Georgia Journal of
READING

2018 – 2019 OFFICERS

The current Georgia Reading Association Executive Committee members are listed on the left side of the chart. The Georgia Reading Association will soon dissolve. The name will change to the Georgia Association of Literacy Advocates (GALA) functioning under the International Literacy Association (ILA). The future GALA Board of Directors are as stated.

GEORGIA ASSOCIATION OF LITERACY ADVOCATES (GALA)

The *Georgia Journal of Reading*, a publication of the Georgia Association of Literacy Advocates is published twice a year and is sponsored in part by Georgia Southern University. membership in the GALA is open to all persons interested in the improvement of reading in Georgia. dues for one calendar year of membership are $20 ($10 for students and retirees) and include subscriptions to the *Georgia Journal of Reading* and to *Focus*, the newsletter of the Georgia Council. Membership inquiries should be directed to Beth Pendergraft at beth@augusta.edu. Visit the new GALA website that is coming soon to obtain more information.

Georgia Journal of READING

Message From the Chair

BY Davetta Grigsby

Greetings GALA members and literacy friends.

My year as president of the Georgia Association of Literacy Advocates is drawing to a close. It has been an absolute honor to have served as the chair this year.

We have had an eventful year. The Board has been hard at work in completing the transition to ILA Affiliate. Our Board of Directors has expanded to include a Director of Marketing and Public Relations as well as a Georgia Department of Education Liaison. I am pleased to report that all tasks have been completed and we are excited and ready to move forward.

Thanks to our Vice-Chair Dale Ioannides, our website has been redesigned and updated. We offer our deepest appreciation to Dr. Lina Soares, as we recognize her work as the editor of the Georgia Journal of Reading. We also thank the editorial team for their commitment to this huge undertaking. The journal is beautifully written and is available to read and enjoy on the website.

This March, we had the opportunity to present at the Kennesaw State University Conference on Literature for Children and Young Adults. We featured local author and illustrator, Stephanie Chadwick. The presentation was a rewarding and informative experience for all participants. Our annual Reader of the Year Awards Ceremony lead by Julie Walker, was a great success. Winners were also recognized at the GADOE Award of Excellence Luncheon.

Plans are underway for our Summer Leadership sessions. We invite you to join us at Augusta University, July 18-20, 2019. Visit our website for more information.

Finally, I would like to encourage all who are members to continue the journey of literacy advocacy with us. Invite other friends and colleagues to join us as well. I am proud to be a part of this organization and I look forward to the continued growth of GALA in years to come. Thank you for the opportunity to serve.

With appreciation and warmest regards,

Davetta Grigsby
GALA, Chair 2018-2019

Message From the Editor

BY LINA B. SOARES, PH.D.

Welcome readers to the summer edition of the *Georgia Journal of Reading*. You may have settled into all your summer activities and turned away from all things classroom-related, but I think you will find this edition refreshing for hot summer days. It is my pleasure to offer you three very different but excellent pieces of research that all correspond to the promotion of literacy – our guiding principle.

As always, I want to send a thank you to the authors whose contributions to the field of literacy provide the literacy research and tools essential for knowledge construction. I also want to send a Big Shout Out to members of the editorial board who make the journal happen with their expert reviews, and I want to express my deepest appreciation to the Board for all their support through the years as Editor of the journal. I have notified the Board that this edition will be my last. Finally, I would be remiss if I did not thank Kathy Clements whose amazing talents in graphic art has enhanced the journal with wonderful illustrations to provide the visual appeal. With that said, I invite you to open the journal with your favorite bubbly beverage and enjoy!

With a focus on teacher education, Rebekah Piper, Laurie Sharp, and Roberta Raymond provide a wonderful piece of research that examined the preparation practices of literacy teacher educators. "Diversity in Literacy Education: How Are Literacy Teacher Educators Preparing Teacher Candidates?" makes the case that future literacy teachers must be skilled to implement culturally relevant/responsive teaching practices for today's diverse classrooms.

"Exploring the Reading Motivation of Less-Motivated Adolescent Latinx English Learners" by Robert Griffin is a comprehensive research study that examined reading motivation among high school English learners. The research highlights the economic and social struggles that Latinx English learners experience and offers recommendations for all stakeholders who work to promote stronger reading engagement for these students.

Morgan Mitchell, Sybil Keesbury, and Vicki Luther offer an interesting research study with attention on early literacy development. "Ready, Set, Grow: Exploring the Readiness and Preparation of Kindergarten Students within a Title 1 School" is a report of the findings of Pre-K students' readiness skills in one high-poverty elementary school over the course of a full academic year. The findings yield a greater understanding of young students' early literacy needs.

Diversity in Literacy Education:

How Are Literacy Teacher Educators Preparing Teacher Candidates?

