2) and the reading specialist (n=1) on the behavioral engagement questionnaire for reference. I completed one questionnaire for each of two separate video observations; the reading specialist completed one form based on the child's overall engagement in the program. The table also includes the general label each

evaluator assigned to the child's overall engagement specific to the situation (i.e., single video observation, overall). Descriptive choices for each indicator of engagement included: 1) somewhat less engaged than others, 2) about as engaged as others, 3) somewhat more engaged than others, and 4) much more engaged than others. Jacob was evaluated by both Mrs. Lori and I to be somewhat less engaged overall than most other kindergarten intervention students. Mrs. Lori described Jacob as often distracted during structured word work activities where he had to listen to instruction and/or wait for others to speak and also as acting "silly" regularly with another male group member; she noted that these behaviors had decreased in intensity and frequency somewhat after the peer transitioned out of the group (late March). Researcher fieldnotes supported Mrs. Lori's statements. Specifically, Jacob was noted as acting silly and disrupting the group within fieldnotes on five separate occasions preceding his friend's departure, after which he was described on two occasions as being "somewhat more attentive." However, one of the two video observations I conducted in April (after the peer had exited the group) continued to evidence Jacob's attempts to make others laugh. Within this video, Jacob spoke out of turn in a silly "monster" voice during word work tasks, and he repeatedly did the opposite of what Mrs. Lori asked in attempts to gain laughs from adults and peers. For example, when using letter tiles and an associated magnetic board, he repeatedly placed letters in the incorrect order and looked directly at me with a large smile.

Table 6.2 Overview of Kindergarten Behavioral Engagement Evaluations

Child	Reading Specialist Overall Behavioral Engagement Score (Total =28)	General Label Assigned	Researcher Overall Behavioral Engagement Score (Video #1)	General Label Assigned	Researcher Overall Behavioral Engagement Score (Video #2)	General Label Assigned
Chrissy	24	About as engaged as others	27	Somewhat more engaged than others	24	About as engaged as others
Sadie	22	About as engaged as others	24	About as engaged as others	25	Somewhat more engaged than others
Hope	22	About as engaged as others	26	Somewhat more engaged than others	23	Somewhat more engaged than others
Daniel	21	About as engaged as others	17	Somewhat less engaged than others	16	Somewhat less engaged than others
Izzy	18	Somewhat less engaged than others	19	Somewhat less engaged than others	19	Somewhat less engaged than others
Jacob	17	Somewhat less engaged than others	15	Somewhat less engaged than others	21	About as engaged as others

It is important to recall that Jacob did not list building words (one of the main activities in which he struggled to maintain focus) as an intervention task that he enjoyed; he listed doing letters and sounds, writing words, and reading books. Researcher fieldnotes and video

observations as well as Mrs. Lori's questionnaire and interview indicate that Jacob's level of engagement was high during these types of activities. Specifically, fieldnotes and video logs show Jacob largely attentive and involved during *Foundations* letter keyword sound drills which the group did at the start of each session. Furthermore, Mrs. Lori indicated on her questionnaire that Jacob "appears more focused in independent tasks such as writing and book reading." Similarly, researcher video logs and fieldnotes portrayed Jacob as largely on-task when reading connected text. As such, adult evaluations of Jacob's engagement support his claims about the intervention tasks he reported enjoying most. Adult reports also suggest that his engagement within intervention could be improved.

Although there may be other issues complicating Jacob's ability to maintain attention during structured activities where he is expected to listen to others for longer periods of time, offering Jacob as many opportunities to exercise control (support his need for autonomy) within such activities (e.g., allow him to make ample choices) might serve to better focus his attention in such situations. At the time of this study, Jacob's enthusiasm for intervention appeared strong – he indicated a preference for doing reading in the intervention room. However, he also perceived himself as not receiving help with reading from his classroom teacher. As such, it is imperative that efforts are made to ensure he continues to appreciate and enjoy reading intervention; embedding decision-making opportunities into structured tasks might safeguard his motivation for reading specific to future intervention involvement.

Sadie

Sadie, a five-year-old female, was in both Jacob's general education classroom (classroom #1) and intervention group (group #1). As such, Sadie was exposed to the same reading intervention routines as Jason. Furthermore, Sadie's report of classroom reading

instruction mirrored Jacob's; Sadie maintained that she usually did reading "papers" with "letters" on them in the classroom and had only read one book, which she referred to as "the apple book." Of the six students represented within the case study kindergarten subsample, Sadie's DIBELS and DRA scores suggested her to be at greater risk for reading problems than about half of the other children in the sample (e.g., Izzy, Chrissy, and Daniel). She was not receiving out of school reading support at the time of the study, and she had not received it in the past.

Sadie smiled often and presented as an enthusiastic, hardworking intervention participant. That said, she did occasionally get distracted during intervention sessions; however, she was quickly able to refocus. Sadie's face would often light up when she correctly completed a challenging task. For example, after realizing she had correctly represented and formed the letter that makes the /h/ sound (h), Sadie exclaimed, more to herself than to anyone else, "Oh! Oh! I made it right! I was just thinking, and I made it right!" Sadie was always eager to read with me, often inviting me to listen to her read before I could even ask. She was equally as eager to begin interviewing.

Sadie was the first of the kindergarten students to complete her drawing interview, as she requested to begin interviewing with me on at least two separate occasions. She chose to first draw herself working on "reading papers" and reading "the apple book" in her classroom with a classroom aide (see Figure 6.3 below). Upon completion of this piece, she drew herself reading with her intervention peers and Mrs. Lori (see Figure 6.4 below). Sadie's walking tour interview took place several days after her drawing interview; she began the interview by proclaiming, "I like reading!"

Figure 6.3 Sadie's Classroom Drawing

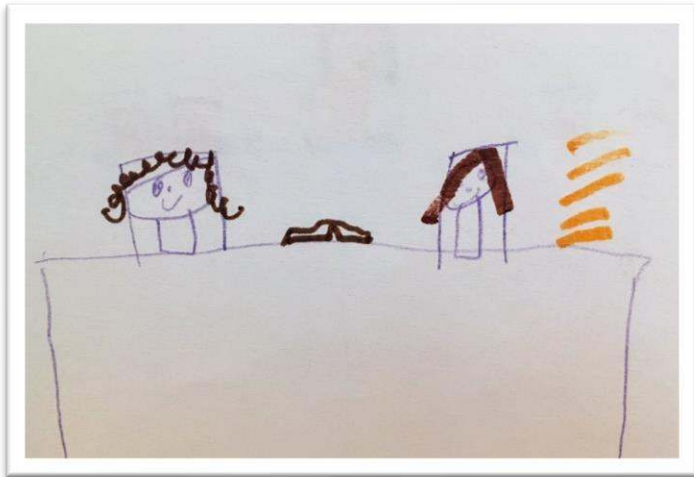


Figure 6.4 Sadie's Intervention Drawing



Within this interview, Sadie maintained that if given the choice, she would choose to attend reading intervention because it afforded her opportunities to read, learn, and be with friends. A synthesis of data specific to Sadie and in reference to the research questions is provided below.

Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction

Sadie made several key distinctions between that which occurred in the classroom during reading time and that which occurred in the intervention setting. She described sitting at a “blue table” with a classroom aide during reading time in the classroom; the table is also represented in

her drawing interview drawing (Figure 6.3). In contrast, Sadie depicted the intervention space as having a table that she, several peers, and Mrs. Lori worked at (Figure 6.4).

With respect to routines, Sadie, like Jacob, indicated that she often did “papers with letters” during reading time. Additionally, she indicated that she and the classroom aide used the worksheets to practice “finding letters” and “doing sounds.” Furthermore, Sadie relayed that she had only read one book in her classroom; “The only book that I work on [in the classroom] is just the apple book,” she lamented before remarking, “I wish we could do more.” In contrast, Sadie described reading intervention as involving “a lot of books!” as well as learning about letters and sounds, making letters, and taking books home in bookbags.

Sadie understood her classroom teacher’s role during reading time as one of helping other students; she reported that an aide who she characterized as “the helper – not the real teacher” usually sat with her at a table and helped her complete letter worksheets and “the apple book.” In contrast, she described Mrs. Lori as choosing books for the group to read and helping them complete the books. In sum, Sadie made clear distinctions between the two programs.

Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention

Benefits. Sadie shared four benefits associated with her reading intervention involvement. In explaining her rationale for preferring to do reading in the intervention room over the classroom, Sadie maintained that the intervention setting was “more fun” because she enjoyed “learning,” and “reading” and because she got to “make it more fun with friends.” All three of these reasons appeared to contribute *intrinsic value* (Eccles, 2005) to the intervention for Sadie; each aspect brought her joy and/or satisfaction. Additionally, Sadie indicated that she enjoyed doing the *Foundations* letter and sound activities which also arguably contributed *intrinsic value* to the intervention for Sadie; “I love reading!” she remarked immediately after

sharing these thoughts during her walking tour interview. In sum, Sadie reported largely enjoying that which occurred in the intervention.

Costs. Though Sadie was quick to offer suggestions to improve classroom reading time, she maintained that she was satisfied with that which occurred during reading intervention time. Like Jacob, Sadie reported not doing much reading in her classroom and, as a result, she was largely appreciative of the opportunity to read a variety of books within the intervention setting.

What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs

The four aspects of reading intervention Sadie indicated that she enjoyed (i.e., learning, reading in general, being with friends, and participating in phonics/phonological activities) suggest the reading intervention was largely supportive of her basic psychological needs for *autonomy* and *relatedness*. Specifically, Sadie's need for *autonomy* was supported through her ability to partake in tasks she enjoyed (i.e., learning, reading, phonics/phonological activities). Sadie's statement about valuing intervention due to having fun with friends suggests the intervention addressed her need to feel connected to the community (i.e., need for *relatedness*).

How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement

Sadie's intervention understandings are mostly supported by adult evaluations of her behavioral engagement. Specifically, Sadie was categorized overall as "about as engaged as others" by Mrs. Lori and was evaluated to be "about as engaged as others" within her first researcher video observation and "somewhat more engaged than others" within her second researcher video observation. Both reading specialist and researcher observations noted Sadie's thoughtful and deliberate use of strategies when solving unknown words. Mrs. Lori remarked, "[Sadie] uses her tapping strategy often to blend CVC words, and she uses the [*Foundations*] keyword chart to assist her in recalling sounds." Similarly, it was noted on both researcher

engagement questionnaires that Sadie, during independent reading, often talked herself through the use of several fix-up strategies (e.g., tapping words, using her resources) when Mrs. Lori was busy tending to other students. Both researcher and reading specialist engagement questionnaires also indicated that Sadie was typically an active participant in intervention, raising her hand often to answer questions and offering many personal connections. For example, Sadie was captured on video pulling out an intervention book from her bookbag and remarking to the group, “I read this book all by myself to my mummy and daddy last night!” In sum, Sadie, was largely compliant, active, and enthusiastic during the reading intervention.

What appeared to keep Sadie from ranking above all others with respect to behavioral engagement was her distractibility. Though she generally refocused easily, both reading specialist and research engagement questionnaires indicated that Sadie presented as more distracted than others (e.g., Chrissy); she would often stop in the middle of tasks to turn and look at what other people were doing. Regardless, adult evaluations of Sadie’s behavioral engagement within intervention suggested Sadie to be a largely active and eager participant.

Izzy

Five-year-old Izzy was the only kindergarten participant who shared her future aspirations with me in the context of discussing her reading intervention involvement: “I wanna be a teacher when I grow up...so I could read the books out loud to all the kids....I love to read!...And because I really wanna write on this [whiteboard]!” Izzy said during her walking tour. I found Izzy’s ability and willingness to articulate her long-term goal in relation to literacy a bit surprising at first because Izzy had been described as immature for her grade. Furthermore, Mrs. Lori shared that her parents were concerned with her academic progress and, as a result, she was being considered for retention at the time of the study. Though Izzy presented as a child who

desired much attention and could be easily distracted, I would not characterize her as immature in relation to the other kindergarten participants. She offered thoughtful and insightful responses during both interviews and had just missed meeting grade-level reading benchmarks (as evidenced by the DIBELS and the DRA). Regardless, Izzy had been identified to participate in reading intervention in large part due to reading specialist, teacher, and parent recommendations.

Although Izzy was in a different general education classroom (classroom #2) than Sadie and Jacob and a different intervention group (group #2), the reading intervention she received was essentially the same. Izzy's group of four students met three times a week for approximately 20 minutes per session; Mrs. Lori planned and led the group. The balanced literacy intervention involved approximately 12 minutes of *Foundations* phonological and/or phonics activities (e.g., letter keyword sound drill; sight word flashcards; phoneme isolation; phoneme picture matching; word building; word writing), five minutes of reading connected text, and three minutes of text-based discussion, drawing, and/or writing. The A and B leveled texts and associated discussion and/or writing prompts utilized during intervention sessions came from Fountas and Pinnell's *Leveled Literacy Intervention* (LLI). Students typically read parts of the text together and another part independently after a brief book introduction.

Izzy was an eager intervention participant and was also excited to begin interviewing; on several occasions she specifically asked if it was her turn to interview yet. She chose to use markers to illustrate how she did reading in her classroom and how she did it in the intervention setting. Izzy described both programs in detail while drawing. Her drawings are shown below (Figure 6.5 & Figure 6.6).

Figure 6.5 Izzy's Classroom Drawing

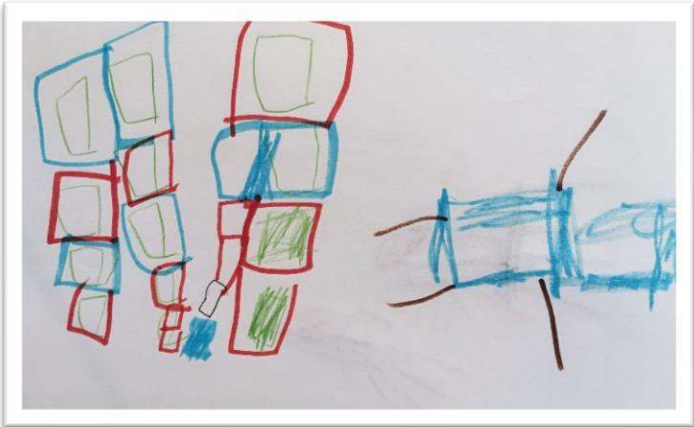


Figure 6.6 Izzy's Intervention Drawing



Izzy spent considerable time detailing the rug in her classroom on which she sat to listen to adults read (left side of Figure 6.5); however, she also drew her desk to show that she sometimes read there. Izzy's intervention drawing depicts her and Mrs. Lori sitting at the intervention table. Although she mentioned the other members of her group as she created the drawing, she did not include them in the drawing, likely because of time constraints. During her walking tour interview, Izzy stated that if given the choice, she would prefer to do reading in the intervention room with Mrs. Lori. Her primary rationale for this decision was the abundance of new books. A synthesis of data specific to Izzy and in reference to the research questions is provided below.

Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction

Izzy made transparent distinctions between that which occurred during reading time in the classroom and in the intervention setting. With regard to room set-up, Izzy described reading in the classroom occurring either at her assigned table or on the blue and green carpet in the center of the room. She described reading books from her classroom bookbag which hung in a corner of the room and sometimes being permitted to spread her beach towel out on the floor and read. In contrast, she indicated that in the intervention setting, she typically sat around a table with her peers and Mrs. Lori to work on reading.

According to Izzy, classroom reading routines involved the teacher or a classroom aide reading aloud to students as they sat on the rug and/or students reading independently from their bookbags at tables or on the floor; Izzy detailed that Kevin Henkes' books were often read aloud to her by a classroom aide. She also indicated that she sometimes struggled to read the books in her classroom bookbag: "Yesterday [the teacher] gave me a Pinkalicious book that I like, but it's really hard for me," Izzy remarked somberly. Izzy also indicated that a classroom volunteer

came in “about once a week on, like, Wednesdays, I think,” to put new books in students’ bookbags.

Izzy described intervention routines as involving practicing with letters, sounds, and trick words, reading new books, and writing “what Mrs. Lori tells us to.” She added that sometimes she read with the group and sometimes she read by herself during intervention. Izzy underscored that she read “lots of book” in intervention.

With regard to the teacher’s role, Izzy explained that her classroom teacher would sit in a designated chair and occasionally read stories aloud to the class and that she would also sometimes listen to Izzy read and “help with tricky words.” In the intervention setting, Izzy described Mrs. Lori as getting new books out of “green boxes” (LLI kits) for the students to read, putting out individual alphabet strips to help them remember letters and sounds, and pointing out various anchor charts intended to help students when they “get stuck on a word.” Izzy also described Mrs. Lori in the following way: “She kinda tells us to read the books by ourselves cuz we need to practice.” In sum, Izzy appeared to have clear understandings of that which occurred in both spaces.

Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention

Benefits. Izzy expressed three main benefits associated with her intervention involvement. First, Izzy stated that she preferred reading in the intervention room to reading in the classroom because of the availability of “new books.” Izzy generally found the new books to be interesting and, as such, this aspect likely contributed *intrinsic value* (Eccles, 2005) to the intervention for her. Upon further probing it became clear that she also appreciated intervention because it offered her the opportunity to read books independently: “I love to read! ...I like that she [Mrs. Lori] lets me read them by myself,” Izzy clarified. This aspect of intervention likely

contributed some additional *intrinsic value*. Third, Izzy reported enjoying intervention because it reminded her that she wanted to be a teacher like Mrs. Lori when she grew up; the intervention arguably offered some *attainment value* (Eccles, 2005), as it helped Izzy to imagine an idealized aspect of her future self.

Costs. Izzy relayed one cost she associated with intervention. She remarked, “I don’t really like doing the letters and sounds. ...It’s not that much fun for me.” Izzy went on to indicate that if she could change something about intervention, it would be to stop doing the *Foundations* letter keyword sound drill because she struggled at times to remember which sounds went with certain letters; she clarified that she recognized the letters but sometimes had difficulty remembering the associated sounds. Such a cost can be considered an *emotional cost* (Flake et al., 2015) as her difficulty with the drills appeared to cause Izzy some anxiety. Nevertheless, Izzy’s single intervention cost did not outweigh her perceived benefits, as she indicated a clear preference for doing reading in the intervention setting.

What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs

Izzy’s articulated benefits suggest the reading intervention program was in part supportive of her basic psychological need for *autonomy* (Ryan & Deci, 2002) in so much as it allowed her to partake in things she enjoyed (i.e., experiencing new books and reading independently). Furthermore, the intervention can be considered *autonomy*-supportive for Izzy in that she perceived it as nurturing her future goal of becoming a teacher.

The cost of participating in the letter keyword sound drill signifies that Izzy likely did not perceive this aspect of intervention as *competence*-supportive—she maintained that she would prefer not to do the activity or to have Mrs. Lori provide the sounds that mapped on to each letter/combination of letters. Mrs. Lori verified that this activity could be challenging for Izzy

and that it likely caused her some anxiety, further suggesting Izzy did not always feel competent participating. Nevertheless, the *autonomy*-supportive benefits Izzy articulated in conjunction with her preference for doing reading in the intervention setting over the classroom suggest that the intervention primarily supported her motivation for doing reading there.

How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement

Adult reports of Izzy's intervention engagement present a somewhat different picture of her motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting. Both researcher and reading specialist evaluations of Izzy's behavioral engagement suggested her to be "somewhat less engaged" than other intervention students (See Table 6.2). Specifically, Izzy was reported by Mrs. Lori to be frequently distracted in both structured (e.g., word work) and less structured (e.g., writing and independent reading) tasks; Mrs. Lori believed her distractions could be in part related to performance anxiety. Video observation #1 evidenced Izzy becoming distracted 11 times during the 20-minute session, and 10 distracted instances were noted in video observation #2. Izzy's critique of the *Foundations* letter keyword sound drill was supported in the first video observation by her voting to do trick words instead of the drill. Although video logs confirmed Izzy's enthusiasm for new books and evidenced her utilizing a variety of adaptive strategies (e.g., tapping, using anchor charts, tracking print) to solve unknown words while reading, she was also observed to become distracted when reading independently. Specifically, Izzy was seen gazing into the camera and glancing at others during independent reading. That said, Izzy completed her independent reading books in both videos.

Furthermore, researcher engagement questionnaires indicated that Izzy was observed in both videos attempting to control the flow of the intervention from time to time. Specifically, she would ask Mrs. Lori to modify the activity in a way she preferred after the group and/or Mrs.

Lori had already made a decision. For example, when the group had decided to work on trick words together, Izzy pleaded to work on them independently. Another example is when Mrs. Lori informed the group they would be using black dry erase markers, and Izzy attempted to persuade Mrs. Lori to instead let them use colored markers. A third example is when Mrs. Lori told the group they would be rereading previous LLI books instead of doing a new one; Izzy pouted and asked to do a new book after rereading. These actions suggest Izzy might require a bit more control over her learning within the intervention setting to enhance her engagement and maintain high levels of motivation for doing reading there.

Hope

Hope was one of three five-year-old females (including Izzy) in her reading intervention group (group #2). Hope and the other two girls along with one boy left the same kindergarten classroom on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday mornings during reading time to come to Mrs. Lori's reading intervention. Hope smiled often and presented as a largely engaged intervention participant. She was often the first one to volunteer an answer to Mrs. Lori's questions and generally paid close attention when Mrs. Lori gave instruction. She also actively questioned things she did not understand. For example, after struggling to read the word "are" during a *Foundations* trick word drill, Hope stated, "I think they should just put an R there like they do with I!"

Hope's DIBELs and DRA scores (See Table 6.1) suggested her to be more at risk for reading difficulties than most other kindergarten study participants. That said, she was observed to utilize a variety of strategies (e.g., tapping out words, pictures, anchor charts) when faced with an unfamiliar word. At the time of the study, Hope had not received and was not receiving out-of-school reading support.

Though Hope relayed that she wanted to participate in the two interviews, she was more reserved during the first one (drawing interview); she did not hold back during the second interview (walking tour). Hope's drawings of her doing reading in the classroom and intervention setting are depicted below (Figures 6.7 and 6.8).

Figure 6.7 Hope's Classroom Drawing



Figure 6.8 Hope's Intervention Drawing



As she began to draw herself doing reading in the intervention room (Figure 6.8), Hope announced that she planned to draw Mrs. Lori and herself reading a book. Time did not permit her to draw Mrs. Lori. Furthermore, though she described having others in her group, she did not include them in her drawing. Hope indicated that her classroom drawing (Figure 6.7) depicted her (in yellow) and her classroom teacher (in red) heading over to the rug for a read-aloud. Her

classroom teacher is headed over to the chair which has the book to be read on it, and Hope is headed to her green spot on the rug. Given the vibrant picture Hope drew of herself doing reading in the classroom, I was surprised to learn during her walking tour interview that if given the choice, she would choose to do reading with Mrs. Lori in the intervention setting. Hope's primary rationale for her decision mirrored the responses of several first- and second-grade students; the noise level in her classroom made it difficult for her to concentrate on reading tasks. A synthesis of data specific to Hope and in reference to the research questions is provided below.

Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction

Hope made clear distinctions between the two reading programs which generally fell into the categories of classroom set-up, routines, and teachers' roles. Like Izzy, who was in her general education classroom, Hope described a blue and green carpet upon which she either listened to a teacher read a story aloud or read books independently from her bookbag. Also like Izzy, she described a special chair being reserved for the teacher to sit when she read aloud to the class. In contrast, Hope described sitting in chairs around a table with peers and Mrs. Lori to do reading in the intervention setting.

With regard to routines, Hope primarily discussed her classroom read-aloud routine, in which she came to the carpet and sat on a "green spot." She stated that her teacher had just finished reading a book about leprechauns, and that she enjoyed the book. She also described reading on her own from her bookbag; "[Classroom teacher] puts the books in there for you and then when you read like every single one at least twice, then you can pick out your own that you like," Hope reported. In contrast, during her drawing interview, Hope described mainly reading at the intervention table with Mrs. Lori and her peers: "We read!" she replied when I asked what she did at the table. Specifically, she listed the LLI titles *Family Pictures* and *Bubbles* as texts

read in the intervention setting. Hope also reported that the group worked on letters and sounds, and during her walking tour interview, Hope made a point of showing me the group's trick word cards and magnetic letter boards. Hope described Mrs. Lori's role as putting these materials out for the group to use and her classroom teacher's role as reading books aloud to the class.

Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention

Benefits. Hope shared seven distinct benefits associated with her intervention involvement. First, she articulated that she liked to read in general and enjoyed doing reading in both places; however, she indicated a preference for doing reading in the intervention setting because "it's kinda more quieter." As such, these components of the intervention likely offered *intrinsic value* (due to inherent satisfaction gained from reading) and *utility value* (due to the quiet better enabling her to concentrate on reading tasks) respectively (Eccles, 2005).

Furthermore, Hope stated that she enjoyed reading the intervention books (*Family Pictures* was her favorite), using the magnetic boards, doing the trick word drill, and doing the letter keyword sound drill. These four activities also arguably added *intrinsic value* to the intervention for Hope, in that she found them all to be enjoyable. Lastly, Hope indicated that she appreciated the intervention because it enabled her to practice her tapping strategy (to solve unknown words); this specific opportunity was useful for Hope and, as such, likely contributed additional *utility value*.

Costs. Hope did not articulate any costs associated with her intervention involvement. However, this should not be taken as a sign that she was unable to share associated drawbacks; Hope listed two costs associated with her classroom reading involvement. She took issue with the noise level, which she maintained interfered with her ability to concentrate, as well as with the amount of time she was required to sit on the rug. Specifically, when asked if there was

anything about reading in her classroom she did not like, Hope remarked, “We have to sit for too long on the rug in my classroom.” In sum, it appears that Hope was genuinely satisfied with that which occurred in the reading intervention setting.

What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs

Hope declared that she enjoyed nearly all reading intervention tasks (e.g., reading, doing phonics/phonological drills, building words) which suggests her *autonomy* (Niemic & Ryan, 2009) was largely supported within the intervention. Furthermore, the quiet environment and time to practice solving unknown words by means of tapping nurtured her need for *competence* within the intervention (Niemic & Ryan, 2009).

How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement

Adult evaluations of Hope’s engagement generally supported her preference for and claims about doing reading in the intervention space. Specifically, Mrs. Lori evaluated Hope overall as “about as engaged” as other intervention students, and both researcher observations (videos #1 and #2) reported Hope as “somewhat more engaged” than her peers. Mrs. Lori and I both noted Hope to be actively involved during all intervention tasks, which aligned with her reported liking of all tasks. Additionally, both reading specialist and researcher evaluations indicated that Hope largely maintained focus during all activities and was rarely distracted. Lastly, Hope was observed in both videos to make frequent use of her strategies, including tapping to solve unknown words, and Mrs. Lori, too, remarked on Hope’s deliberate and frequent use of solving strategies.

When I asked Mrs. Lori why she believed Hope to be “about as engaged” as peers overall instead of “somewhat more engaged,” she maintained that Hope’s level of engagement was on par with or slightly below that of Chrissy’s (kindergarten participant discussed next), but she also

clarified that Hope was more engaged than most others. In sum, Mrs. Lori struggled with placing Hope in an overall engagement category. Regardless, researcher and reading specialist reports of Hope's intervention engagement support her preference for doing reading in the intervention setting and suggest that the intervention largely nurtured her motivation for doing reading there.

Chrissy

Chrissy, like the other participants, was five years old at the time of the study. She was in the same general education class (classroom #2) and intervention group (intervention group #2) as Izzy and Hope. Chrissy's DIBELs and DRA scores placed her in the middle of the subcase with respect to reading proficiency. She had not previously received outside reading support, nor was she receiving it at the time of the study.

Chrissy presented as an especially goal-oriented child; specifically, she informed me during her walking tour interview that she aspired to read books about animals because she wanted "to take care of the wood's animals so they can stay healthy." She went on to describe a favorite classroom book that told of a deer surviving a wildfire. She specified that she "loved" reading this book in particular because it helped her to learn how best to care for woodland animals. Even though Chrissy identified this text as one of the only books in her classroom bookbag that she could read, she maintained that if given the choice, she would prefer to do reading in her classroom because she perceived herself as doing "a lot more fun stuff" which included reading the beloved deer book.

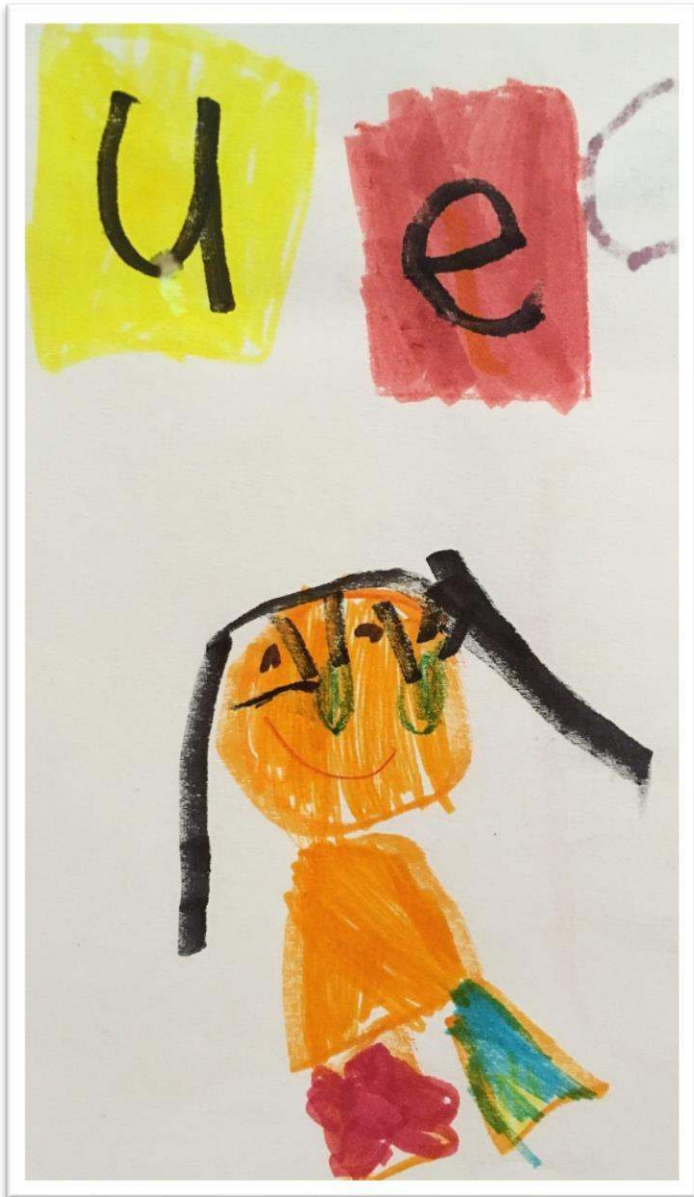
In her drawing interview and in her walking tour interview, Chrissy stated that she liked to read books independently that interested her. Her classroom drawing (Figure 6.9) reflects this understanding, as it depicts her classroom bookbag which she explained contained "three or four books" and a ring of sight words. Chrissy's intervention drawing (Figure 6.10) depicts her and

the *Foundations* vowel cards which she understood as usually being the first thing she did during the reading intervention.

Figure 6.9 Chrissy's Classroom Drawing



Figure 6.10 Chrissy's Intervention Drawing



A synthesis of data specific to Chrissy and in reference to the research questions is provided below.

Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction

Chrissy made many distinctions between that which occurred during reading time in her classroom and that which occurred in the reading intervention. With regard to the room set-up,

Chrissy indicated that she often read and practiced her trick words from her bookbag on the green and blue carpet in the classroom. In contrast, she maintained that in the intervention room, she did letter and sound activities, writing, and reading at a table with Mrs. Lori and her peers.

Classroom routines involved either Chrissy or a classroom aide selecting books to put in her bookbag, reading independently, and/or practicing her trick words on the carpet, and occasionally using magnetic letter boards to build words. Chrissy also stated that sometimes she had to read and write during math time. Chrissy listed the following intervention routines: “We do letters and sounds with the [*Fundations*] cards,” “trick words,” “drawing letters... on the whiteboards,” magnetic letter boards, “foam letters,” and “We read.” She further clarified that these activities typically occurred in a specific order: “We usually do cards, and then we do trick words, and then we read books,” Chrissy stated. Chrissy also maintained that sometimes she worked/read by herself in the intervention room and other times she worked/read with the group.

Chrissy reported that Mrs. Lori distributed materials to the group during reading intervention. She did not mention what her classroom teacher did during reading time; however, she did describe a classroom aide as selecting books for her bookbag. Chrissy’s distinctions between the two programs are quite similar to those of her peers who attended the same kindergarten class and reading intervention.

Chrissy’s Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention

Benefits. Chrissy shared five benefits that she associated with attending reading intervention. First, Chrissy maintained that she liked being able to read independently within intervention because she could “tap out the words”: she found this aspect of intervention useful which likely contributed some *utility value* (Eccles, 2005) to the overall reading intervention for Chrissy. She also indicated that she enjoyed reading dog and animal books within intervention;

these interested her and, as such, added *intrinsic value* (Eccles, 2005). Similarly, Chrissy indicated that building words with foam letters, doing the letter keyword sound drill, and reading the trick word cards were all “fun” for her; these aspects likely also contributed some *intrinsic value* to the reading intervention.

Costs. Chrissy relayed two distinct costs of reading intervention. First, Chrissy maintained that she preferred reading in the classroom because it was “more fun.” Upon further probing, it was clear that Chrissy enjoyed being able to choose and read independently books she found highly interesting (e.g., the book about the deer surviving the forest fire). As such, Chrissy likely attributed an *opportunity cost* (Perez et al., 2014) to her intervention participation; she could not read the deer book in the intervention setting or a book she enjoyed as much. Out of seven LLI books spread out on the intervention table during our walking tour interview, Chrissy pointed out five that she did not like. Chrissy mentioned one other important cost of her intervention participation; she indicated that she did not like using the *Foundations* magnetic boards because they often confused her. Specifically, she stated that the magnetic digraph tiles, which were typically housed on the right side of the board, were “distracting” from the regular letters and, as such, slowed her down and frustrated her when she was trying to build words. Instead, Chrissy recommended that the group use the foam letters more regularly to build words. Chrissy’s insightful comment is interesting given that one aim of the separate digraph tiles is to facilitate speedier word building. The emotional frustration Chrissy experienced from the tiles can be considered an *emotional cost* of intervention participation (Flake et al., 2014). Both of these costs are significant when considered in conjunction with Chrissy’s preference for doing reading in the classroom.

What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs

Chrissy indicated that she enjoyed many reading intervention tasks (e.g., letter keyword sound drill; trick word activity; building words with foam letters). Participation in these more enjoyable activities can be considered *autonomy*-supportive; however, the fact that Chrissy indicated a clear preference for doing reading in the classroom, due primarily to having access to books she found highly interesting, suggests that her *autonomy* could be better supported within the intervention. One modification might be to more frequently facilitate her choosing her own highly-engaging texts. Furthermore, Chrissy's *competence* (Niemi & Ryan, 2009) could be better supported by avoiding or modifying the more confusing *Foundations* board in a way that allowed her to focus on the individual 26 letters when building words.