BY Rebekah E. Piper, Laurie A. Sharp and Roberta D. Raymond

Abstract

K-12 classrooms are becoming increasingly more diverse. In order to address the literacy learning needs among all students more effectively, literacy teachers must be sufficiently prepared to address diversity in literacy education. This study explored current preparation practices among literacy teacher educators in one state located in the Southern United States and used sociocultural theories as a lens to better understand reported practice. Qualitative data were collected from 57 responses provided to an open-ended question included on an electronically disseminated survey. Data were analyzed with coding and constant comparison techniques, which resulted in three major themes: coursework, authentic contexts, and resource materials. Findings emphasized a strong need for literacy teacher educators to examine and evaluate their current preparation practices and identify ways to strengthen them to address multicultural education, critical pedagogy, and critical literacy more explicitly. Limitations for this study were addressed, along with recommendations for future studies.

Introduction

Researchers have examined the extent to which teacher preparation programs prepare teacher candidates with the necessary skills to teach literacy (Binks-Cantrell, Washburn, Joshi, & Hougen, 2012; Clark, Jones, Reutzel, & Andreasen, 2013; Hoffman et al., 2005; Moats, 1994; Salinger et al., 2010; Washburn, Joshi, & Binks-Cantrell, 2011). In order to teach literacy in the pre-K-12th grade levels effectively, classroom teachers must have experienced high-quality literacy teacher preparation (Hollins, 2017). To address this notion, the International Literacy Association

(ILA) established criteria in the form of professional standards that delineate the dispositions, knowledge, and skills required among literacy practitioners (ILA, 2017b; International Reading Association [IRA], 2010). These professional standards address the multiple facets of literacy and provide teacher preparation programs with an evidence-based guide for high-quality literacy teacher preparation.

A specific area that has been at the forefront of ILA's mission is ensuring that classroom teachers are prepared to implement literacy practices that are "culturally sustaining and academically rigorous" (ILA, 2017a, p. 2). To that end, ILA has also emphasized the value of diversity within its professional standards (see Table 1). Attending to diversity in literacy education during teacher preparation is of utmost importance because classroom teachers must know how to select and use a variety of instructional tools and strategies to teach increasingly diverse student populations well (Algozzine, O'Shea, & Obiakor, 2009; Bennett, Alberton Gunn, Gayle-Evans, Barrera, & Leung, 2018; Collins, 2006; Nichols, Rupley, Webb-Johnson, Tlusty, 2000).

Table 1

Standard 4: Diversity

Standards for Reading Professionals— Revised 2010 (IRA, 2010)	*Standards for the Preparation of Literacy Professionals 2017 (ILA, 2017)*
Candidates create and engage their students in literacy practices that develop awareness, understanding, respect, and a value of differences in our society.	Candidates demonstrate knowledge of research, relevant theories, pedagogies, essential concepts of diversity and equity; demonstrate and provide opportunities for understanding all forms of diversity as central to students' identities; create classrooms and schools that are inclusive and affirming; advocate for equity at school, district, and community levels.

During the past ten years, research findings have shown that the nation's teaching force fails to reflect the cultural diversity represented among students (Ingersoll & May, 2011; Ingersoll & Merrill, 2017; Ingersoll, Merrill, & Stuckey, 2014; King, McIntosh, & Bell-Ellwanger, 2016). Considering that the majority of classroom teachers and teacher candidates are White, middle-class, female monolingual English speakers who have had few substantive experiences with culturally diverse students, it is evident that many future and practicing classroom teachers do not share the same cultural backgrounds, experiences, and values of their students (Kahn, Lindstrom, & Murray, 2014; Ladson-Billings, 1995b; Wood, 2009; Zeichner & Hoeft, 1996). Moreover, as novice teachers enter the classroom, they are too often provided with scripted, standardized, and uniform curricula that promote "sameness," rather than "equity" (Timberlake, Burns Thomas, & Barrett, 2017, p. 50). Thus, classroom teachers are not afforded opportunities to develop an appreciation for cultural differences represented in their classrooms or learn how to affirm these differences through pedagogical practices. This phenomenon is quite alarming as "culture strongly influences the attitudes, values, and behaviors that students and teachers bring to the instructional process" (Gay, 2002, p. 114). Along with cultural differences between teachers and students, research has also illustrated long-standing literacy achievement gaps between students by ethnicity, gender, race, and socioeconomic status (Potter & Morris, 2017; Reardon & Galindo, 2009; Reardon, Valentino, & Shores, 2012).

Howard (2003) acknowledged that teacher educators must consider ways to prepare teacher candidates more meaningfully to meet the needs of all students in their classrooms. Howard asserted that teacher candidates "must critically analyze important issues such as race, ethnicity, and culture, and recognize how these important concepts shape the learning experience for many students" (p. 195). With this in mind, the purpose of this study was to explore current preparation practices that literacy teacher educators use to address diversity in literacy education with teacher candidates.

Review of the Literature
ILA identified professional standards to address the knowledge and skills necessary for literacy

education (ILA, 2017b; IRA, 2010). At the time of this study, ILA's standards included the following six areas: (1) Foundational Knowledge, (2) Curriculum and Instruction, (3) Assessment and Evaluation, (4) Diversity, (5) Literate Environment, and (6) Professional Learning and Leadership (IRA, 2010). Literacy is the foundation for all learning, and ILA's standards identified specialized knowledge for administrators, classroom teachers (i.e., pre-kindergarten through elementary teachers, middle and high school content teachers, middle and high school reading teachers), education support personnel, specialized literacy professionals, and teacher educators.

The focus of this study was the extent to which literacy teacher educators prepare teacher candidates as culturally responsive classroom teachers who skillfully address diversity in literacy education within the context of today's classrooms. As classrooms become increasingly more diverse, classroom teachers are faced with meeting a wide range of student learning needs (Nichols et al., 2000). Thus, teacher preparation programs must offer carefully structured and well-designed learning experiences that prepare teacher candidates to teach culturally diverse students effectively (Kim, Turner, & Mason, 2015). The following review of literature provided an overview of key concepts that underpin diversity in literacy education and described challenges and recommendations for related teacher preparation practices.

Multicultural Education

In the early 2000's, the United States entered an era characterized by the largest influx of immigrants and a rising number of U.S.-born ethnic minorities (Banks, 2001; McFarland et al., 2017). Estimates have suggested that by the year 2050, African American, Asian American, and Latinx students will comprise nearly 57% of all students in K-12 classrooms (Day, 1996). With such cultural diversity represented, it is imperative that teacher candidates are well-prepared to teach students whose cultural backgrounds will, more often than not, be unlike their own (Clayton, 2011; Hughes, Gleason, & Zhang, 2005; McKown & Weinstein, 2008). Therefore, teacher preparation programs must provide learning experiences that address multicultural education and prepare teacher candidates to work with culturally diverse students (Gay & Howard, 2000; Nieto, 2010; Nieto & Bode,

2012; Sleeter, 2001).

Multicultural education ensures educational equity among all students, regardless of race, ethnicity, or socioeconomic status (Banks, 1995). Multicultural education is concerned with social justice and aims to mitigate educational inequities by valuing and affirming diversity (Nieto, 2010). According to Banks (1995), multicultural education relates to the pedagogical strategies and techniques that classroom teachers use to (a) illustrate content-based understandings through representations of diverse culture groups; (b) help students recognize the knowledge-creation process and how it is influenced by race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status; (c) promote democratic attitudes and values towards race; (d) facilitate academic success among all students; and (e) restructure school systems to address diversity effectively.

Critical Pedagogy

Critical pedagogy is rooted in critical theory and refers to systems of actions and beliefs that are focused on social justice (Burbules & Berk, 1999). Critical pedagogy challenges inequitable, oppressive, and unjust practices and strives to transform them. According to Freire (1973), critical pedagogy requires the development of critical cultural consciousness, a process in which an individual uses critical thinking skills to examine their situation; develop deep understandings about the inequitable, oppressive, and unjust practices associated with their situation; and design, implement, and evaluate solutions to transmute social injustices. Despite the fact that classrooms are becoming more diverse, school curriculum materials are still heavily ensconced in European and European American cultural norms, experiences, and contributions (Nieto & Bode, 2012). Similarly, Nash (2018) and Pezzetti (2017) have recently brought to light a juxtaposition of explicit and implicit discourses about culturally diverse students among teacher candidates who are predominantly White, middle-class, female monolingual English speakers. Although teacher candidates from the Millennial and Post-Millennial generations have adopted discourses that "eschew racism and value diversity" (Pezzetti, 2017, p. 132), they continue to exhibit "problematic, persistent binary and deficit discourse" that hinders the adoption of critically-oriented pedagogies (Nash, 2018 p. 160).

For example, Nash (2018) emphasized the need for teacher educators to move teacher candidates beyond colorblind discourse (e.g., "I see students, not color") and develop discourse practices to candidly talk about cultural differences with students.

In literacy education, critical literacy aligns with critical pedagogy and engages students who are marginalized in social action (Shor, 1999) to face, question, and challenge the status quo (Lee, 2011; Stevens & Bean, 2007). Freire and Macedo (1987) argued that teachers must transcend the teaching of basic literacy skills and focus instead on developing the knowledge and skills that promote students' ability to critically examine historical and social concepts associated with ethnicity, gender, race, and socioeconomic class. Additionally, Lee (2016) clarified that critical literacy practices should be accessible to all students, invite students to critically analyze the social construction of power relationships, and empower students to be agents of social change.

Teacher Preparation Practices

According to Gay and Kirkland (2003), teacher educators encounter a number of obstacles that interfere with their preparation efforts related to diversity in literacy education. For example, teacher candidates often possess poor understandings about self-reflection and lack knowledge of how critical reflection has the potential to influence praxis. Additionally, teacher candidates have limited opportunities to engage with guided practice in self-reflection during enrollment in their teacher preparation programs. Moreover, teacher candidates tend to possess erroneous notions that teaching is "the mastery of technical components that are applicable to all teaching contexts and student populations," rather than "a personal performance, a moral endeavor, and a cultural script" (p. 182). Gay and Kirkland also acknowledged that some teacher candidates intentionally avoid developing cultural critical consciousness and self-reflection skills by averting, avoiding, or abating the value of diversity-related topics.