How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement

Chrissy's preference for doing reading in the classroom came as somewhat of a surprise given what appeared to be above-average intervention engagement, as evidenced by reading specialist and researcher reading engagement questionnaires. Though Mrs. Lori labeled Chrissy overall as "about as engaged" as other intervention peers on the questionnaire, she remarked during her follow-up interview that Chrissy was more engaged than all other kindergarten subcase participants but did not demonstrate a level of enthusiasm that made her especially stand out. The overall numeric rating (Table 6.2) Mrs. Lori gave Chrissy provided further evidence of her high standing amongst her peers. Chrissy was never disruptive, nearly always on task, and always compliant with respect to Mrs. Lori's directives; such compliance likely made her dissatisfaction with aspects of intervention (e.g., books she did not particularly like) difficult to detect. Furthermore, though Mrs. Lori confirmed that the group sometimes used the *Foundations* magnetic boards to build words, neither fieldnotes nor video observations captured the group

participating in magnetic board word-building, and therefore I was unable to look for additional indicators of confusion or frustration specific to this activity. In sum, although adult reports of Chrissy's intervention engagement suggest the intervention mainly supported her motivation for doing reading there, they do not entirely confirm her unique perceptions and, as such, should not be solely relied upon to infer the impact of the intervention on her motivation.

Daniel

Daniel was the only kindergarten participant who repeatedly shared without being asked how difficult reading was for him: “[Reading is] so hard, and you work so hard! It breaks your heart. But then, you get better and better and better, and you can almost read a whole chapter,” he remarked when relaying how he worked on reading independently in his classroom. Later within the same interview, he further commented, “You just feel like you’re gonna give up but you don’t...[Reading is] really hard. I don’t really like that. And, like some people, they say they’re all about reading and trying and trying, but pretty much everyone is just saying that to you because they don’t want to get embarrassed.” Despite the challenges reading posed for Daniel, he maintained that overall, he liked to read and he wanted to get better at it.

Daniel was five years old at the time of the study and was in the same classroom and intervention group as Izzy, Hope, and Chrissy; he was the sole male member of the group. Daniel's benchmark assessments suggested he was not as far behind as other intervention peers despite his understanding that reading was especially difficult for him. Daniel had not previously received outside-of-school reading support, and he was not receiving it at the time of the study.

He took considerable time detailing his illustrations during the drawing interview, and as such, he was unable to complete either drawing during the time allotted for the interview. However, he thoroughly explained that which occurred in both spaces as he drew. Figure 6.11

illustrates how Daniel understood doing reading in the classroom, while Figure 6.12 depicts how he recalled doing reading in the intervention setting.

Figure 6.11 Daniel's Classroom Drawing

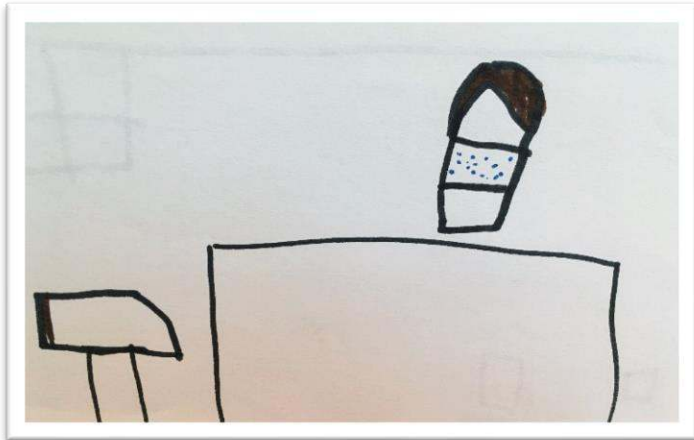
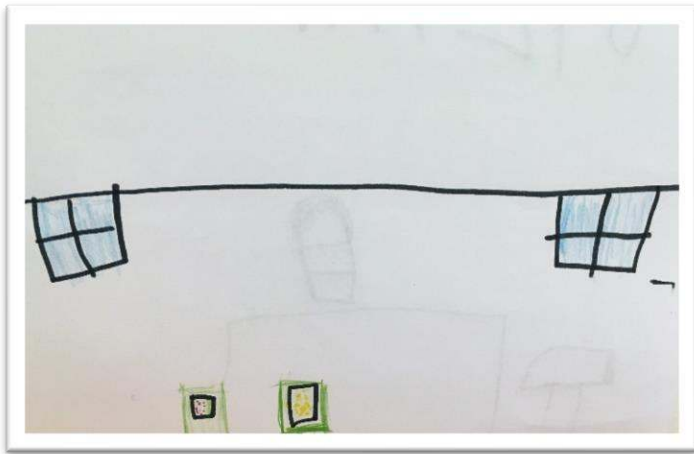


Figure 6.12 Daniel's Intervention Drawing



In his classroom picture, Daniel included his bookbag above the table that he sometimes read at and a chair to the left of the table. In his intervention drawing he chose to include two green LLI boxes from which he maintained Mrs. Lori gathered books for the group to read. Both pictures included books. Knowing how challenging Daniel perceived reading to be, it was not all that surprising that he indicated during his walking tour interview that if given the choice, he would prefer to do reading in his classroom. Daniel's main rationale for choosing his classroom

was that it “felt more like home.” He expanded upon this response by stating that he perceived himself as doing a better job of reading in his classroom because reading in the intervention room was even more difficult. He also commented that the classroom felt more like home because he spent almost as much time there as he did in his actual home: “I go here [the classroom] like lots of times – like almost every day, just like home,” he said. When asked how reading intervention might be made to feel more like home, he suggested that Mrs. Lori play music “to cheer kids up a bit.” A synthesis of data specific to Daniel and in reference to the research questions is provided below.

Distinctions Between Classroom and Intervention Instruction

Daniel clearly distinguished between that which occurred during classroom reading time and intervention reading time, and his answers, like those of all others, fell into the categories of room set-up, routines, and teachers’ roles. Daniel described his classroom as having a rack where his bookbag hung, a table with chairs where he sometimes read with a classroom aide, and a rug where he did reading alone or with a partner. In contrast, he described and illustrated the large green LLI boxes (Figure 6.12) which housed the books Mrs. Lori took out for his group to read during intervention.

With regard to routines, Daniel detailed reading books from his bookbag and words off his trick word ring at a table with a classroom aide in his classroom. He also indicated that he sometimes read alone or with a partner and listened to his teacher and others (e.g., classroom aide, first-grade students, and parents) read aloud on a large rug in the center of the classroom. Additionally, Daniel mentioned that his class sometimes did literacy centers in his classroom where he “colored trick words in books.” In the intervention room, Daniel stated that he also worked on trick words, but that they were not on a ring and that he did them with Mrs. Lori and

his group members. Furthermore, he mentioned doing the letter keyword sound drill, reading books, and using alphabet strips and anchor charts to help with writing and building words with magnetic letters in the intervention setting.

Daniel described his classroom teacher as sometimes reading out loud to him and sometimes listening to him read. He described Mrs. Lori as reading with the group and choosing LLI books out of the green boxes for him to work on. In sum, Daniel understood the two reading programs to be different.

Perceived Benefits and Costs of Intervention

Benefits. Daniel offered four benefits associated with his intervention involvement. First and foremost, Daniel enjoyed doing the *Foundations* trick word drill: “I really love love love love love doing the trick words! Want me to do them for you now?” he stated. Daniel also mentioned liking the letter keyword sound drill as well as many of the LLI books he had read in intervention. These three aspects likely contributed some *intrinsic value* (Eccles, 2005) to the intervention for Daniel, as he found them to be generally pleasurable. Daniel further explained that he felt good about himself for trying so hard during the reading intervention; because the intervention confirmed his understanding of himself as a hard worker, this aspect arguably offered some *attainment value* (Eccles, 2005).

Costs. Daniel offered four costs he associated with his intervention involvement. Most important to Daniel was that he perceived the reading he did in the intervention setting to be more difficult than that which he did in the classroom. Specifically, he described it as a “step up” from his classroom reading in that it was “a little bit harder,” and so he felt he did a better job on his reading in the classroom. This cost Daniel associated with the difficulty of reading in the intervention setting (i.e., *effort cost*; Flake et al., 2014) and the cost he attributed to the room

feeling less “like home” in comparison to the classroom (i.e., *opportunity cost*; Perez et al., 2014) combined to inform his primary rationale for preferring to do reading in the classroom. A third cost he listed was the possibility of him not liking the books he might read in intervention in the future (i.e., anticipated *emotional cost*; Flake et al., 2014). Though he could not identify one he had read and did not like, Daniel insisted, “I haven’t found one yet, but I’m probably gonna find one I don’t like.” Finally, he indicated that he did not like that Mrs. Lori asked him not to turn his body during intervention to view a large alphabet line at the back of the classroom; “She doesn’t want me looking at [the alphabet line] because she wants us to listen to her,” he explained. Daniel seemed to express frustration, another *emotional cost* of involvement, with the way his word-solving strategy was being interpreted by Mrs. Lori.

What Perceived Benefits and Costs Reveal about Meeting Psychological Needs

Daniel’s articulated enjoyment for completing trick word drills and letter and sound drills and for reading interesting LLI books suggest these aspects of the intervention support his *autonomy* and *competence* (Niemic & Ryan, 2009) in that they permit him to engage in activities he enjoys and does well. The difficulty he relayed experiencing while reading challenging books in intervention is more complicated. Though he maintained that he felt good about the exerted effort, he also indicated that if given the choice he would prefer to do reading in the classroom because he felt he did “a better job” there. This suggests his *competence* (Niemic & Ryan, 2009) could be better supported within the intervention with respect to reading challenging books. Daniel’s remark about the intervention setting feeling less like home could be due to his need for *relatedness* (Niemic & Ryan, 2009), or the forging of positive connections to others, not being adequately satisfied within the space; however, it could also have to do with him not feeling *competent* in his ability to solve unfamiliar words. When asked

to elaborate on what he meant in describing the classroom as feeling more like home, Daniel described the regularity with which he was in his home and classroom compared to the lesser amount of time he spent comparatively in the intervention setting; this statement, too, could be indicative of him longing for the strong bonds he maintains with others at home and in the classroom within the intervention space (i.e., *relatedness*). The potential for not liking books in the future, despite having liked all (or nearly all) LLI books to date, appears to be related to Daniel's need for *autonomy* not being entirely satisfied within the intervention. Perhaps allowing Daniel more of a say in selecting his intervention books could alleviate this fear and better support his motivation for reading within the intervention space. Similarly, Daniel's issue with Mrs. Lori directing him not to look at the large alphabet line at the back of the room suggests his need for *autonomy* is not entirely satisfied within the intervention; he would appreciate the freedom to look at the alphabet line as needed without judgement. In sum, Daniel's costs and benefits suggest that although some aspects of the reading intervention (i.e., phonological/phonics and trick word drills) nurture his *competence* and *autonomy*, the intervention might better serve Daniel's developing motivation if other aspects (e.g., independent reading) were tweaked a bit to better support his *competence*, *autonomy*, and *relatedness* to others.

How Perceptions Align with Adult Evaluations of Engagement

Reading specialist and researcher reports of Daniel's behavioral engagement provide some support for Daniel's intervention understandings. Although Mrs. Lori evaluated Daniel's overall engagement as "about as engaged as others," she indicated during her follow-up interview that she had noticed Daniel recently showing some signs of decreased overall engagement; specifically, she indicated that he seemed less enthusiastic about participating and

had needed an occasional prompt to refocus. Both researcher video observations found Daniel to be “somewhat less engaged” than his peers. Specifically, Daniel was observed to become distracted (e.g., look around the room, stare into space) 11 times in the first video and 6 times in the second video.

With respect to his expressed enjoyment of *Foundations* drills, Daniel was observed to smile from time to time during the trick word drill; this typically occurred when he read a word correctly. He was also evidenced to occasionally struggle to identify certain trick words (e.g., from) and to yawn and/or look away during the drill. Similar actions were observed in both videos specific to the letter keyword sound drill. Furthermore, Daniel remarked that he felt the group had been working on letters and sounds for a “really long time.” Such evidence suggests Daniel to only partially enjoy these activities.

Daniel more clearly appeared frustrated when Mrs. Lori asked him to tap words out before writing, building, or reading them. He was observed to roll his eyes five times and smack his forehead twice in the second video upon being asked to tap words out during phonics activities and the new book introduction. Similarly, after reading the new book in the second video, Daniel remarked, “That was a really hard book for me.” That said, Daniel was also observed to use word-solving strategies including tapping and referencing anchor charts during independent reading in both videos. He also expressed sincere enthusiasm in the second video when Mrs. Lori permitted the group to pick their own books. In sum, adult evaluations of Daniel’s intervention engagement, though they certainly do not present a complete picture, offer some support for his self-reported low motivation for participating in the reading intervention.

Summary

This chapter aimed to answer each of the four research questions in relation to the kindergarten participants (n=6) that made up a subcase of the full case study sample. First, all kindergarten students identified as struggling readers at the Mayflower School made clear distinctions between how they perceived themselves to do reading in the classroom and how they perceived themselves to do reading in the intervention setting. Additionally, as displayed in the below summary table (Table 6.3), all students articulated distinct benefits associated with reading intervention, and half of the students in the subsample articulated costs specific to intervention participation. Jacob and Sadie, two of the three students who did not share costs specific to intervention, resided in a common classroom which they collectively maintained did very little reading of connected text (Sadie indicated she had only read one book, and Jacob relayed that he primarily did worksheets). As such, it is possible that the opportunity to read books in the intervention room largely outshined any criticisms they may have had; both Sadie and Jacob shared costs each associated with classroom reading time (e.g., not reading enough books, not enjoying books shared in class). If these students remain in reading intervention the following year, their motivation-related perceptions specific to intervention and the classroom should be reexamined in light of the new classroom teacher's reading instruction. In sum, kindergarten students appear quite capable of distinguishing between reading programs and identifying associated benefits *and* costs when developmentally-sensitive methods are employed.

Table 6.3 Kindergarten Summary Table

Student	Instructional Preference	Number of Articulated Benefits	Number of Articulated Costs	Average Behavioral Engagement Score (Total = 28)
Jacob	Intervention	4	0	18
Sadie	Intervention	4	0	24
Izzy	Intervention	3	1	19
Hope	Intervention	7	0	24
Chrissy	Classroom	5	2	25
Daniel	Classroom	4	4	18

Additionally, of the three kindergarten students who did associate costs with intervention, two indicated a clear preference for doing reading in the classroom, suggesting it may be imperative to elicit and seriously consider the costs young children attach to reading intervention participation. One of these children, Chrissy, appeared largely engaged in the intervention, a result that further identifies a need to check in with kindergarten students about their perceived intervention acceptability. Provided books, while typically cited as a benefit of reading in the intervention setting, were also listed by two students (Chrissy and Daniel) as a drawback due to perceptions that they were not always or would not always be highly interesting; students indicated that their need for autonomy within the intervention specific to control over what they read could be better supported. A simple modification for such students might be to embed additional opportunities for students to select books they find highly engaging by surveying interests ahead of time and gathering appropriate books.

The three students (i.e., Izzy, Chrissy, and Daniel) who offered costs each indicated a specific activity they found to be less enjoyable due to it being especially challenging; these three students suggested that their need for competence could be better supported within the intervention. Chrissy struggled with the *Foundations* magnetic boards. Izzy took issue with the *Foundations* letter keyword sound drill, and Daniel had difficulty reading the provided texts (tapping out words appeared to require substantial effort for Daniel). First, it is remarkable that all three kindergarten students could pinpoint and articulate their challenges. Second, such information is immensely valuable and can and should be harnessed to better support each child within these activities. If teachers focus specifically on the goal of each task, modifications might be made to make learning more accessible. For example, Daniel may require a strategy other than the *Foundations* tapping method for sounding out words. Chrissy offered her own adaptation; she would prefer to build words with the foam letters, as she found them to be more straightforward. Izzy may require modified and/or one-on-one sound-to-letter mapping instruction.

For most students, the reading intervention appeared to largely nurture their developing motivation to read within it. Many remarked that they enjoyed working on letters and sounds, and *all* students indicated that they appreciated the opportunity to read new books. This is directly in line with a comment Mrs. Lori made during her end-of-study interview: “They all love the books!” she remarked. As such, the intervention can be considered generally autonomy-supportive for most in that students were able to partake in activities they enjoyed. The importance of the room being quiet surfaced, as it did in the first- and second-grade subcases; Hope indicated a preference for doing reading in the intervention setting because it was quieter than her classroom. Sadie was the only participant to mention the importance of reading with

friends, signifying that the intervention supported her need for relatedness. All in all, the kindergarten subcase highlights a crucial need to elicit and sincerely attend to kindergarten students' programmatic understandings.

Chapter 7: Discussion

Previous chapters in this dissertation provide the background for this study (Chapter 1), situate the study in the scholarly literature (Chapter 2), detail the study context and methods (Chapter 3), and present findings related to the four research questions (Chapters 4, 5, & 6). This chapter summarizes major findings across grade-level subcases, relays limitations of the work, explores the implications for motivation theory and practice, explicates the methodological contribution made, and shares recommendations for future research.

Purpose & Overview of the Study

It is well-established that motivation to read generally erodes across the elementary years (McKenna et al., 1995; Sperling & Head, 2002; Wigfield et al., 2015) and that motivation influences reading skill development and achievement (Morgan & Fuchs, 2007; Schiefele et al., 2016). As such, all who strive to promote reading skill development and/or achievement should aim to also support readers' underlying motivation—motivation for reading at school and beyond should be nurtured. However, although a substantive body of empirical literature exists exploring the reading motivation of older readers, little is known comparatively about younger readers' developing motivation. Even less is known about how specific school reading intervention programs aimed at improving foundational skills shape children's motivation for doing reading within them and outside of them. Furthermore, no studies directly investigating K-2 readers' unconstrained motivation-related perceptions of U.S. Tier 2 reading intervention programs surfaced in a review of the literature.

The research that has examined young children's developing reading motivation suggests that a) students' valuing and/or interest in reading declines over the elementary years (e.g., Jacob

et al., 2002; Wigfield et al., 1997), and b) early reading motivation is related to reading achievement (e.g., Chapman & Tunmer, 1995; Hughes & Kwok, 2007; Morgan & Fuchs, 2007; Ponitz et al., 2009). Additionally, studies (e.g., Nolen, 2001; Stipek et al., 1995; Turner, 1995) suggest that specific classroom conditions (e.g., peer collaboration, child-centered instruction, open tasks) can influence reading motivation and that young children can self-report on their reading motivation when developmentally-sensitive methods are employed (e.g., Gottfried, 1990; Marinak et al., 2015). This body of literature also signifies a lack of attention to children's nuanced and contextualized experiences within and perceptions of the Tier 2 reading intervention programs imposed upon them in schools; to the best of my knowledge, no studies have directly probed young readers' perceived benefits and costs associated with participation in these programs.