Alismail (2016) asserted that teacher preparation programs must provide sufficient training that prepares teacher candidates to be "critical multiculturalists" who recognize "education as a way of addressing social inequalities shaped by differences in race, ethnicity, and social class" (p. 144). Teacher preparation programs must employ transformative preparation practices that push teacher candidates to go beyond merely articulating what they learned about cultural diversity (Taylor, Kumi-Yeboah, & Ringlaben, 2016) and hold teacher candidates accountable for enacting what they learned as culturally responsive teachers (Nash, 2018). Similarly, Bartolomé (2004) contended that visiting, observing, and engaging with field experiences in diverse school settings in and of itself fails to provide teacher candidates with the "political and ideological clarity" needed to "instruct, protect, and advocate for their students" (p. 119). Instead, teacher candidates must be afforded frequent opportunities to examine, reflect, and engage in critical discourse regarding the relationship between ideology and power in educational practices, as well as with their own perceptual lenses (Bartolomé, 2004; Milner, 2003).

Theoretical Framework

This study draws on the concept of culturally relevant/responsive teaching as a theoretical lens to explore current teacher preparation practices that literacy teacher educators use to address diversity in literacy education with teacher candidates (Gay, 2000, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1995a, 1995b, 2009). Gay (2000) defined culturally relevant/responsive teaching as "using the cultural knowledge, prior experiences, frames of reference, and performance styles of ethnically diverse students to make learning encounters more relevant to and effective for them" (p. 29). Teachers who use culturally relevant/responsive teaching practices consider the strengths of culturally diverse students and design instruction according to these strengths. By affirming and validating the cultural heritage of students (Gay, 2000, 2010), teachers make learning more accessible to all students (Ladson-Billings, 2009).

According to Gay (2000, 2010), culturally relevant/ responsive teaching is a pedagogy that: (1) recognizes the legitimacy of cultural heritage and how culture affects learning; (2) establishes meaningful connections between home and school experiences; (3) draws from a repertoire of instructional strategies that address different learning styles; (4) instills the importance of knowing and respecting the cultural heritage of self and others; and (5) integrates

multicultural information, material, and resources seamlessly throughout the curriculum. Implementing a culturally relevant/responsive pedagogy is of great benefit for culturally diverse students and enhances their academic performance, cultural competence, interpersonal relationships, self-worth, and social consciousness (Gay, 2000, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1995a, 1995b).

For the past 50 years, researchers have emphasized the importance of teacher preparation programs ensuring that teacher candidates are sufficiently prepared to meet the needs of culturally diverse students (Gay & Howard, 2000; Nieto, 2000; Nieto & Bode, 2012; Sleeter, 2001). A common way teacher preparation programs have addressed this need is by integrating multicultural education components throughout their preparation program, such as in literacy coursework and field experiences (Dooley, 2008; Iwai, 2013; Kim et al., 2015). However, Ladson-Billings (1995b) cautioned against using "add on versions" of multicultural education components because they "exoticize diverse students as 'other'" (p. 483). These understandings about culturally relevant/responsive teaching and teacher preparation provided us with a way to better understand current preparation practices that literacy teacher educators use to address diversity in literacy education with teacher candidates.

Methodology
Context
This study was part of a larger cross-sectional study that we conducted in one state located in the Southern United States. The goal of our larger study was twofold: (1) to elicit ratings for how literacy teacher educators viewed teacher candidates' preparedness with ILA's professional standards for classroom teachers (IRA, 2010); and (2) to identify ways in which literacy teacher educators cultivated teacher candidates' understandings with each of these professional standards. We designed an electronic survey instrument in Google Forms and conducted a pilot test among a group of 20 teacher educators in disciplines other than literacy to gain feedback and ensure appropriate functionality. After pilot testing concluded, we made a few minor edits with wording and disseminated the finalized survey instrument by email. We kept the survey period open for five months and sent monthly email reminders to

encourage participation.

Participants
In order to develop a participant pool of potential survey respondents, we created a database of literacy teacher educators by accessing publically-available information on the Internet. First, we accessed the state education agency's website to obtain a listing of all state-approved, university-based teacher preparation programs. Next, we consulted each university's website and searched for the names and email addresses of faculty members who teach literacy courses affiliated with the university's teacher preparation program. Our efforts resulted in a participant pool of 457 individuals from 67 teacher preparation programs.

Data Collection and Analysis
When the survey period closed, we had collected 65 completed surveys. To achieve the purpose for this study, we retrieved relevant survey data that described preparation practices respondents used to address diversity in literacy education with teacher candidates. We held an initial meeting to review concepts related to culturally relevant/responsive teaching and establish a systematic way to manage the coding process (Fernald & Duclos, 2005). After the initial meeting, we uploaded data in Dedoose, a qualitative web application, and analyzed data collaboratively using two levels of coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). In the first level, open coding was used to identify initial categories that appeared in the data. In the second level, axial coding was used to identify connections between categories. Throughout both levels of coding, we constantly compared data to refine categories (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) and kept analytic memos to record reflections, thoughts, and understandings (Saldaña, 2016). During the coding process, we held regular meetings to debrief and discuss coding schemes until intercoder agreement was reached (Fernald & Duclos, 2005).

Findings
Among the 65 completed surveys received, 57 respondents described preparation practices they use to address diversity in literacy education with teacher candidates. Respondents included 52 females and five males who teach literacy coursework in university-based teacher preparation programs affiliated with private (n = 21) and public (n = 36) higher education

institutions. A total of 2,436 words were retrieved and analyzed, which generated three major themes: coursework, authentic contexts, and resource materials. A description of each theme, along with excerpts, is provided below.

Coursework

Respondents acknowledged the importance of addressing different types of diversity, such as class, gender, ethnicity, and race, through literacy coursework because many teacher candidates have limited understandings of diversity. One respondent explained that they begin every course with "a discussion about what makes up diversity." This respondent further explained that the university's close proximity to the United States-Mexico border often creates narrow understandings of diversity, as "many individuals merely think of language or ethnicity." Broadening preconceptions about diversity among teacher candidates helped respondents support preparation program frameworks for "diversity, equity, anti-racist pedagogy, social justice work, and critical literacy." One respondent asserted that their goal was for teacher candidates to understand that "culturally relevant teaching, social justice, and democratic classrooms" were not singular concepts for addressing diversity in literacy education, but instead were "a personal stance on how we walk through life."

In addition to class discussions, respondents identified other coursework components that they use to address diversity in literacy education. These components included "critical literacy discussions," "readings," "examinations," "presentations," "reflections," "lectures," and assignments geared towards "how to validate and honor diversity in the classroom." Respondents also disclosed that they use modeling to demonstrate instructional practices and create awareness among teacher candidates concerning cultural diversity. One respondent shared:

I am from a minority, specifically, Asian culture. I model for my [teacher candidates] the value of respect for diverse cultures in the way treat each person with dignity and respect. If appropriate, I also share my own culture with them, and they know they are free to do the same in my class.

Authentic Contexts

Beyond the university classroom, respondents reported that teacher candidates gained much experience with diversity in literacy education through learning experiences held in authentic prekindergarten—12th grade school settings. Respondents emphasized the significance and value of field experiences and classroom observations, as one respondent contended that teacher candidates "need to experience diversity before they can address it." Respondents reported that teacher candidates spent several hours "in schools with high populations of linguistic, societal, and cultural diversity." For instance, one respondent described how their teacher preparation program ensured all teacher candidates experienced diversity in literacy education as a result of strategic field placements in schools with diverse student populations:

During their junior year, all [teacher candidates] have a field placement in a bilingual or ESL [English as a Second Language] classroom and work directly with those learners in various instructional settings. They are also placed in primarily urban low-SES [socioeconomic status] educational settings for their field placements.

Although 20 respondents indicated that teacher candidates completed field experiences and classroom observations in diverse school settings, they did not provide further information concerning the nature of required field experiences or classroom observations, such as corresponding assignments.

Some respondents raised specific concerns about how field experiences and classroom observations prepare teacher candidates for diversity in education. For example, one respondent confided:

I'm not sure our [teacher] candidates are prepared for success with student populations unlike our own local school populations. There's a sense that our institutional task is to only prepare future teachers for our community, rather than for the schools and students of the state or nation.

Another respondent acknowledged that while teacher candidates completed field experiences and classroom observations "in very diverse schools," they were concerned that "literacy teacher educators continue to do as much as we can specifically linking equity and diversity issues to reading instruction."

Resource Materials

Respondents referenced several resource materials that they use to address diversity in literacy education with teacher candidates. These resource materials included research reports, "classroom scenarios," "videos of exemplary precision [teaching]," "flip books, "and "word walls." Yet, respondents overwhelmingly identified children's literature as the primary resource material they used to prepare teacher candidates for diversity in literacy education. Respondents explained that they use high-quality trade books in stand-alone children's literature courses and "integrate literature throughout the curriculum, not just on special days."

Respondents also described three specific ways in which they use literature with teacher candidates to promote understandings related to diversity in literacy education. First, respondents shared that they use "a variety of good solid literature" to demonstrate and model how to reinforce literacy practices that respect and value cultural differences represented among students. Respondents also explained that they may use specific texts to create awareness about diversity-related topics, such as disability, ethnicity, race, and socioeconomic class. Lastly, respondents affirmed that they design course assignments requiring teacher candidates to "select, read, and respond to a diverse collection of children's literature." One respondent provided a broad overview of such an assignment:

In my course, [teacher candidates] complete a classroom library organization project where they categorize books and identify gaps, such as the limited number of books that may address diversity. They also brainstorm ideas for how to increase culturally and linguistically diverse materials in their own classroom libraries.