Students' perceptions of school experiences are posited to play a major role in shaping their developing motivation (Eccles, 2005; Eckert et al., 2017). The E-V model of motivation (Eccles, 2005) maintains that students' perceived benefits of an activity in combination with perceived costs determine the value they place on the activity, and that this value influences their willingness to participate in the activity (i.e., motivation for choosing the activity and engagement during the activity). Although a few measures (e.g., *Me and My Reading Profile*; Marinak et al., 2015) have validly and reliably examined younger readers' valuing of reading in general, these measures have not investigated the E-V construct of cost, nor are they context-specific. These scales tell us very little about the benefits and costs students associate with doing reading in specific situations such as school reading interventions. To go about designing and/or modifying reading intervention programs that support students' motivation for doing reading in

them and, in turn, promote students' achievement, we must directly examine children's understandings of these programs.

As such, the purpose of this study was to investigate a sample (N=14) of kindergarten, first-, and second-grade students' motivation-related perceptions of a Tier 2 reading intervention program to infer how the program was shaping their motivation to do reading there. Four research questions supported this inquiry:

RQ1. What, if any, distinction, do kindergarten, first-, and second-grade students in the sample make between reading instruction occurring in the reading intervention setting and in the general classroom?

RQ2. What, if anything, do K-2 students enrolled in reading intervention at the Mayflower School (pseudonym) perceive to be the benefits and/or costs of their involvement in reading intervention?

RQ3. What do students' perceived benefits and costs reveal about the ways in which their basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (as defined within the SDT motivation literature) are supported in intervention sessions?

RQ4. In what ways do students' perceptions of intervention align with or differ from reading specialist and researcher perceptions of students' behavioral engagement in intervention?

In order to examine these questions, I took detailed fieldnotes of intervention routines and target students' involvement in intervention; note-taking began in January of 2018 and lasted through May of the same year. I also interviewed each child two times and video-recorded at least two intervention sessions per child (videos lasted between 20 and 30 minutes each).

Second-grade children were interviewed and video-recorded in late January through February.

First-grade children were interviewed and video-recorded in February and March, and kindergarten children were interviewed and video-recorded in April and May. Child participants first completed a conversational drawing interview (Einarsdottir et al., 2009) during which they drew and described how they did reading in their classroom and in the intervention setting. No more than a week later, each child led me on a walking tour (Clark & Moss, 2001) of her or his classroom and intervention room. During the walking tour interview the child discussed and showed me what she or he enjoyed and did not enjoy about doing reading in each space. The walking tour interview began with a hypothetical question: “Let’s pretend that your teacher said you could stay here and do reading in the classroom or go do reading with Mrs. (specialist’s name) in the reading room. Which would you choose to do?” This question allowed me to probe the child’s rationale for the decision on the spot and again within the space where she or he had access to the concrete materials used during reading time (e.g., books, magnetic boards, floor cushions, trick word cards).

Additionally, children’s reading specialists completed a behavioral engagement questionnaire; Likert items from Clarke and colleagues’ (2004) *Kindergarten Reading Engagement Scale* (KRES) and Ponitz and colleagues’ (2009) *Observed Child Engagement Scale* were adapted for the questionnaire. The tool required the evaluator to rate each child on several behavioral engagement indicators (e.g., effort, self-reliance, disruptive behavior) in comparison to her or his peers (e.g., somewhat more engaged than peers, about as engaged as peers). A space was provided beneath each item for the evaluator (i.e., reading specialist) to justify her rating with qualitative evidence. These reports were collected in waves consistent with when students were interviewed and video-recorded (e.g., second-grade reports were collected in February). Reading specialists were also interviewed at the end of the study (June 2018) to

confirm the overall behavioral engagement ratings they gave to each child and to member-check my synthesis of their rating justifications specific to each child.

A grounded theory approach (e.g., Charmaz, 2006) was employed to analyze the data. Analysis consisted of multiple phases of coding and memo writing specific to each grade-level grouping. Second-grade data was analyzed first. First-grade data was analyzed second, and kindergarten data was analyzed last. All interviews were transcribed, and videos were logged. The qualitative and mixed-methods software package Dedoose (<https://www.dedoose.com/>) was utilized to organize and analyze data. In vivo codes (i.e., codes aiming to preserve the participants' own words) were assigned during first-round coding of all data; second and third rounds of coding (categorical and theoretical respectively) were conducted as applicable to a condensed dataset, which was determined based on relevancy to the research questions (Miles et al., 2014). An education graduate student applied second-level categorical codes to the anonymized set of second-grade and kindergarten walking tour interviews (first-grade interviews were coded together) using my codebook as a means of strengthening the study's validity and reliability (Merriam, 1998). In the final phase of analysis, an extended description (Boeije, 2010; Merriam, 1998), or miniature case report, of each individual child within the dataset was composed, aimed at both answering the research questions and supporting answers with detailed examples of students' perceptions of and behaviors during intervention.

Summary of Findings

RQ1

As interviews and drawings evidence, students in the sample made clear distinctions between that which occurred during classroom reading time and that which occurred during intervention reading time. Children's distinctions generally fell into three main categories:

classroom setup, routines, and teachers' roles. Children's distinctions mainly reflected the reading workshop model adopted by the school for use in the classroom and the blended LLI/*Fundations* intervention that occurred in the intervention setting. Two kindergarten students reported doing very little reading in their classroom, which was confirmed by the reading specialist. Nearly all children described classroom reading time as a largely independent reading time. In contrast, all children described intervention reading time as a teacher-facilitated, small group reading time that involved multiple reading-related tasks (e.g., practicing letters and sounds, reading new books, writing). This general finding that children in the sample were able to distinguish between the two reading programs is in line with similar findings reported in prominent educational psychology studies evidencing young children's abilities to discern between academic and recreational reading attitudes (e.g., Mckenna et al., 1995) and between valuing across several academic domains (Eccles et al., 1993); kindergarten through second-grade children appear generally able to distinguish between learning activities that share commonalities but also have discrete defining features.

RQ2

All 14 students articulated benefits associated with reading intervention and 10 students also shared perceived costs; the majority of students (64%) indicated a preference for doing reading in the intervention setting. Across the three subsamples, all children reported benefits of intervention (e.g., reading in general, reading new books, playing word games) that reflected the E-V subcomponent of *intrinsic/interest* value (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). Similarly, across the three subsamples, 12 children reported benefits of intervention (e.g., the quiet of the intervention space, the ability to get help from the teacher) that clearly reflected the E-V subcomponent of *utility value*; over a third (36%) of students listed the quiet provided in the intervention room as a

primary reason for preferring it to the classroom. It is important to note that three students listed being physically comfortable in the intervention setting (e.g., being permitted to occasionally read in cushioned floor chairs) as a benefit of doing reading there. It can be inferred that this perceived benefit signifies some utility value; however, as participants did not articulate that being physically comfortable better enabled them to read, it is difficult to categorize these responses as such with any certainty. Four participants reported intervention benefits indicative of the E-V subcomponent of *attainment value*; these students (two second-graders and two kindergarten students) suggested that the reading intervention helped them confirm an important aspect of their identity (e.g., being a future teacher, being a good reader, being a hard worker).

Of the 10 students who shared perceived costs in addition to benefits, five indicated a preference for doing reading in the classroom (i.e., maintained they would do reading in the classroom and not go to reading intervention if given the choice). Three out of six kindergarten students did not report any costs associated with their intervention involvement. For the five students who indicated a preference for doing reading in the classroom, perceived costs (e.g., lack of autonomy, difficulty level, decreased physical comfort) appeared to be especially salient for them when making this determination. Each of these five students listed more than one cost associated with intervention. Nine students listed costs (e.g., more time for snack in the classroom, more decision-making in the classroom) that could be categorized as *opportunity costs* (Perez et al., 2014). Two kindergarten students also indicated that they found aspects of the intervention to be especially difficult (*effort cost*; Flake et al., 2015). Lastly, three students (one first-grader and two kindergarten participants) indicated that they found aspects of intervention to be frustrating and/or boring (*emotional costs*; Flake et al., 2015). In sum, children across the sample articulated perceived benefits and costs associated with their intervention involvement.

RQ3

Students' perceived intervention benefits and costs revealed much about how the intervention supported or undermined their individual needs for *autonomy*, *competence*, and *relatedness* (SDT; Ryan & Deci, 2002); children in the sample appeared to vary in the amount of autonomy and competence support they required. For example, though many children's perceived benefits suggested the intervention largely satisfied their need for autonomy, all five children who indicated a preference for doing reading in the classroom also indicated a desire for more autonomy within the intervention setting through their perceived costs. Children whose responses suggested the intervention to be mainly autonomy-supportive appreciated intervention features such as being permitted to read in general, reading new books, playing games, choosing books, reading books in any order, being challenged, and working on letters and sounds. However, the five children whose responses suggested the intervention undermined their autonomy complained of not having enough of a say in what occurred in intervention setting (e.g., not being able to choose books they enjoyed, not being permitted to sit where they wanted to, not having enough time to read independently).

Similarly, with regard to supporting students' need for competence, most children's perceptions suggested that the intervention was largely competence-supportive. For these children, intervention aspects such as teacher-provided word solving strategies (e.g., tapping), the quiet, and the availability of the teacher to help when needed generally satisfied their need to feel competent within the intervention. However, one kindergarten child indicated a clear preference for reading in the classroom in large part because he did not feel successful in the intervention room; Daniel maintained that he struggled to read the books provided within the intervention, and video logs revealed that he had difficulty executing the tapping (decoding)

strategy privileged within the intervention. Other kindergarten students' perceived costs pointed to other aspects of intervention that potentially undermined their need to feel competent. Chrissy indicated that the *Foundations* magnetic boards (specifically the digraph tiles) stifled her ability to build words, and Izzy wished that the reading specialist would tell her the sounds that accompanied the letters during the *Foundations* letter keyword sound drill. One second-grade student (Henry) and one first-grade student (Penelope) perceived the noise level in the intervention setting to undermine their reading competence. In sum, students in the sample appeared to require different amounts of support with regard to both autonomy and competence within the intervention.

Students' perceived costs and benefits less often reflected a need to relate to others. One second-grade student (Alyssa) and one first-grade student (Sadie) indicated that they enjoyed reading with friends during intervention time. Another first-grade student (Madison) explained that she appreciated intervention specifically because it better enabled her to make and maintain friendships with peers and the two reading specialists. However, one second-grade student (Henry) maintained that he preferred to read by himself during intervention. Again, students' need for relatedness within the intervention appeared to vary. It is important to note that it was not always entirely clear which psychological need(s) if any, students' perceived benefits reflected. For example, a second-grade student (Vivian) listed doing reading in the small group as a benefit of intervention time. This perceived benefit could be due to the intervention supporting her need to feel competent (e.g., her peers support her in the completion of reading tasks) and/or her need to relate to others (e.g., she feels connected to others during this time). Regardless, students' benefits and costs provided tremendous insight regarding how they perceived their psychological needs to be supported and/or undermined within the intervention.

RQ4

Second- and first-grade participants' preferences for doing reading in the classroom or intervention setting were largely supported by adult reports of students' behavioral engagement. First, adults (reading specialists and researcher) tended to describe students who indicated a preference for doing reading in the classroom as less engaged than peers who indicated a preference for doing reading in the intervention room. Second, evidence to support children's perceived benefits and costs of intervention involvement could generally be found in reading specialists' and/or researcher behavioral engagement rating justifications and fieldnotes. The three first- and second-grade children who indicated a preference for doing reading in the classroom also articulated a greater number of costs (at least three) associated with their intervention involvement than their peers. One first-grade student, Josh, indicated a preference for doing reading in the intervention setting despite having been given relatively low behavioral engagement scores by his reading specialist and myself; Josh articulated only one cost associated with his intervention involvement. Due to his lower engagement scores, Josh was flagged as a student whose motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting should be monitored closely. Though first- and second-grade children's reading program preferences (i.e., classroom or intervention setting) could potentially be predicted by adult reports of behavioral engagement, children's explanations for their preferences could not be. For example, although one can arguably infer from reading specialist and researcher questionnaire responses that second-grader Henry preferred the classroom to the intervention setting, his voiced concerns with respect to decision-making are much more apparent and nuanced in his interview responses, as is his complaint about the noise level in the intervention setting.

Adult reports of kindergarten participants' intervention engagement, though somewhat supportive of students' understandings, were less so than first- and second-grade reports. Specifically, two students (Sadie and Hope) with high overall behavioral engagement scores indicated a preference for the intervention setting, and one student (Daniel) with a lower average behavioral engagement score indicated a preference for the classroom; these three children's instructional preferences (i.e., classroom or intervention setting) might have been predicted by adult reports of students' engagement alone. However, two students (Jacob and Izzy) with lower average behavioral engagement scores indicated a preference for the intervention setting, and the student (Chrissy) with the highest behavioral engagement score indicated a clear preference for reading in the classroom; these three students' preferred reading settings were more surprising. All students who indicated a preference for doing reading in the classroom articulated a greater number of costs associated with their intervention involvement than students who preferred the intervention setting. Children's rationales (e.g., the intervention is too difficult; intervention books are uninteresting) for their preferences would likely not have been realized with adult reports alone. That said, evidence to support children's perceived benefits and costs of intervention involvement could often be found in reading specialists' and/or researcher behavioral engagement rating justifications and fieldnotes. For example, Daniel's perceived struggle to read books provided in the intervention setting was further evidenced on researcher engagement questionnaires where I noted his difficulty tapping out words during independent reading numerous times. Furthermore, three kindergarten students (Daniel, Chrissy, and Izzy) offered recommendations (e.g., use foam letters instead of *Foundations* boards) for how the intervention could better support their unique needs. It is unlikely children's rationales and

recommendations would have surfaced without direct probing of their perceived benefits and costs of involvement.

Limitations

Before sharing important implications derived from the study's findings, the reader need keep in mind two limitations of the work. First, as overall measures of reading motivation (e.g., quantitative reading motivation surveys) were not attempted, nothing can be said with any certainty about how the program impacted child participants' more universal motivation to read. Put differently, it would be unfounded to conclude that child participants' low or high motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting negatively or positively influenced their motivation to read in dissimilar contexts. Second, although sound inferences have been made from the pluralistic data collected regarding how the reading intervention program shaped child participants' motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting, findings should be interpreted with caution by readers striving to make comparisons and/or generalizations; the smaller sample size and the highly contextualized nature of the study substantially limit generalizability (Creswell, 1994). Future research should extend similar goals and techniques to a broader range of contexts.

Implications for Theory and Practice

Findings from this dissertation have implications for both motivation theory and instructional practice. With regard to theory, child participants' expressed benefits and costs often represented previously described positive subcomponents (i.e., intrinsic value, utility value, attainment value) and negative subcomponents (i.e., emotional cost, effort cost, opportunity cost) of the task value component of the E-V model of motivation; as such, these findings point to the potential of E-V theory to enhance our understanding of young children's motivation to read in

situ. Additionally, the saliency of young children's perceived costs of intervention involvement and the potential connection of those costs to the meeting and/or neglecting of their unique basic psychological needs may allow us to better understand their motivation for specific academic interventions. Furthermore, findings suggest that young intervention students who score lower than their intervention peers on grade-level reading benchmark assessments may require more autonomy in the intervention than their higher-scoring intervention peers. Lastly, the meeting of children's unique needs for autonomy and competence may be especially important in supporting their motivation to do reading in Tier 2 reading intervention programs.

With regard to practice, the motivation-related perceptions of students in this study were accessible when participatory and developmentally-sensitive interview techniques were employed. As such, if the perceptions of other students identified for inclusion in Tier 2 interventions can be similarly elicited, then these intervention programs might be improved (with regard to better supporting students' motivation) via the information gained from students' own perceptions; children's own understandings could be used to help design new programs and/or modify existing programs to better support their motivation for doing reading within them. And, if students' motivation for such programs is improved, then their reading achievement might also benefit. These implications are explicated in greater detail in the sections below.

Implications for Theory

Some young children associate benefits and costs with intervention participation. Findings from this dissertation make several important contributions to E-V theory. First, they evidence the relevance of theorized positive E-V task value subcomponents (i.e., intrinsic/interest value, utility value, attainment value) and negative task value subcomponents (i.e., emotional cost, effort cost, opportunity cost) to the lived reading intervention experiences of

K-2 students enrolled in a Tier 2 reading intervention program. Though others (e.g., Marinak et al., 2015) have demonstrated that positive task value subcomponents contribute to young children's general reading motivation, this study illustrates how these subcomponents relate specifically to young children's willingness to do reading in a contextualized reading intervention program. In line with the theorizing of Wigfield and Eccles (1992), findings suggest interest/intrinsic value to be especially important in determining young children's willingness to engage in academic activities; all 14 children in the sample made reference to aspects of the reading intervention that they enjoyed or were interested in.

12 children also indicated that they appreciated the reading intervention because they found it to be useful (to have some utility value); children's perceived uses for the intervention varied. Though most children who indicated that they found the intervention to be useful appreciated getting help from the teacher, others maintained that the intervention helped them make and maintain relationships, bring books home, and collect stickers. Regardless of why they found the intervention to be helpful, students' perceived benefits evidenced the usefulness of the intervention nearly as often as they evidenced the intrinsic value of the intervention, suggesting the perceived usefulness of academic interventions mattered much to young children in the sample. It is important to note that four children mentioned their physical comfort in the intervention setting as being a benefit of participation; however, only one of these children, Madison, was able to explain why being physically comfortable in the setting was important to her (Madison claimed it helped her to focus on reading). There is some research to suggest being physically comfortable promotes learning (e.g., Krüger & Zannin, 2004) as well as feelings of competence (e.g., Sjöblom, Mälkki, Sandström, & Lonka, 2016); however, as the other children were either unable to make this connection or did not make this connection, I was unable to

apply a clear E-V theoretical code to their perceived benefit of comfort within the intervention setting. This is an area in need of future study.