Discussion

As classrooms become increasingly more diverse, it is imperative that classroom teachers know how to implement "culturally sustaining and academically rigorous" literacy practices (ILA, 2017a, p. 2). Literacy teacher educators have the privilege and responsibility to provide teacher candidates with the training needed to address diversity in literacy education in their future classrooms effectively. With this in mind, this study sought to explore current preparation practices for diversity in literacy education among a group of experienced literacy teacher educators who were affiliated with university-based teacher preparation programs. We used the concepts of culturally relevant/responsive teaching and teacher preparation as theoretical lenses to better understand reported practices (Gay, 2000, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1995a, 1995b, 2009).

Our findings revealed that literacy teacher educators primarily address diversity in literacy education through coursework, authentic contexts, and resource materials. It was evident that participants in this study valued cultural diversity themselves and sought to engender awareness about diversity among teacher candidates enrolled in their respective teacher preparation programs. Similarly, these participants reported using a variety of preparation practices to instill, within teacher candidates, ways that they may value cultural differences represented among students in their future classrooms. Although participants expressed great confidence with preparation practices they implemented within the university classroom, they seemed less confident with preparation practices that occurred in genuine school settings. In addition, the extent to which participants explicitly aligned their preparation practices with concepts associated with culturally relevant/responsive teaching was not at all clear. Likewise, it was unclear as to whether reported preparation practices were part of a well-designed and well-implemented teacher preparation program or were mere add-on components.

Our findings echo previous concerns that researchers have expressed regarding teacher educators and their role in preparing teacher candidates to work with culturally diverse students. Like teacher candidates, many teacher educators are White, monolingual English speakers who "are limited in cross-cultural experiences and understandings" (Melnick & Zeichner, 1998, p. 89). As a result, teacher educators may feel uncomfortable, unprepared, and unskilled to address topics related to diversity and implement preparation practices that prime teacher candidates to be culturally relevant and responsive teachers (Ellerbrock, Cruz, Vásquez, & Howes, 2016). Moreover, there are currently no mechanisms in place to ascertain teacher educators' assumptions, beliefs, and commitment to culturally diverse students nor a systematic way to support continuous professional learning about culturally relevant/responsive teaching (Jacobs, Czop

Assaf, & Lee, 2011). "Quality teacher preparation depends on quality teacher educators" (Kosnik, Menna, Dharamshi, Miyata, & Beck, 2013, p. 524), yet very little attention has been given to literacy teacher educators, particularly upon their entry into the world of teacher preparation. Preparing teacher candidates to adopt culturally relevant/responsive teaching practices begins during their enrollment in teacher preparation programs and under the direction of knowledgeable and skilled teacher educators (Baumgartner, Bay, Lopez-Reyna, Snowden, & Maiorano, 2015). However, Kosnik et al. (2013) contended that closer scrutiny is warranted to identify the exact kinds of knowledge that literacy teacher educators need to prepare teacher candidates effectively, as well as any necessary institutional supports.

Our findings have suggested a strong need for literacy teacher educators to evaluate how their respective teacher preparation programs prepare teacher candidates to address diversity in literacy education. During these evaluations, literacy teacher educators should work collaboratively with colleagues to carefully examine preparation practices used during coursework, as well as during field experiences and classroom observations. All program requirements should be aligned with professional standards and address key concepts associated with diversity in literacy education comprehensively and systematically. Most importantly, literacy teacher educators must ensure that teacher candidates learn meaningful ways to use culturally relevant/responsive literacy practices "to strengthen a literate society, making it more productive, more adaptable to change, and more equitable" (IRA, 2010, p. 24).

Limitations and Areas for Further Research

Every research endeavor yields limitations. Within this study, there were methodological limitations that impacted generalizability of our reported findings. As such, the number of respondents in this study was small and included only literacy teacher educators from one state located in the Southern United States. Since this study was intended to be exploratory, future studies should replicate these procedures and include larger groups of literacy teacher educators that span multiple geographic areas. Future studies may also consider utilizing research designs that provide a more comprehensive understanding of individual preparation practices in relation to the overall design of a preparation program.

Conclusion

Preparing teacher candidates for diversity in education is a tremendous responsibility. Literacy teacher educators must ensure that their preparation practices cultivate future literacy teachers who implement culturally relevant/responsive teaching practices effectively. It is imperative for literacy teacher educators to recognize that culturally relevant/responsive teaching practices go well beyond addressing student differences. Instead, literacy teacher educators must strengthen how future teachers are prepared to employ high-quality teaching practices that enhance educational equity among all students.

References

Algozzine, B., O'Shea, D. J., & Obiakor, F. E. (Eds.). (2009). *Culturally responsive literacy instruction*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Alismail, H. A. (2016). Multicultural education: Teachers' perceptions and preparation. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 7(11), 139-146. Retrieved from https://iiste.org/Journals/index.php/JEP

Banks, J. A. (1995). Multicultural education and curriculum transformation. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 64(4), 390-400. doi:10.2307/2967262

Banks, J. A. (2001). *Cultural diversity and education: Foundations, curriculum, and teaching*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Bartolomé, L. I. (2004). Critical pedagogy and teacher education: Radicalizing prospective teachers. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 31(1), 97-122. Retrieved from http://www.teqjournal.org/

Baumgartner, D., Bay, M., Lopez-Reyna, N. A., Snowden, P. A., & Maiorano, M. J. (2015). Culturally responsive practice for teacher educators: Eight recommendations. *Multiple Voices for Ethnically Diverse Exceptional Learners*, 15(1), 44-58. doi:10.5555/2158-396X

Bennett, S. V., Alberton Gunn, A., Gayle-Evans, G., Barrera, E. S., IV, & Leung, C. B. (2018). Culturally

responsive literacy practices in an early childhood community. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 46(2), 241-248. doi:10.1007/s10643-017-0839-9

Binks-Cantrell, E., Washburn, E. K., Joshi, R. M., & Hougen, M. (2012). Peter Effect in the preparation of reading teachers. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 16(6), 526-536. doi:10.1080/10888438.2011. 601434

Burbules, N. C., & Berk, R. (1999). Critical thinking and critical pedagogy: Relations, differences, and limits. In T. S. Popkewitz & L. Fendler (Eds.), *Critical theories in education: Changing terrains of knowledge and politics* (pp.45-65). New York, NY: Routledge.

Clark, S. K., Jones, C. D., Reutzel, D. R., & Andreasen, L. (2013). An examination of the influences of a teacher preparation program on beginning teachers' reading instruction. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 52(2), 87-105. doi:10.1080/19388071.2 012.754520

Clayton, J. K. (2011). Changing diversity in U.S. schools: The impact on elementary student performance and achievement. *Education and Urban Society*, 43(6), 671-695. doi:10.1177/0013124510380909

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Collins, T. (2006). Culturally responsive literacy instruction. *TEACHING Exceptional Children*, 39(2), 62-65. doi:10.1177/004005990603900211

Day, J. C. (1996). *Population projections of the United States by age, sex, race, and Hispanic origin: 1995 to 2050*. Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/prod/1/pop/p25-1130/p251130.pdf

Dooley, C. M. (2008). Multicultural literacy teacher education: Seeking micro-transformations. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 47(2), 55-75. doi:10.1080/19388070701878808

Ellerbrock, C. R., Cruz, B. C., Vásquez, A., & Howes, E. V. (2016). Preparing culturally responsive teachers: Effective practices in teacher education. *Action in Teacher Education*, 38(3), 226-239. doi:10.1080/01626620.2016.1194780

Fernald, D. H., & Duclos, C. W. (2005). Enhance your team-based qualitative research. *Annals of Family Medicine*, 3(4), 360-364. doi:10.1370/afm.290

Freire, P. (1973). *Education for critical consciousness*. New York, NY: The Seabury Press.

Freire, P. & Macedo, D. (1987). *Literacy: Reading the word and the world*. Westport, CT: Bergin & Garvey.

Gay, G. (2000). *Culturally responsive teaching: Theories, research, and practice*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Gay, G. (2002). Preparing for culturally responsive teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 53(2). 106-116. doi:10.1177/0022487102053002003

Gay, G. (2010). *Culturally responsive teaching: Theories, research, and practice* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Gay, G., & Howard, T. C. (2000). Multicultural teacher education for the 21st century. *The Teacher Educator,* 36(1), 1-16. doi:10.1080/08878730009555246

Gay, G. & Kirkland, K. (2003). Developing cultural critical consciousness and self-reflection in preservice teacher education. *Theory Into Practice*, 42(3), 181–187. doi:10.1207/s15430421tip4203_3

Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. New Brunswick, NJ: AldineTransaction.

Hoffman, J. V., Roller, C., Maloch, B., Sailors, M., Duffy, G., Beretvas, S. N., & National Commission on Excellence in Elementary Teacher Preparation for Reading Instruction. (2005). Teachers' preparation to teach reading and their experiences and practices in the first three years of teaching. *The Elementary School Journal*, 105(3), 267-287. doi:10.1086/428744

Hollins, E. R. (2017). Literacy learning and teacher

preparation for urban students. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, 53(4), 179-183. doi:10.1080/00228958.2017.1369281

Howard, T. C. (2003). Culturally relevant pedagogy: Ingredients for critical teacher reflection. *Theory Into Practice*, 42(3), 195-202. doi:10.1207/s15430421tip4203_5

Hughes, J. N., Gleason, K. A., & Zhang, D. (2005). Relationship influences on teachers' perceptions of academic competence in academically at-risk minority and majority first grade students. *Journal of School Psychology*, 43(4), 303-320. doi:10.1016/j.jsp.2005.07.001

Ingersoll, R., & May, H. (2011). *Recruitment, retention, and the minority teacher shortage* (CPRE Research Report #RR-69). Retrieved from Consortium for Policy Research in Education website: http://www.cpre.org/recruitment-retention-and-minority-teacher-shortage

Ingersoll, R., & Merrill, L. (2017). *A quarter century of changes in the elementary and secondary teaching force: From 1987 to 2012* (NCES 2017-092). Retrieved from National Center for Education Statistics website: https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2017092

Ingersoll, R., Merrill, L., & Stuckey, D. (2014). *Seven trends: The transformation of the teaching force* (CPRE Report #RR-80). Retrieved from Consortium for Policy Research in Education website: http://www.cpre.org/7trends

International Literacy Association. (2017a). *Characteristics of culturally sustaining and academically rigorous classrooms*. Retrieved from International Literacy Association's website: https://www.literacyworldwide.org/docs/default-source/where-we-stand/ila-culturally-sustaining-classrooms-brief.pdf?sfvrsn=7b80a68e_10

International Literacy Association. (2017b). *Standards for the preparation of literacy professionals 2017*. Newark, DE: International Literacy Association.