Four students' perceived benefits reflected the E-V subcomponent of attainment value; two of these students were kindergarten children. This finding, though mainly in line with literature (e.g., Wigfield et al., 2015) that suggests attainment value is less relevant to young children's motivation, also indicates that the attainment value of academic interventions matters to some of our youngest learners. Specifically, the reading intervention confirmed for one kindergarten child that he was a hard worker and for the other that she could one day become a reading teacher. To the best of my knowledge, young children's attainment value perceptions specific to reading intervention programs have not been documented elsewhere.

This study also appears to be the first to examine K-2 students' perceived costs of a Tier 2 reading intervention program; child participants' articulated costs often aligned with three common subtypes existing in the literature (i.e., opportunity cost, effort cost, emotional cost). For example, nine students in the sample associated at least one opportunity cost with their intervention involvement; students often missed specific opportunities afforded during classroom reading time (e.g., the classroom is more comfortable, classroom books are more interesting, the classroom is quieter) due to intervention involvement. To a lesser extent, children in the sample remarked on aspects of the intervention being too difficult (i.e., effort cost) and emotionally costly (e.g., boring, frustrating). In sum, this study suggests that at least some young children associate and can articulate a range of costs specific to their Tier 2 reading intervention involvement—something past studies have not evidenced

Some young children's perceived costs appear to outweigh perceived benefits.

Second, findings suggest the saliency of child participants' perceived intervention costs to their

motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting. As mentioned before, young children's costs have largely been neglected in E-V studies examining students' perceived valuing of academic activities (Flake et al., 2015; Wigfield et al., 2015). This study not only demonstrated that young children in the sample could articulate costs associated with their reading intervention involvement, but also that these costs mattered a great deal to some children. Five students (across the three grade levels) maintained they would prefer not to go to reading intervention if permitted the choice. Each one of these children listed a greater number of costs than their peers who indicated a preference for doing reading in the intervention setting. Additionally, adult reports of behavioral engagement largely supported all but one of the five students' low motivation; for these five students in the sample, perceived costs appeared to be especially salient in determining their motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting. As such, findings echo the conclusion of other researchers (e.g., Perez et al., 2014) in suggesting cost to be an important factor in determining motivation; however, this dissertation extends this claim to young children's motivation in the context of a specific reading intervention.

The lowest-performing children may require additional autonomy. Third, although the noise level and perceived difficulty of intervention tasks were both offered by multiple child participants as costs associated with intervention participation, a perceived lack of *autonomy* within the intervention appeared to be the most prevalent cost among students who preferred not to go to reading intervention; all five students who reported they would prefer to do reading in the classroom also reported that they desired more autonomy within the intervention. Henry, for example, indicated that he wanted to make more decisions, while Alyssa did not want to be interrupted when reading independently. According to SDT, and specifically basic psychological needs theory, these students' unique needs for autonomy were not being met within the

intervention. Niemiec and Ryan (2009) as well as others (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 2002) have concluded after reviewing numerous studies on the topic that classroom environments students perceive to be largely autonomy-supportive typically promote adaptive motivation and engagement, while environments that students perceive as controlling tend to erode motivation. What Henry, Alyssa, and other students in the sample appear to require is more “voice and choice” in the reading activities occurring in the intervention, and the research is certainly on their side (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009, p.139). Though this finding in and of itself is not all that surprising in light of research on autonomy-supportive classrooms, the fact that these five students who reported low motivation and desired additional autonomy also tended to perform slightly lower on benchmark measures of reading proficiency (e.g., the DRA, DIBELS) than their peers who reported higher motivation does appear to contribute something new to the literature; findings from this study suggest young students enrolled in Tier 2 reading interventions (and who are not on IEPs) who especially struggle to meet reading benchmarks may require more control over their learning than students enrolled in the program who perform slightly better. Whether this is typically the case and where the performance cutoff may lie are issues to be examined in future studies.

Children’s valuing may relate to the meeting of psychological needs. Fourth, in line with pilot work (Erickson, in press), a recent study by Freer and Evans (2017), and the theorizing of Eccles (2009), this study suggests that learners’ valuing of an academic activity such as reading intervention can be at least in part explained by the meeting and/or neglecting of their basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Numerous examples of child participants’ perceived benefits and costs of intervention involvement aligned with the meeting or neglecting of these three needs. For example, students’ voiced valuing of receiving

help from the reading specialist can be interpreted as supporting their need to feel competent within the intervention. Students' perceived cost of not being permitted to make decisions within the intervention suggests the neglecting of their need for autonomy within the intervention. Students' intervention benefits and costs most often pointed to the nurturing or neglecting of their basic psychological needs for autonomy and competence in relation to the intervention. Interestingly, students' intervention benefits and costs rarely suggested a need to connect with others (relatedness); three students mentioned the importance of being with others during intervention time, and only one student indicated that it was important for her to feel connected to the reading specialist(s). This finding is surprising given the common understanding that young children's relatedness to the teacher has a "primary influence on their motivation to engage in and value school tasks" (Daniels et al., 2001, p.254-255). Findings from this study suggest child participants' needs for autonomy and competence specific to intervention involvement may be more important than their need to connect with others. In sum, findings from this dissertation lend support to the following novel implications for motivation theory: a) some young children associate and can articulate costs related to their reading intervention involvement; b) some young children's perceived costs of reading intervention appear to play an important role in shaping their motivation for doing reading in the intervention; c) young intervention students who struggle the most to meet grade-level reading expectations may need more autonomy within the intervention than their higher-achieving intervention peers; and d) young children's perceived benefits and costs of intervention involvement appear to be related to the meeting and/or neglecting of their basic psychological needs (especially needs for autonomy and competence).

An Important Implication for Practice

Results from this study point to one major implication for practice: young children’s motivation-related perceptions of imposed reading intervention programming can and, therefore, *should* be elicited to better support their developing motivation for doing reading within these programs. Through the use of two types of developmentally-sensitive participatory interview techniques (i.e., conversational drawing interview, walking tour interview), I was able to elicit not only what child participants across the three grade levels valued about their intervention participation, but also what they identified to be problematic about their participation.

Furthermore, child participants across the three grade levels made recommendations for program improvement. Even some of the youngest readers in the sample (e.g., Chrissy, Izzy) offered ideas about what might be modified (e.g., more interesting books, *Foundations* magnetic boards, letter keyword sound drill) to better support their motivation for doing reading there. When study results were shared with school leaders in September of 2019, reading specialists expressed enthusiasm and appreciation to learn about the anonymized students’ motivation-related understandings and ideas for program improvement. Specifically, Mrs. Lori remarked,

“This is important information for us to know...If I had known students were experiencing so much anxiety about doing the [letter keyword sound drill] in front of the group, I would have found another way for them to practice their sounds... I’ll be on the lookout for this in the future.”

As such, in addition to the interest inventories and/or motivation surveys commonly recommended by researchers (e.g., McKenna & Stahl, 2015) as tools teachers can use to better understand and support their students’ motivation to read, I invite schools to consider eliciting and examining their students’ motivation-related perceptions of reading intervention

programming. I cannot say who the best person is to probe students' understandings. Experience tells me that this person may differ depending on the child. The majority of children in the study appeared relieved to share their understandings with someone other than the reading specialist; however, I am convinced that a few children might have shared additional information with a more trusted adult—the decision of which adult should converse with each child about their intervention experience(s) is better left to school communities. What I would like to underscore is that the insights students share might lead to improving their motivation for and engagement in imposed reading programs. And, given motivation and engagement's clear connection to achievement, children's reading achievement may also benefit from a boost in motivation and engagement.

The Study's Methodological Contribution

This dissertation makes an important methodological contribution to the field: a) the qualitative case study design (Merriam, 1998) which permitted the comparison of child, reading specialist, and researcher reports, and b) the two types of participatory interviews (i.e., conversational drawing interviews, walking tour interviews) that led to the elicitation of children's motivation-related perceptions, together offer a novel approach to studying young children's motivation to read in situ.

The Case Study Design

First, the qualitative case study design facilitated the creative collection and combining of multiple types of ethnographic data (e.g., interviews, fieldnotes, questionnaire responses) from a variety of sources (i.e., children, reading specialists, researcher) within the bounded Tier 2 reading intervention program (Lichtinger & Kaplan, 2015; Merriam, 1998; Yazan, 2015). In line with the claims of Maxwell (2013) and others, I found myself typically better able to understand

and relay what children were telling me because of the multiple sources and varied types of data. At a macro level, such triangulation often resembled the following example: a student reported she or he would prefer/prefer not to go to the reading intervention (report low or high motivation for intervention) and I was usually able to support her or his claim with adult report(s) of low/high engagement (as compared to peers) in the intervention. I was also able to triangulate many of students' more specific motivation-related understandings. The following example is illustrative of triangulation at a micro level: Alyssa reported that she did not enjoy being interrupted while reading independently to do "spelling" within the intervention; I was able to find evidence of her negative reaction to this type of interruption in both qualitative questionnaire data and in fieldnotes. In sum, data of varying types and from differing perspectives generally enabled the triangulation of findings and, in turn, permitted the drawing of more trustworthy conclusions (Geertz, 1973; Maxwell, 2012; 2013).

More often than not, child and adult reports of children's engagement in and motivation for the reading intervention led to similar conclusions: children largely valued time spent in the reading intervention or they preferred to do reading elsewhere. However, adult evaluations of children's intervention engagement aligned less often with the programmatic preferences of kindergarten children specifically; three kindergarten participants' self-reported motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting likely would not have been accurately inferred by adult reports alone. This conclusion aligns with similar acknowledgements made by Wray and Medwell (2006) and others (e.g., Achenbach, McConaughy, & Howell, 1987) who have also found young children's situational understandings to differ at times from those of adults.

Possible explanations for why two children (e.g., Izzy, Josh) indicated a preference for doing reading in the intervention setting despite demonstrating low behavioral engagement

(maintaining attention within the intervention was reported to be especially difficult for both children) might include the following: 1) these children did not feel comfortable enough with me to divulge their true feelings (O'Reilly & Dogra, 2017); 2) due to their limited experience with reading intervention (in comparison to second-grade students), these children remain open to participating in the intervention despite struggles to engage (Wigfield et al., 2015); and/or 3) these children's attentional issues within intervention are indicative of a more general dispositional characteristic. Possible explanations for why a kindergarten student (Chrissy) indicated a clear preference for reading in the classroom despite being described as more engaged than peers in the intervention might include 1) the student's general desire to please adults (e.g., parents, classroom teacher, reading specialist) (O'Reilly & Dogra, 2017), and/or 2) adults mistaking the child's compliance for engagement (Fredricks et al., 2004). Although the adults in this study reported on multiple indicators of behavioral engagement in addition to compliance (e.g., self-reliance, attention), and on children's enthusiasm for intervention (an indicator of emotional engagement; Fredricks et al., 2004), scholars (e.g., Fredricks et al., 2004; Ponitz & Rimm-Kaufman, 2011) have suggested that learners' cognitive engagement should also be considered to obtain a more comprehensive picture of overall engagement within an activity. Though I noted Chrissy's use of reading strategies (e.g., tapping out words) in fieldnotes and on engagement questionnaires, it is impossible to know how cognitively engaged she was during intervention sessions. As such, it is possible that Chrissy only *appeared* engaged during the reading intervention.

Regardless, a key implication of the mixed findings described is that investigating only one perspective (i.e., child or adult) may lead to inaccurate conclusions. The combination of adult and child reports encourages both educators and researchers to dig deeper when reports

clash. Adult reports suggesting low engagement serve to encourage both the researcher and reading specialist to follow up with students who indicated a preference for doing reading in the intervention setting (reported high motivation) to ensure positive feelings continue. Similarly, students reporting low motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting despite adult reports of high engagement clue the researcher and/or reading specialists in to a potential motivation problem that may have gone unrecognized otherwise and can now be further examined and addressed directly. The qualitative case study design employed in this study can be credited with facilitating the incorporation of multiple perspectives for triangulation and, as such, with improving the trustworthiness of conclusions. Additionally, it can be argued that more children with low motivation for doing reading in the intervention setting can potentially be identified and, in turn, better supported via the examination of adult reports of engagement *and* child reports of motivation. Prior studies have largely “failed to examine [children’s perceptions of] the acceptability of school-based interventions,” despite the common understanding that students’ positive perceptions of intervention serve to promote related motivation and achievement (Eckert et al., 2017, p.270). This study further evidences the need for motivation researchers to probe and analyze students’ motivation-related perceptions of imposed reading interventions in conjunction with adult reports to grasp a more thorough understanding of students’ underlying motivation for and active involvement in such programs.

The Participatory Interview Approaches

Perhaps the most exciting methodological contributions of this study are the two distinct participatory interview types that led to child participants sharing their unconstrained motivation-related perceptions of the intervention. Conversational drawing interviews rooted in the work of Einarsdottir and colleagues (e.g., 2009) and walking tour interviews rooted in the work of Clark

and Moss (2001) permitted me to take a new approach to eliciting children's motivation-related understandings and, in doing so, respond to scholars' (e.g., Elliott, 2004; Marinak et al., 2015) calls for creative and developmentally-sensitive methods of studying young children's reading motivation. Though both interview approaches permitted children to have some control over the process and made use of concrete supports and flexible questioning, the walking tour interview proved most successful in drawing out students' benefit and cost perceptions specific to their reading intervention involvement. The semi-structured interview protocol (See Appendix E) was adapted from pre-existing semi-structured E-V interview protocols (Chen & Liu, 2009; Watkinson et al., 2005) that had successfully elicited older students' perceived programmatic costs. Furthermore, children seemed especially enthusiastic to lead me on a tour of the intervention space. The availability of materials to show me what specifically they were referring to in describing their likes and dislikes and the absence of the reading specialist appeared to be two aspects of the interview that better enabled children to talk about their understandings. The combination of developmentally-sensitive interview approaches and semi-structured interview questions adapted from past E-V studies examining cost can be credited with successfully eliciting child participants' motivation-related perceptions of the reading intervention program in this study. In conclusion, the promising methodological approach utilized in this dissertation should be applied to similar and dissimilar contexts in an effort to learn more about young children's motivation to read in situ.

Future Research

As is the case with most dissertations, this one ends by offering more questions than answers. In this section I share some of the potential projects that might be taken up as a result of this work.

Recommendations for Future Research

This dissertation sheds light on numerous areas in need of future research. First, the overarching goal of this study (to infer how a specific Tier 2 reading intervention program shaped students' motivation for doing reading within it) and the methods employed to reach it should be attempted in other contexts both alike and different. For example, what can qualitative case studies inclusive of adult and child perspectives tell us about the motivation and engagement of children in less balanced, highly structured reading intervention programs? What can they tell us about the motivation and engagement of children in outside-of-school initiatives such as library story hours or museum programs that incorporate reading, art, and subject area content? Furthermore, what can qualitative case studies incorporating adult and child reports tell us about the reading motivation of specific populations such as ELLs? The method and protocols detailed here should be tested in diverse settings and with diverse populations.

With specific regard to the E-V construct of cost, many more studies inclusive of a wide range of Tier 2 reading interventions and contexts are needed to determine a) whether most young readers associate costs with their participation in reading intervention programs, b) whether there are common costs associated with intervention participation across the young reader population and across programs, and c) the saliency of specific intervention costs (i.e., whether some costs are more costly than others) to children's motivation to read within such programs and outside of them. Additionally, future studies should examine whether a relationship exists between students' more salient participatory costs and their short- and long-term reading achievement.

Although this study suggests a relationship might exist between children's perceived benefits and costs of intervention participation and the meeting and/or neglecting of their basic

psychological needs, this dissertation acknowledges that many more studies are required to establish such a relationship. Additionally, researchers should examine how the cost of feeling physically uncomfortable in the intervention setting relates to the meeting of basic psychological needs. In this study, one child appeared to value choosing whether she could access what she considered to be more comfortable chairs, while several other students remarked that they preferred one setting over another (the classroom or the intervention room) in part due to the preferred setting being more physically comfortable. Whether heightened physical comfort promotes a feeling of competence in young readers and/or their learning in general are areas ripe for future research. Lastly, this study's finding that children scoring the lowest on reading benchmark assessments (i.e., DRA, DIBELS) also appeared to require a greater amount of autonomy within the intervention (as compared to their higher-performing intervention peers) should be examined in future investigations. In sum, this dissertation points to numerous important future projects involving the examination of young readers' motivation specific to programs intended to promote reading skill development and/or achievement.

Conclusion

Recall the framing quotation presented in the first chapter of this dissertation:

“[Researchers] have generally sought to improve student motivation without asking students what sorts of subject matter and what associated teaching methods make sense to them...Even young children have theories about the nature and value of different topics and of how they should be learned” (Nicholls, 1992, p.282).

This study, in striving specifically to heed the advice of Nicholls, offers further support for his proclamation that young children can voice their understandings of what is and is not working for them with regard to imposed academic programming. All fourteen students in the sample

shared benefits associated with intervention involvement, and ten students articulated perceived costs associated with participation; 64% of students reported the intervention to be generally supportive of their motivation. Additionally, findings suggest that *we may be missing much when we omit students' own voices in our efforts to better understand and support their developing motivation*. One student whom adults reported as having especially high motivation for the reading intervention maintained that if given the choice, she would not attend. Five students out of the fourteen in the sample reported that if permitted the choice they would stay in their general classrooms to do reading instead of attending the intervention. Ten students associated at least one cost with their intervention involvement. Multiple child participants, including kindergarten children, offered ideas about how the Tier 2 reading intervention program could be modified to better support their motivation for doing reading there.

A large-scale study conducted by the National Center for Educational Evaluation and Regional Assistance (Balu et al., 2015) involving over 20,000 students across 13 states found Tier 2 reading interventions to be largely ineffective in improving the reading outcomes of first-grade students reading just below grade level. If future large-scale impact studies like this one continue to indicate that Tier 2 reading interventions have not improved children's early reading performance as expected, increased concern over the quality and/or fit of adopted reading interventions and/or the degree to which educators demonstrate fidelity to specific interventions may result. Schools and educators are all too often blamed when education reform initiatives do not play out as intended; if Tier 2 reading interventions largely fail to improve young children's reading performance, schools and/or educators may be held responsible for students' low levels of achievement and forced to adopt new and/or more prescriptive intervention programs intended to enhance achievement. *What if better supporting children's motivation to do reading within*

these intervention programs leads to improved academic outcomes? Ensuring children enjoy and value that which occurs in imposed reading interventions seems like a logical way to engage them in reading intervention programming; however, motivation and engagement are rarely emphasized in U.S. education reforms (Pressley et al., 2007).

The arguable prioritization of achievement over motivation characteristic of U.S. reform initiatives (e.g., Common Core State Standards; IDEA; Reading First), which tend to fall short of advocating for the cultivation of adaptive reading motivation, presents a stark contrast to the implied value Nicholls places on learning motivation in the quote appearing at the beginning of this section. This contrast begs the question: *Do we as a society truly value the cultivation of adaptive reading motivation?* Even if one prioritizes achievement over motivation, the well-evidenced connection between the two suggests we all *should* value reading motivation. As such, it seems wise to probe and seriously consider young children's motivation-related perceptions of imposed school programming before heading back to the drawing board to select, design, or modify interventions for the purpose of enhancing achievement. Conceivably, as others have posited (e.g., Morgan et al., 2008), it is the combination of targeted, responsive, evidenced-based reading curricula and strategic teaching moves coupled with the right amount of support for each child's developing motivation to read that will lead to coveted achievement gains.

Perhaps if the U.S. had ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) in 1989, schools would be required to elicit and take seriously students' motivation-related understandings of imposed programs. Perhaps if the UNCRC treaty were ratified thirty years ago, we might today be seeing gains instead of losses in reading achievement as a result of intervention initiatives designed, selected, and continuously modified with students' motivation-related understandings in mind. Unfortunately, there is no way of knowing if and/or when the

U.S. will ratify the UNCRC; the ratification of a dated human rights treaty for children seems unlikely in Trump's America. However, ratification may not be necessary to bring about change. This dissertation suggests we can validly and reliably elicit young children's motivation-related understandings of imposed reading interventions when developmentally-sensitive techniques are employed. As such, what is to stop us from using children's own understandings of imposed interventions to modify programming in ways that better support their motivation for doing reading within them? It appears that we have little to lose and much to gain from trying.

REFERENCES

- Achenbach, T. M., McConaughy, S. H., & Howell, C. T. (1987). Child/adolescent behavioral and emotional problems: Implications of cross-informant correlations for situational specificity. *Psychological Bulletin*, *101*, 213-232.
- Attiah, K. (2014, November 21). Why won't the U.S. ratify the U.N.'s child rights treaty? [Blog post]. Retrieved from https://www.washingtonpost.com/blogs/post-partisan/wp/2014/11/21/why-wont-the-u-s-ratify-the-u-n-s-child-rights-treaty/?utm_term=.a59eaac229ff
- Balu, R., Zhu, P., Doolittle, F., Schiller, E., Jenkins, J., & Gersten, R. (2015). *Evaluation of response to intervention practices for elementary school reading. Executive Summary* (NCEE 2016-4000). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, *84*(2), 191-215.
- Barron, K. E., & Hulleman, C. S. (2014). The expectancy-value-cost model of motivation. In J. Eccles & K. Salmelo-Aro (Eds.), *International encyclopedia of the social and behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.: Motivational Psychology, pp. 503-509.). Oxford, UK: Elsevier.
- Bates, C. C., D'Agostino, J. V., Gambrell, L., & Xu, M. (2016). Reading Recovery: Exploring the effects on first-graders' reading motivation and achievement. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, *21*(1), 47-59.
- Battle, A., & Wigfield, A. (2003). College women's value orientations toward family, career, and graduate school. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *62*(1), 56-75. doi:10.1016/S0001-8791(02)00037-4.
- Billen, M. T., & Allington, R. L. (2013). An evidenced-based approach to Response to Intervention. In D. M. Barone & M. H. Mallette (Eds.), *Best practices in early literacy instruction* (pp. 305-32). New York, NY: Guilford.
- Boeije, H. (2010). *Analysis in qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Broussard, S. C., & Garrison, M. B. (2004). The relationship between classroom motivation and academic achievement in elementary-school-aged children. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal*, *33* (2). 106-120.
- Campbell, J. L., Quincy, C., Osserman, J., & Pedersen, O. K. (2013). Coding in-depth semistructured interviews: Problems of unitization and intercoder reliability and agreement. *Sociological Methods & Research*, *42*(3), 294-320.

- Cappello, M. (2005). Photo interviews: Eliciting data through conversations with children. *Field Methods, 17*(2), 170–182.
- Certo, J., Moxley, K., Reffitt, K., & Miller, J. A. (2010). I learned how to talk about a book: Children's perceptions of literature circles across grade and ability levels. *Literacy Research and Instruction, 49*(3), 243–263. doi:10.1080/19388070902947352.
- Chapman, J. W., & Tunmer, W. E. (1995). Development of young children's reading self-concepts: An examination of emerging subcomponents and their relationship with reading achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 87*(1), 154–167. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.87.1.154
- Chapman, J. W., & Tunmer, W. E. (1997). A longitudinal study of beginning reading achievement and reading self-concept. *The British Journal of Educational Psychology, 67*(3), 279–291. doi:10.1111/j.2044-8279.1997.tb01244.x
- Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. London, UK: Sage.
- Chen, A., & Liu, X. (2009). Task values, cost, and choice decisions in college physical education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 28*(2), 192–213.
- Chiang, E. S., Byrd, S. P., & Molin, A. J. (2011). Children's perceived cost for exercise: Application of an expectancy-value paradigm. *Health Education & Behavior, 38*(2), 143-149.
- Ciampa, K. (2012). Electronic storybooks: A constructivist approach to improving reading motivation in grade 1 students. *Canadian Journal of Education, 35*(4), 92–136.
- Ciampa, K. (2016). Motivating grade 1 children to read: Exploring the role of choice, curiosity, and challenge in mobile eBooks. *Reading Psychology, 37*(5), 665–705. doi:10.1080/02702711.2015.1105337
- Clark, A. (2005). Listening to and involving young children: A review of research and practice. In A. Clark, A. T. Kjørholt, & P. Moss (Eds.), *Beyond listening: Children's perspectives on early childhood services* (pp. 490-505). Bristol, UK: Policy Press.
- Clark, A. (2007). A hundred ways of listening: Gathering children's perspectives on their early childhood environment. *Young Children, 62*(3), 76-81.
- Clark, A., & Moss, P. (2001). *Listening to young children: The mosaic approach*. London, UK: National Children's Bureau.
- Clarke, A., Power, T., Blomhoffman, J., Dwyer, J., Kelleher, C., & Novak, M. (2004). Kindergarten reading engagement: an investigation of teacher ratings. *Journal of Applied School Psychology, 20*(1), 131-144.

- Coddington, C. S., & Guthrie, J. T. (2009). Teacher and student perceptions of boys' and girls' reading motivation. *Reading Psychology, 30*(3), 225–249. [doi:10.1080/02702710802275371](https://doi.org/10.1080/02702710802275371)
- Connor, C. M., Jakobsons, L. J., Crowe, E. C., & Meadows, J. G. (2009). Instruction, student engagement, and reading skill growth in reading first classrooms. *The Elementary School Journal, 109*(3), 221–250. doi:10.1086/592305
- Creswell, J. W. (1994). *Research design: Quantitative and qualitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Daniels, D. H., Kalkman, D. L., & McCombs, B. L. (2001). Young children's perspectives on learning and teacher practices in different classroom contexts: Implications for motivation. *Early Education and Development, 12*(2), 253-273.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R.M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York, NY: Plenum.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2002). Self-determination research: Reflections and future directions. In E. L. Deci & R. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of self-determination research* (pp. 431–441). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.
- Dockett, S., & Perry, B. (1999). Starting school: what do the children say? *Early Childhood Development and Care, 159*(1), 107-119.
- Durik, A., Vida, M., & Eccles, J. (2006). Task values and ability beliefs as predictors of high school literacy choices: A developmental analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 98*(2), 382–393.
- Eccles, J. S. (2005). Subjective task value and the Eccles et al. model of achievement-related choices. In A. J. Elliot & C. S. Dweck (Eds.), *Handbook of competence and motivation* (pp. 105-121). New York, NY: Guilford Publications.
- Eccles, J. S. (2009). Who am I and what am I going to do with my life? Personal and collective identities as motivators of action. *Educational Psychologist, 44*(2), 78-89.
- Eccles, J. S., Adler, T. F., Futterman, R., Goff, S. B., Kaczala, C. M., Meece, J. L., & Midgley, C. (1983). Expectancies, values and academic behaviors. In J. T. Spence (Ed.), *Achievement and achievement motivation* (pp. 75-146). San Francisco, CA: W. H. Freeman.
- Eckert, T. L., Hier, B. O., Hamsho, N. F., & Malandrino, R. D. (2017). Assessing children's perceptions of academic interventions: The kids intervention profile. *School Psychology Quarterly, 32*(2), 268–281. [doi:10.1037/spq0000200](https://doi.org/10.1037/spq0000200)
- Eder, R. A. (1989). The emergent personologist: The structure and content of 3½-, 5½-, and 7½-year-olds' concepts of themselves and other persons. *Child Development, 60*(5), 1218-1228.

- Einarsdottir, J. (2005). We can decide what to play! Children's perception of quality in an Icelandic playschool. *Early Education and Development*, 16(4), 469-488.
- Einarsdottir, J. (2007). Research with children: Methodological and ethical challenges. *European Early Childhood Education Research Journal*, 15(2), 197-211.
- Einarsdottir, J., Dockett, S., & Perry, B. (2009). Making meaning: Children's perspectives expressed through drawings. *Child Development and Care*, 179(2), 217-231.
- Elliott, J. (2004). Multimethod approaches in educational research. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 51(2), 135-149.
- Emerson, R. M., Fretz, R. I., & Shaw, L. L. (2011). *Writing ethnographic fieldnotes*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Erickson, J.D. (in press). Primary readers' perceptions of a camp guided reading intervention: A qualitative case study of motivation and engagement. *Reading & Writing Quarterly: Overcoming Learning Difficulties*.
- Erickson, J.D., & Fornauf, B. (2017). Supporting primary students' reading motivation over the summer: An investigation of teachers' instructional literacy practices and perceptions in a thematic camp setting. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy*.
- Fielding, M. (2003). Review of What Pupils Say by Andrew Pollard and Pat Triggs. *Journal of Educational Change*, 4(1), 38-39.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Fives, A., Russell, D., Kearns, N., Lyons, R., Eaton, P., Canavan, J., Devaney, C., & O'Brien, A. (2014). The association between academic self-beliefs and reading achievement among children at risk of reading failure. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 37(2), 215-232.
- Flake, J. K., Barron, K. E., Hulleman, C., McCoach, B. D., & Welsh, M. E. (2015). Measuring cost: The forgotten component of expectancy-value theory. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 41, 232-244. doi:10.1016/j.cedpsych.2015.03.002
- Flewitt, R. (2006). Using video to investigate preschool classroom interaction: Education research assumptions and methodological practices. *Visual Communication*, 5(1), 25-50.
- Forbes, S., & Fullerton, S. (2014). Motivational changes in reading recovery children: A pre and post analysis. *Journal of Reading Recovery*, 13(2), 43-53.
- Fountas & Pinnell (2018). What is Leveled Literacy Intervention (LLI) and how is LLI used? Retrieved from <http://www.fountasandpinnell.com/lli/>
- Fredricks, J. A., Blumenfeld, P. C., & Paris, A. H. (2004). School engagement: Potential of the concept, state of the evidence. *Review of Educational Research*, 74(1), 59-109. doi:10.3102/00346543074001059

- Freer, E., & Evans, P. (2017). Psychological needs satisfaction and value in students' intentions to study music in high school. *Psychology of Music* 46(6), 881–895. doi: 10.1177/0305735617731613
- Geertz, C. (1973). *The interpretation of cultures: Selected essays*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Gottfried, A. E. (1990). Academic intrinsic motivation in young elementary school children. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(3), 525-538. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.82.3.525
- Graue, M. E., & Walsh, D. J. (1998). *Studying children in context: Theories, methods, and ethics*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Guay, F., Chanal, J., Ratelle, C. F., Marsh, H. W., Larose, S., & Boivin, M. (2010). Intrinsic, identified, and controlled types of motivation for school subjects in young elementary school children. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80(4), 711-735. doi:10.1348/000709910X499084
- Guo, Y., Connor, C. M. D., Tompkins, V., & Morrison, F. J. (2011). Classroom quality and student engagement: Contributions to third-grade reading skills. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 2, 1–10. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2011.00157
- Guo, Y., Sun, S., Breit-Smith, A., Morrison, F. J., & Connor, C. M. (2015). Behavioral engagement and reading achievement in elementary-school-age children: A longitudinal cross-lagged analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 107(2), 332-347.
- Guthrie, J. T., & Wigfield, A. (2000). Engagement in motivation and reading. In M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of Reading Research* (Vol. 3, pp. 403- 422). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Hancock, D. R., & Algozzine, B. (2011). *Doing case study research: A practical guide for beginning researchers*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Hancock, R., & Mansfield, M. (2002). The literacy hour: a case for listening to children. *Curriculum Journal*, 13(2), 183–200. doi:10.1080/09585170210136840
- Hanke, V. (2014). Guided reading: young pupils' perspectives on classroom practice. *Literacy*, 48(3), 136-143. doi:10.1111/lit.12019
- Harris, P. (2015). 'Words and stuff': Exploring children's perspectives of classroom reading in the early school years. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 38(1), 27-37.
- Hart, R. (1997). *Children's participation: The theory and practice of involving young citizens in community development and environmental care*. New York, NY: UNICEF and Earthscan.
- Hatch, A. J. (1995). *Qualitative research in early childhood settings*. Westport, CT: Praeger.

- Hughes, J., & Kwok, O. (2007). Influence of student-teacher and parent-teacher relationships on lower achieving readers' engagement and achievement in the primary grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 99*(1), 39–51. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.99.1.39
- Ivey, G., & Broaddus, K. (2001). 'Just plain reading': A survey of what makes students want to read in middle school classrooms. *Reading Research Quarterly, 36*(4), 350–377.
- Jacobs, J. E., Lanza, S., Osgood, W.S., Eccles, J.S., and Wigfield, A. (2002). Changes in children's self-competence and values: Gender and domain differences across grades one through twelve. *Child Development, 73*(2), 509-527.
- Kaplan, A. (2016, August). *Research on motivation and achievement: Infatuation with constructs and losing sight of phenomenon*. Paper presented at the biennial meeting of the International Conference on Motivation, Thessaloniki, Greece.
- Kaplan, A., Middleton, M. J., Urdan, T., & Midgley, C. (2002). Achievement goals and goal structures. In C. Midgley (Ed.), *Goals, goal structures, and patterns of adaptive learning* (pp. 21-53). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Krüger, E. L., & Zannin, P. H. T. (2004). Acoustic, thermal and luminous comfort in classrooms. *Building & Environment, 39*(9), 1055–1063. doi:10.1016/j.buildenv.2004.01.030
- Langsted, O. (1994). Looking at quality from the child's perspective. In P. Moss & A. Pence (Eds.), *Valuing quality in early childhood services: New approaches to defining quality* (pp 28-42). London, UK: Paul Chapman.
- Lansdown, G. (2011). *Every child's right to be heard: A resource guide on the UN committee on the rights of the child general comment NO.12*. London, UK: Save the Children UK.
- Leslie, L., & Caldwell, J. (1990). *Qualitative reading inventory*. New York: Harper Collins College Publishers.
- Lichtinger, E., & Kaplan, A. (2014). Employing a case study approach to capture motivation and self-regulation of young students with learning disabilities in authentic educational contexts. *Metacognition Learning, 10*(1), 119-149.
- Little, M. E., Rawlinson, D., Simmons, D. C., Kim, M., Kwok, O., Hagan-Burke, S., . . . Coyne, M.D. (2012). A comparison of responsive interventions on kindergarteners' early reading achievement. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 27*(4), 189-202.
- Luttrell, V. R., Callen, B. W., Allen, C. S., Wood, M. D., Deeds, D. G., & Richard, D. S. (2010). The mathematics value inventory for general education students: Development and initial validation. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 70*(1), 142-160.
- Marinak, B. A. (2013). Courageous reading instruction: The effects of an elementary motivation intervention. *The Journal of Educational Research, 106*(1), 39-48. doi:10.1080/00220671.2012.658455

- Marinak, B. A., Malloy, J. B., Gambrell, L. B., & Mazzoni, S. A. (2015). Me and my reading profile. *Reading Teacher, 69*(1), 51-62. doi:10.1002/trtr.1362
- Marsh, H. W., Craven, R. G., & Debus, R. (1991). Self-concepts of young children 5 to 8 years of age: Measurement and multidimensional structure. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 83*(3), 377–392. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.83.3.377
- Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2018). *School and district profiles*. Retrieved from <http://profiles.doe.mass.edu/>
- Maxwell, J.A. (2012). *A realist approach for qualitative research*. London, UK: Sage.
- Maxwell, J.A. (2013). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach*. London, UK: Sage.
- McGee-Brown, M. J. (1995). Multiple voices, contexts, and methods: Making choices in qualitative evaluation in early childhood education settings. In J. A. Hatch (Ed.), *Qualitative research in early childhood settings* (pp.191-211). Westport, CT: Praeger.
- McKenna, M. C., & Kear, D. J. (1990). Measuring attitude toward reading: A new tool for teachers. *Reading Teacher, 43*(9), 626–639.
- McKenna, M. C., Kear, D., & Ellsworth, R. (1995). Children's attitudes toward reading: A national survey. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30*(4), 934-956.
- McKenna, M. C., & Stahl, K. A. D. (2015). *Assessment for reading instruction*. 3rd ed. New York: Guilford Press.
- Measelle, J. R., Ablow, J. C., Cowan, P. A., & Cowan, C. P. (1998). Assessing young children's views of their academic, social, and emotional lives: An evaluation of the self-perception scales of the Berkeley Puppet Interview. *Child Development, 69*(6), 1556-1576.
- Mehta, S. (2015). There's only one country that hasn't ratified the convention on children's rights: US [Blog post]. Retrieved from <https://www.aclu.org/blog/human-rights/treaty-ratification/theres-only-one-country-hasnt-ratified-convention-childrens>
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldana, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Millin, S. K., & Rinehart, S. D. (1999). Some of the benefits of readers theater participation for second-grade title I students. *Reading Research and Instruction, 39*(1), 71–88. doi:10.1080/19388079909558312
- Morgan, P.L., & Fuchs, D (2007). Is there a bidirectional relationship between children's reading skills and reading motivation? *Exceptional Children, 73*(2), 165-183.

- Morgan, P. L., Fuchs, D., Compton, D. L., Cordray, D. S., & Fuchs, L. S. (2008). Does early reading failure decrease children's reading motivation? *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 41*(5), 387-404. [doi:10.1177/0022219408321112](https://doi.org/10.1177/0022219408321112)
- Morrow, L. M., & Weinstein, C. S. (1986). Encouraging voluntary reading: The impact of a literature program on children's use of library centers. *Reading Research Quarterly, 21*(3), 330–346.
- National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers (2010). *Common Core State Standards (English Language Arts)*. Washington, D.C.: National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School.
- National Reading Panel (U.S.) & National Institute of Child Health and Human Development. (2000). *Report of the National Reading Panel. Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction: Reports of the subgroups* (NIH Publication No. 00-4754). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Niemiec, C. P., & Ryan, R. M. (2009). Autonomy, competence, and relatedness in the classroom: Applying self-determination theory to educational practice. *Theory and Research in Education, 7*(2), 133-144.
- Nicholls, J. (1992). Students as educational theorists. In D. Schunk & J. Meece (Eds.), *Student perceptions in the classroom* (pp. 267-285). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Nolen, S. B. (2001). Constructing Literacy in the Kindergarten: Task structure, collaboration, and motivation. *Cognition and Instruction, 19*(1), 95-142.
- Nolen, S. B. (2007). Young children's motivation to read and write: Development in social contexts. *Cognition & Instruction, 25*(2), 219–270.
- O'Reilly, M., & Dogra, N. (2017). *Interviewing children and young people for research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Pak, S. S., & Weseley, A. J. (2012). The effect of mandatory reading logs on children's motivation to read. *Journal of Research in Education, 22*(1), 251–265.
- Parkinson, D. D. (2001). Securing trustworthy data from an interview situation with young children: Six integrated interview strategies. *Child Study Journal, 31*(3), 137–156.
- Pearson. (n.d.). *Fountas & Pinnell Leveled Literacy Intervention (LLI)*. Retrieved from <https://www.heinemann.com/collection/lli>
- Perez, T., Cromley, J. G., & Kaplan, A. (2014). The role of identity development, values, and costs in college STEM retention. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 106*(1), 315–329. doi:10.1037/a0034027

- Pollard, A., Thiessen, D., & Filer, A. (1997). Introduction: New challenges in taking children's curricular perspectives seriously. In A. Pollard, D. Thiessen, & A. Filer (Eds.), *Children and their curriculum: The perspectives of primary and elementary school children* (pp. 1-12). Washington, D.C.: The Falmer Press.
- Pollard, A., & Triggs, P. (2000). *What pupils say: Changing policy and practice in primary education*. New York, NY: Continuum.
- Ponitz, C. C., & Rimm-Kaufman, S. E. (2011). Contexts of reading instruction: Implications for literacy skills and kindergarteners' behavioral engagement. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 26*(2), 157–168. doi:10.1016/j.ecresq.2010.10.002
- Ponitz, C., Rimm-Kaufman, S. E., Grimm, K. J., & Curby, T.W. (2009). Kindergarten classroom quality, behavioral engagement, and reading achievement. *School Psychology Review, 38*(1), 102-120.
- Pressley, M., Billman, A. K., Perry, K. H. Reffitt, K. E., & Reynolds, J. M. (2007). *Shaping literacy achievement: Research we have, research we need*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Quirk, M. P., & Schwanenflugel, P.S. (2004) Do supplemental remedial reading programs address the motivational issues of struggling readers? An analysis of five popular programs. *Reading Research and Instruction, 43*(3), 1-19.
- Quirk, M., Schwanenflugel, P. J., & Webb, M. (2009). A short-term longitudinal study of the relationship between motivation to read and reading fluency skill in second grade. *Journal of Literacy Research, 41*(2), 196-227.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2002). Overview of self-determination theory: An organismic dialectical perspective. In E. L. Deci & R. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of self-determination theory research* (pp. 3-33). Rochester, NY: The University of Rochester Press.
- Ryan, R. M., & Weinstein, N. (2009). Undermining quality teaching and learning: A Self-Determination Theory perspective on high-stakes testing. *Theory and Research in Education, 7*(2), 224-233.
- Scher, D., & Baker, L. (1997, April). *Children's conceptions and motivations regarding reading and their relations to parental ideas and home experiences*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Washington, DC.
- Schiefele, U., Stutz, F., & Schaffner, E. (2016). Longitudinal relations between reading motivation and reading comprehension in the early elementary grades. *Learning and Individual Differences, 51*, 49-58. doi:10.1016/j.lindif.2016.08.031
- Shadish, W. R., Cook, T. D., & Campbell, D. T. (2002). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for generalized causal inference*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.

- Shanahan, T. (2015). What teachers should know about Common Core: A guide for the perplexed. *Reading Teacher*, 68(8), 583-588.
- Sjöblom, K., Mälkki, K., Sandström, N., & Lonka, K. (2016). Does physical environment contribute to basic psychological needs? A self-determination theory perspective on learning in the chemistry laboratory. *Frontline Learning Research*, 4(1), 17–39. doi:10.14786/flr.v4i1.217
- Smith, A., Duncan, J., & Marshall, K. (2005). Children’s perspectives on their learning: Exploring methods. *Early Child Development and Care*, 175(6), 473–487. doi:10.1080/03004430500131270
- Sperling, R. A., & Head, D. M. (2002). Reading attitudes and literacy skills in prekindergarten and kindergarten children. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 29(4), 233-236.
- Stanczak, G.C. (2007). Introduction: Images, methodologies, and generating social knowledge. In G.C. Stanczak (Ed.), *Visual research methods: Image society, and representation* (pp. 1–21). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stanovich, K. E. (1986). Matthew effects in reading: Some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21(4), 360–407.
- Stipek, D., Feiler, R., Daniels, D., & Milburn, S. (1995). Effects of different instructional approaches on young children’s achievement and motivation. *Child Development*, 66(1), 209–223.
- The Nation’s Report Card. (2015). *How did U.S. students perform on the most recent assessments?* Retrieved from <https://www.nationsreportcard.gov/>
- Turner, J. C. (1995). The influence of classroom contexts on young children’s motivation for literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 30(3), 410–441.
- Unrau, N. J., & Quirk, M. (2014). Reading motivation and reading engagement: Clarifying commingled conceptions. *Reading Psychology*, 35(3), 260-284.
- United Nations. (1989). *United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child*. Retrieved from <https://www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/crc.aspx>
- U.S. Department of Education, Individuals with Disabilities Education Act. (2015). *About IDEA*. Retrieved from <https://sites.ed.gov/idea/about-idea/>
- U.S. Department of Education, Office of Elementary and Secondary Education (2003). *Reading First Program*. Retrieved from <https://www2.ed.gov/programs/readingfirst/index.html>
- Watkinson, E. J., Dwyer, S., & Nielsen, A. B. (2005). Children theorize about reasons for recess engagement: Does expectancy-value theory apply? *Adapted Physical Activity Quarterly*, 22(2), 179-197.

- Weiss, R. S. (1994). *Learning from strangers: The art and method of qualitative interviewing*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- What Works Clearinghouse. (2017). Leveled Literacy Intervention beginning reading. Retrieved from National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance website: <https://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/EvidenceSnapshot/679>
- Wigfield, A. (1997). Children's motivations for reading and writing engagement. In J. T. Guthrie & A. Wigfield (Eds.), *Reading engagement: Motivating readers through integrated instruction* (pp. 14-33). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Wigfield, A., & Eccles, J. S. (1992). The development of achievement task values: A theoretical analysis. *Developmental Review, 12*(3), 265-310.
- Wigfield, A., & Eccles, J. S. (2000). Expectancy–value theory of achievement motivation. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25*(1), 68-81. doi:10.1006/ceps.1999.1015
- Wigfield, A., Eccles, J. S., Fredricks, J. A., Simpkins, S., Roeser, R. W., & Schiefele, U. (2015). Development of achievement motivation and engagement. In M. E. Lamb & M. Lerner (Eds.), *Handbook of child psychology and developmental science: Socioemotional processes* (7th ed., pp. 657–700). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons Inc.
- Wigfield, A., Eccles, J. S., Yoon, K. S., Harold, R. D., Arbretton, A. J., Freedman-Doan, C., & Blumenfeld, P. C. (1997). Change in children's competence beliefs and subjective task values across elementary school years: A 3-year study. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 89*(3), 451-469.
- Wigfield, A., Gladstone, J. R., & Turci, L. (2016). Beyond cognition: Reading motivation and reading comprehension. *Child Development Perspectives, 10*(3), 190–195. doi:10.1111/cdep.12184
- Wilson Language Training. (2018). Foundations Wilson language basics. Retrieved from <https://www.wilsonlanguage.com/programs/foundations/>
- Wilson, K. M., & Trainin, G. (2007). First-grade students' motivation and achievement for reading, writing, and spelling. *Reading Psychology, 28*(3), 257-282.
- Witt, J. C., & Elliott, S. N. (1985). Acceptability of classroom intervention strategies. In T. R. Kratochwill (Ed.), *Advances in school psychology* (pp. 251–288). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Wragg, E. C. (1999). *An Introduction to Classroom Observation*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Wray, D., & Medwell, J. (2017). Pupils' perspectives on literacy teaching. *Education 3-13, 34*(3), 201–210. doi:10.1080/03004270600898661
- Xiang, P., McBride, R. E., & Bruene, A. (2006). Fourth-grade students' motivational changes in an elementary physical education running program. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, 77*(2), 195-207.

Yazan, B. (2015). Three approaches to case study methods in education: Yin, Merriam, and Stake. *The Qualitative Report*, 20(2), 134-152.

APPENDICES

Appendix A Institutional Review Board Approval

University of New Hampshire
Research Integrity Services, Service Building
51 College Road, Durham, NH 03824-3585
Fax: 603-862-3564

11-Dec-2017
Erickson, Joy
Education, Morrill Hall
275A Granite St
Rockport, MA 01966

IRB #: 6828

Study: Emic Views of Intervention: K-2 Students' Perceptions of a Tier 2 Supplemental Reading Program

Approval Date: 07-Dec-2017

The Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research (IRB) has reviewed and approved the protocol for your study as Exempt as described in Title 45, Code of Federal Regulations (CFR), Part 46, Subsection 101(b). Approval is granted to conduct your study as described in your protocol.

Researchers who conduct studies involving human subjects have responsibilities as outlined in the document, *Responsibilities of Directors of Research Studies Involving Human Subjects*. This document is available at <http://unh.edu/research/irb-application-resources>. Please read this document carefully before commencing your work involving human subjects.

Upon completion of your study, please complete the enclosed Exempt Study Final Report form and return it to this office along with a report of your findings.

If you have questions or concerns about your study or this approval, please feel free to contact me at 603-862-2003 or Julie.simpson@unh.edu. Please refer to the IRB # above in all correspondence related to this study. The IRB wishes you success with your research.

For the IRB,



Julie F. Simpson

Appendix B Parent Consent Packet



University of New Hampshire

INFORMED PARENTAL CONSENT LETTER

Date:

Dear Parent,

My name is Joy Dangora Erickson, and I am a doctoral candidate and instructor at the University of New Hampshire. I was formerly a reading specialist at the Mayflower School and am conducting my dissertation research there. **I aim to learn more about students' understandings of the reading support services offered at Mayflower.** Research suggests that students' perceptions of their reading experiences at school influence their developing desire to read; however, there is very little research directly investigating children's understandings of elementary school reading programs. This study explores K-2 students' understandings specific to their involvement in the reading support program. I am writing to invite your child to participate in this project. Ideally, I strive to involve 15 children along with the two Mayflower reading specialists.

If you grant permission for your child to participate, she/he will be asked to draw a picture of how she/he does reading in the classroom and in the reading support program. Your child will also be asked to answer several questions about what reading is like for him/her in the classroom and in the reading support program. These activities will be broken up into two short interview sessions (lasting between 10 and 25 minutes each). Interviews will be audio recorded so that I may analyze them afterwards. Additionally, 2-3 intervention sessions will be videotaped to better understand the reading support context. Every effort will be made to ensure your child's confidentiality; for example, participants' names will be replaced with pseudonyms.

Although compensation will not be provided for participation in this project, **past projects at Mayflower have found that students really enjoy participating and especially like playing the role of expert by sharing how they do reading at school.** Furthermore, the benefits of the knowledge gained from students' understandings serve to improve school programming and advance reading research. The principal and I truly appreciate you and your child's willingness to consider participating in this worthwhile project.

Additional Required Research Disclosures:

The potential risks of participation are anticipated to be minimal; it is possible that students may disclose unrelated personal information. However, such information is not the focus of this study and will not be included in the research data. You and/or your child may indicate a time preference for participating in the project. Interviews will ideally take place during snack, recess, lunch, or immediately before or after school to minimize lost instructional time. Participation is voluntary. If you refuse to allow your child to participate, neither you nor your child will experience any penalty or negative consequences. Your child may refuse to answer any question at any time. If you initially allow your child to participate and either you or your child wishes to end participation later, **you and/or your child may withdraw at any time.**

I will strive to maintain the confidentiality of all data and records associated with your child's participation in the project. I will keep data (audio files, video files and documents) on a password protected computer and backed-up on UNH BOX where it will be kept securely for future study. Identifiable data will be shared only with my dissertation chair (Dr. Ruth Wharton-McDonald). Study findings reported in scholarly presentations or publications will use pseudonyms to refer to participants. There are rare instances when I am required to share personally-identifiable information (e.g., according to policy, contract, regulation). For example, in response to a complaint about the research, officials at the University of New Hampshire and/or regulatory and oversight government agencies may access research data. Furthermore, I am required by law to report certain information to government and/or law enforcement officials (e.g., child abuse, threatened violence against self or others, communicable diseases).

If you have any questions about this research project or would like more information before, during, or after the study, you may contact Joy Dangora Erickson (jde2000@wildcats.unh.edu). If you have questions about your child's rights as a subject of research, you may contact Dr. Julie Simpson in UNH Research Integrity Services at 603-862-2003 or Julie.simpson@unh.edu to discuss them.

Please sign below indicating your choice and return this consent form along with the participant information form to your child's reading specialist. Please feel free to make a copy for your records. Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Joy Dangora Erickson

Ph.D. Candidate/Instructor

Yes, I, _____ consent/allow my child _____ to participate in this research project.

No, I, _____ do not consent/allow my child _____ to participate in this research project.

Signature of Parent

Date

Participant Information

Child's Name: _____

Child's Birthdate: _____

Child's Classroom Teacher: _____

How long has your child attended the Mayflower School?

Is your child currently on an IEP for language? Yes No

Does your child receive any other form of supplemental reading support in school or outside of school? If so, please explain.

Would you prefer that your child be interviewed immediately before or after school (instead of during the school day)?

Yes No

If you indicated yes, please provide an email and phone number so that you may be reached to schedule a date and time.

Parent email: _____

Parent phone: _____

Appendix C Engagement Questionnaire

General Directions: Please complete one form for each target child in your care. Please reflect on the child's general engagement in reading intervention citing specific examples to support your ratings.

Service Provider's Name:

Child's Name:

Date:

Child's Grade:

1. Briefly describe the reading intervention program this child receives.

2. How long has the child received this Tier 2 reading intervention support?

How is this student functioning in reading intervention compared to other students in intervention?

Please explain your reasoning, citing specific examples to support ratings when possible.

1= much less 2= somewhat less 3 = about the same 4 = somewhat more

- a. How engaged is this student overall in reading intervention?

1 2 3 4

- b. How hard does this student work in reading intervention?

1 2 3 4

- c. How well does this child work on her/his own in highly structured and unstructured intervention activities?

1 2 3 4

d. How actively does this child participate in reading intervention activities?
1 2 3 4

e. How well does this child pay attention during reading intervention?
1 2 3 4

f. How often does this child act inappropriately (e.g., does not follow rules, annoys others, calls attention to self)?
1 2 3 4

g. How enthusiastic is this child during reading intervention?
1 2 3 4

Appendix D Student Drawing Interview Protocol

1. Invite student to draw: “Would you mind drawing two pictures that show how you do reading at school and talking about them with me?”
2. Ask student if they would prefer to first draw how they do reading in the classroom or in the reading room (intervention setting).
3. In the preferred setting (or right outside of it if the space is occupied), provide student with materials to draw how he/she does reading there.
4. Invite student to talk about what he/she is drawing (Prompts might include: Who is that? What are you doing there? What is the teacher doing? etc.)
5. Provide student with a break and replicate the procedure in the second setting.

Appendix E Student Walking Tour Interview Protocol

Beforehand: Have student's art from previous interview on hand. Start in or right outside of student's regular classroom.

Evaluating each child's perspectives specific to the benefits and costs associated with reading intervention

1. "Let's pretend that your teacher said you could stay here and do reading in the classroom or go do reading with Mrs. _____ in the reading room. Which would you choose to do? Why?"

Based upon the choice the child makes, invite her or him to take you to that physical space and show you around. Soon thereafter, direct child's attention back to the associated drawing.

2. "How do you do reading in here?"
3. Do you think kids like doing reading in here? Why or why not?
4. "Can you tell me what you like about doing reading in here?"
5. "Is there anything you don't like about doing reading in here?"
6. "Is there anything we could do to make doing reading in here better?"

Invite student to take you to the other physical space and show you around. Afterwards direct student's attention to the drawing that corresponds to that space.

7. "How do you do reading in here?"
8. Do you think kids like doing reading in here? Why or why not?
9. "Is there anything you like about doing reading in here?"
10. "Is there anything you don't like about doing reading in here?"
11. "Is there anything we could do to make doing reading in here better?"
12. Is there anything else you want me to know about reading in the classroom or reading with Mrs. _____ (intervention teacher)?"

Appendix F Codebook Excerpt

Phase 1: Verify in vivo codes

Step 1: Please read through the interview one time without coding

Step 2: Read through the interview identifying any benefits/likes/advantages of the reading intervention and/or costs/dislikes/disadvantages the student perceives (for themselves or for others) that I might have missed

Step 3: Bring anything you think I have missed to my attention

Phase Two: Reduced Categorical Codes Applied to In Vivo Excerpts

Step 1: Review the categorical codes, definitions, and examples below

Step 2: Assign a categorical code (at times there may be more than one code applied) to each highlighted excerpt

Code	Definition	In Vivo Examples
HBOI	Hypothetical benefit of intervention: something the student thinks others might consider a benefit/advantage/like associated with intervention involvement	<i>S: They probably think it's not as loud.</i> <i>S: They probably like the same things as me.</i>
PBOI	Personal benefit of intervention: something the student sees as a benefit/advantage/like associated with her or his personal involvement in intervention	<i>S: Sometimes she lets us sit in the comfy chairs!</i> <i>R: Do you like that?</i> <i>S: Uh-huh.</i> <i>S: I like reading with other people [in the intervention room].</i> <i>R: What do you like about reading with Mrs. Casey?</i> <i>S: She sometimes helps us with words.</i>
HCOI	Hypothetical cost of intervention: something the student thinks others might consider a cost/drawback/disadvantage	<i>S: They might not like when Mrs. Casey stops them during their reading.</i>

	associated with intervention involvement	<i>S: They might not like having to leave their classroom.</i>
PCOI	Personal cost of intervention: something the student sees as a cost/disadvantage/drawback associated with her or his intervention involvement	<p><i>S: There's not much books [in the intervention room] I like.</i></p> <p><i>R: So what do you like better about your classroom?</i></p> <p><i>S: She doesn't stop us when we're reading.</i></p> <p><i>R: I see- so the intervention teacher stops you and you don't like that?</i></p> <p><i>S: Yeah.</i></p>

Appendix G Categorical and Theoretical Codes

Categorical Codes

Cost and Benefit Categorical Codes

Code	Definition	Examples
HBOI	Hypothetical benefit of intervention: something the student thinks others might consider a benefit/advantage/like associated with intervention involvement	<p><i>S: They probably think it's not as loud.</i></p> <p><i>S: They probably like the same things as me.</i></p>
PBOI	Personal benefit of intervention: something the student sees as a benefit/advantage/like associated with her or his personal involvement in intervention	<p><i>S: Sometimes she lets us sit in the comfy chairs!</i></p> <p><i>R: Do you like that?</i></p> <p><i>S: Uh-huh.</i></p> <p><i>S: I like reading with other people [in the intervention room.]</i></p> <p><i>R: What do you like about reading with Mrs. Casey?</i></p> <p><i>S: She sometimes helps us with words.</i></p>
HCOI	Hypothetical cost of intervention: something the student thinks others might consider a cost/drawback/disadvantage associated with intervention involvement	<p><i>S: They might not like when Mrs. Casey stops them during their reading.</i></p> <p><i>S: They might not like having to leave their classroom.</i></p>
PCOI	Personal cost of intervention: something the student sees as a cost/disadvantage/drawback associated with her or his intervention involvement	<p><i>S: There's not much books [in the intervention room] I like.</i></p> <p><i>R: So, what do you like better about your classroom?</i></p> <p><i>S: She doesn't stop us when we're reading.</i></p> <p><i>R: I see- so the intervention teacher stops you and you don't like that?</i></p> <p><i>S: Yeah.</i></p>

Behavioral Engagement Categorical Codes

Code	Definition	Examples
PBE	Evidence of Positive Behavioral Engagement: action suggesting the student is positively engaged (e.g., asks or answers questions, follows directions, completes task)	<p><i>Child raises hand to answer question.</i></p> <p><i>Child pays close attention to the teacher.</i></p> <p><i>Child moves lips while reading independently.</i></p> <p><i>Child stays late to complete writing task.</i></p>
NBE	Evidence of Negative Behavioral Engagement: action suggesting the student is not fully engaged (e.g., distracted, calls negative attention to self, doesn't follow directions, makes a negative remark or gesture, does not complete task)	<p><i>Child interrupts instruction to talk about self.</i></p> <p><i>Child rolls eyes when asked to tap out word.</i></p> <p><i>Child becomes distracted when others move about the room.</i></p> <p><i>Child requires frequent redirections.</i></p>

Intervention and Classroom Reading Program Categorical Codes

Code	Definition	Example
IR	Intervention Routine	<p><i>We do magnet boards.</i></p> <p><i>We usually do cards, and then we do trick words, and then we read books.</i></p> <p><i>We read.</i></p>
IS	Intervention Room Set-Up	<p><i>Everyone sits at this table.</i></p> <p><i>There's a lot of books.</i></p> <p><i>[We sit at] a table with four chairs.</i></p>

ITR	Intervention Teacher's Role	<p><i>[The reading specialist] gets new books for us.</i></p> <p><i>[The reading specialist] kinda tells us to read the books by ourselves.</i></p> <p><i>[The reading specialist] says look up there [at anchor chart] if you need help.</i></p> <p><i>[The reading specialist] helps us with words.</i></p>
CR	Classroom Routine	<p><i>Sometimes we read with a partner.</i></p> <p><i>[The teacher] reads to us on the rug.</i></p> <p><i>So, we have bookbags and then we read.</i></p>
CS	Classroom Set-Up	<p><i>We sit on the rug.</i></p> <p><i>The teacher sits in a special chair.</i></p> <p><i>Our bookbags are over here.</i></p> <p><i>We usually sit at these tables.</i></p> <p><i>There are like six desks at my reading table.</i></p>
CTR	Classroom Teacher's Role	<p><i>[The teacher] picks the books.</i></p> <p><i>[The teacher] reads a book to us.</i></p> <p><i>[The teacher] helps us with our reading.</i></p>

Theoretical Codes

E-V Theoretical Codes

Code	Definition	Examples
IV	Intrinsic/Interest Value: Evidence suggesting the intervention is interesting or enjoyable.	<i>I get to make it more fun in the room with my friends!</i> <i>I like reading.</i> <i>The games are really fun.</i>
UV	Utility Value (Usefulness): Evidence suggesting the intervention is helpful.	<i>It's quieter and the quiet helps me read.</i> <i>The teacher helps you more with your reading and I like that.</i>
AV	Attainment Value: Evidence suggesting the intervention confirms an aspect of the student's identity.	<i>Other people come and see my bookmark [full of stickers earned for reading] and I like that.</i>
EC	Effort Cost: Evidence suggesting the intervention is too difficult	<i>[I would prefer to read in my classroom because] this room is harder.</i>
OC	Opportunity Cost: Evidence suggesting the intervention keeps the student from doing other things she or he prefers	<i>[I would prefer to read in my classroom because] there are more books that I like.</i> <i>[I would prefer to read in my classroom because] it is quieter in there.</i>
EMC	Emotional Cost: Evidence suggesting the intervention causes emotional distress (e.g., anxiety or frustration)	<i>[Foundations magnetic board tiles] are distracting and I don't like using them.</i> <i>I haven't found one yet, but I'm probably gonna find [a book] I don't like and have to read it.</i>

SDT Theoretical Codes

Code	Definition	Examples
AS	Autonomy Supportive: Evidence suggesting that the intervention supports the student's autonomy	<i>I like that I get to pick my books.</i> <i>I like reading!</i> <i>I like that I can read the books in any order.</i>
CS	Competence Supportive: Evidence suggesting the intervention supported the student's need to feel competent	<i>It's quieter and the quiet helps me read.</i> <i>I like getting help from the teacher.</i>
RS	Relatedness Supportive: Evidence suggesting the intervention supported the student's need to relate to others.	<i>I like reading with my friends.</i> <i>I like making new friends [in intervention].</i>
ANS	Autonomy Non-Supportive: Evidence suggesting that the student's need for autonomy is not adequately supported in the intervention.	<i>There really isn't too many decisions for me to make here.</i> <i>[I would prefer to read in the classroom] because my teacher doesn't interrupt us when we're reading to do spelling.</i>
CNS	Competence Non-Supportive: Evidence suggesting that the student's need for competence is not adequately supported in the intervention.	<i>I wish [reading specialist] would just [tell] me the sound.</i> <i>[I would prefer to read in my classroom because] this room is harder.</i>
RNS	Relatedness Non-Supportive: Evidence suggesting that the student's need to relate to others is not adequately supported in the intervention.	N/A

	<p>Lori suggests she says the <i>Foundations</i> LKS drill for the rest of the cards and the group echoes</p>	<p>8:54:46</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Says “Z, zog” when it is his next turn. Lori says, “zebra or zoo?” H laughs at zog and Lori remarks that Daniel was saying the correct sound - Quietly mouths “zog” again as others take their turn - Yawns and stares at camera - Easily says “O, octopus, /o/” when it is his turn again - Wiggles and makes silly sound as others take turns - Struggles with r—says “R” and Lori helps with “rat, /r/” - Does the LKS drill for R again with the group per Lori’s prompting - Does “T, top, /t/” with the group
		<p>8:55:11</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Watches Lori most of the time and echoes remaining letters with the group - Yawns - Does hand gesture like Lori for “E, Ed, /e/”
	<p>Lori brings out the <i>Foundations</i> white boards and gives directions</p>	<p>8:55:26</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Does not raise hand when Lori asks, “Who knows G?” but mumbles the drill “G, game, /g/” - Says something about a game (inaudible) and smiles - Continues to chat and laugh with I as Lori listens to H’s question - Does not answer with group when Lori asks if they will be drawing pictures on their boards - Yawns - Does not answer when Lori asks group if they would prefer to use the big side or small side of board - Does not answer when Lori asks if they need to use their finger to erase

		8:56:57	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Erases board and sings a tune quietly to himself - Does not look at Lori as she gives directions even after she says “eyes on me” twice - Uncaps marker - Looks at C as she answers first and points to M when Lori asks which letter makes the /m/ sound - Yawns - Watches as Lori models how to make an M - Raises hand - Says “worm line” when Lori asks, “Where did I go?” - Starts to ask a question about going to the worm line but does not finish as Lori asks, “Is it ok to make mistakes?”
		8:57:33	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Says “yeah” and then “no” when Lori asks if they need to get frustrated - Makes a mark on board and erases it with his finger - Does not answer when Lori asks what letter they are making but does say /m/ when she asks for the sound - Makes a large M on board, looks to Lori and smiles. Lori asks, “Do you like your M?” Daniel shakes his head no and Lori tells him to erase and try again
		8:58:08	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Erases board and tries again - Answers “plane line” when Lori asks where to start for a capital M - Glances at B’s board before making capital M - Announces “I made a capital” - Shakes head yes when Lori asks if it is right - Clears board as directed

		<p>9:02:35</p> <p>9:04:01</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lori asks Daniel what letters are on his board. He does not answer and she announces that they will all tap it out together - Daniel puts his elbow up to tap - Daniel taps “fog” with the group - Smiles when Lori asks him to do it again with her - Makes silly face after tapping - Erases F as directed - Says “yes” when Lori asks if everyone agrees that it says “og” right now - Watches as C taps “og” - Explains to Lori that if you put the g in front it says go to which she replies, “Ok but I don’t want to confuse my brain. I like that you noticed that those are letters that make go” - Daniel nods - Does not answer when Lori asks group which letter says /b/ - Draws a B as directed - Answers “plane line” when Lori asks, “Where does B start? It starts at the sky line and comes down to the...” - Smiles - Fixes letters as others begin to tap and solve - Points to O when Lori asks which one is the vowel? - Shakes head yes when Lori asks if it would be ok to change the vowel - Erases O - Does not answer when Lori asks which vowel says /i/ - Smiles and fixes letters as others solve
--	--	-------------------------------	--

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lori asks Daniel to check and says, “How can I check it?” to which he makes a confused face and she tells him to tap the word - He taps “big” with her - Watches B as she taps - Yawns - Erases letter B as directed - Says “F” when Lori asks him which letter she is holding up - Puts F at the beginning as directed - Zones out as others solve - Taps when Lori tells him to check - Caps pen as directed but does not clear board as directed - Clears board when Lori tells him to do it again - Puts board in the middle of the table as directed - Daniel says, “You never said markers!” and smiles handing Lori the marker - Makes silly sound and touches alphabet strip- Lori takes strip away - Says “No” when Lori asks the group if they liked writing on paper - Yawns and plays with hands as C talks to Lori - Plays with arm
<p>Books 9:02:55</p>	<p>Lori introduces new LLI book</p>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Daniel says “I’ve read that before” - Smiles - Echoes “mom” after others answer Lori when she asks what M-O-M spells - Looks at cover and title carefully as Lori previews new words - Repeats the word Kayla as directed

		9:05:00	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Raises hand excitedly to answer Lori’s question regarding what they think Kayla’s mother does - Says “fire fighter” - Puffs out cheeks as Lori announces they are going to peek into the book - Watches carefully - Nods head when Lori asks if they noticed the hat in the picture - Nods head in agreement when Lori asks, “We’re not gonna be tricked right?” - Says “No” when Lori asks if good readers guess - Plays with ear as others offer answers to Lori’s question, “What do good readers do?” - Mouths title upon being given book - Puts finger under first word on first page as Lori demonstrates - Does not tap the word “has” with the rest of the group - Tracks but then appears lost. Lori immediately points to the word the group is on
		9:07:05	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reads next page on own without tracking with finger - Turns page and tracks with finger independently
		9:07:17	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Continues to read and track on next page - Comments to Lori (mainly inaudible) something about this being a tricky book - Continues to work through the book - Lori rereads a page with him and takes out alphabet strip to help him find letters with keywords - Continues to track and read

	<p>Lori stops group and asks them to look at page 16</p> <p>She points to the second word in the first sentence in Daniel's book and asks group if they remember the word (she makes glasses with her fingers)</p> <p>Lori puts out books to choose from</p>	<p>9:08:20</p> <p>9:09:00</p> <p>9:10:00</p> <p>9:10:30</p> <p>9:02:23</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Looks to Lori and smiles when he is stuck on a word - Lori helps him tap the word - Looks to Lori for help again but she is helping someone else, so he tries to tap on own and solves it to which Lori says, "Yup" - Continues to track and read - Daniel looks at others as they offer answers and continues to look and listen as Lori tells them the next word is "look" - Does not offer an answer when Lori asks why Kayla and her mom look alike - Plays with eyes as group discusses - Shrugs when Lori asks Daniel if he ever pretends to be an adult - Appears to zone out as the group continues to talk about pretending - Says "Pick. Pick. Pick," when Lori announces it is time to pick a book - Quickly grabs a monkey book and smiles - Pages through book smiling - Stands with book and waits for Lori to direct him to his reading place - Says "Wait, Izzy sat in the chair last time" to which Lori explains that the initials on the board indicate whose turn it is to sit in the special chairs - Looks to Lori as he opens up to the beginning of the book - Reads book tracking with finger - Lori says "I'm gonna be picky- you need to have your
--	--	--	---

		<p>9:03:48</p> <p>9:04:10</p>	<p>finger under the right word that you're saying. You're doing a great job otherwise"- to which Daniel nods</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Gets stuck on a word and tries to tap - Appears to get it and moves on - Gets up from table and approaches Lori to tell her he is finished "I'm all done" - She asks him what the last word is and he gets it. She then asks him what he is going to read next to which he shrugs and says "I don't know" - Puts book back and chooses <i>Boots and Shoes</i> - Smiles and reads title page without tracking - Begins tracking on next page - Uses pictures to confirm guesses - Gets stuck on a trick word and Lori steps in to help - Lori prompts and rereads with Daniel and he gets the word - Lori reminds him the other word has to be shoe because it starts with/sh/ - Daniel continues to read independently tracking and using the pictures - Daniel asks me for help with a word - He gets the word with my prompting - Daniel returns to the table and continues to work through the book, but Lori quickly offers support, pacing his reading with her finger - Continues to use the picture to help
--	--	-------------------------------	--

		9:17:15	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tracks and continues to read as Lori helps another student - Lori returns her attention to Daniel who asks her to confirm a word. Lori tells him to check it. He doesn't tap at first. She taps it for him and then he taps it - Daniel continues to read to Lori who reminds him tapping is a way to check - Looks to Lori for help with /d/ - Continues to read with Lori, relying on the pictures instead of the tapping strategy when stuck - Tracks independently and then again looks to Lori for help as others finish and line up - Lori tells him to tap it out - He tries but it is unclear whether he solved the word - Lori gives him the word "my" and says Daniel can try the book again next time - Daniel remarks, "It was a really hard book" to which Lori replies "But who was reading it?" And Daniel says, "Me" with a smile. He goes on to say, "And I read that one again (pointing to monkey book). Lori says, "I know. So, you read a really hard book today!" - Lori remarks to the group, "As Daniel just noticed, some of our books are getting harder. Is that ok?" Daniel says, "Yeah" with the group.
--	--	---------	--