International Reading Association. (2010). *Standards for reading professionals: Revised 2010*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Iwai, Y. (2013). Multicultural children's literature and teacher candidates' awareness and attitudes toward cultural diversity. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, 5(2), 185-198. Retrieved from https://www.iejee.com/index.php/IEJEE/index

Jacobs, J., Czop Assaf, L., & Lee, K. S. (2011). Professional development for teacher educators: Conflicts between critical reflection and instructional-based strategies. *Professional Development in Education*, 37(4), 499-512. doi:10.1080/19415257.2010.533587

Kahn, L. G., Lindstrom, L., & Murray, C. (2014). Factors contributing to preservice teachers' beliefs about diversity. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 41(4), 53-70. Retrieved from http://www.teqjournal.org/

Kim, Y., Turner, J. D., & Mason, P. A. (2015). Getting into the zone: Cases of student-centered multicultural literacy teacher education. *Action in Teacher Education*, 37(2), 102-119. doi:10.1080/01626620.2015.1013162

King, J. B., McIntosh, A., & Bell-Ellwanger, J. (2016). *The state of racial diversity in the educator workforce*. Retrieved from U.S. Department of Education, Office of Planning, Evaluation and Policy Development, Policy and Program Studies Service website: https://www2.ed.gov/rschstat/eval/highered/racial-diversity/state-racial-diversity-workforce.pdf

Kosnik, C. Menna, L., Dharamshi, P., Miyata, C., & Beck, C. (2013) A foot in many camps: Literacy teacher educators acquiring knowledge across many realms and juggling multiple identities. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 39(5), 523-540. doi:0.1080/02607476.2013.844954

Ladson-Billings, G. (1995a). But that's just good teaching! The case for culturally relevant pedagogy. *Theory Into Practice*, 34(3), 159-165. doi:10.1080/00405849509543675

Ladson-Billings, G. (1995b). Toward a theory of culturally relevant pedagogy. *American*

Educational Research Journal, 32(3), 456-491. doi:10.3102/00028312032003465

Ladson-Billings, G. (2009). *The dreamkeepers: Successful teachers of African American children*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Lee, C. (2011). Myths about critical literacy: What teachers need to unlearn. *Journal of Language and Literacy Education*, 7(1), 95-102. Retrieved from http://jolle.coe.uga.edu/

Lee, C. (2016). Teaching multiple literacies and critical literacy to pre-service teachers through children's-literature-based engagements. *Journal of Language and Literacy Education*, 12(1), 40-52. Retrieved from http://jolle.coe.uga.edu/

McFarland, J., Hussar, B., de Brey, C., Snyder, T. Wang, X., Wilkenson-Flicker, S., . . . Hinz, S. (2017). *The condition of education 2017* (NCES 2017-144). Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2017/2017144.pdf

McKown, C. & Weinstein, R. S. (2008). Teacher expectations, classroom context, and the achievement gap. *Journal of School Psychology*, 46(3), 235-261. doi:10.1016/j.jsp.2007.05.001

Melnick, S. L., & Zeichner, K. M. (1998). Teacher education's responsibility to address diversity issues: Enhancing institutional capacity. *Theory Into Practice, 37*(2), 88-95. doi:10.1080/00405849809543791

Milner, H. R. (2003). Reflection, racial competence, and critical pedagogy: How do we prepare pre-service teachers to pose tough questions?, *Race, Ethnicity and Education, 6*(2), 193-208. doi:10.1080/13613320308200

Moats, L. C. (1994). The missing foundation in teacher education: Knowledge of the structure of spoken and written language. *Annals of Dyslexia*, 44, 81-102. doi:10.1007/BF02648156

Nash, K. (2018). They have verve: Preservice teachers' perceptions about culturally relevant/responsive pedagogy. *The New Educator*, 14(2), 153-170. doi:10.1080/1547688X.2018.1426325

Nichols, W. D., Rupley, W. H., Webb-Johnson, G., & Tlusty, G. (2000). Teachers role in providing culturally responsive literacy instruction. *Reading Horizons*, 41(1), 1-18. Retrieved from https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/reading_horizons/

Nieto, S. (2000). Placing equity front and center: Some thoughts on transforming teacher education for a new century. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 51(3), 180–187. doi:10.1177/0022487100051003004

Nieto, S. (2010). *Language, culture, and teaching: Critical perspectives* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Nieto, S., & Bode, P. (2012). *Affirming diversity: The sociopolitical context of multicultural education* (6th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.

Pezzetti, K. (2017). 'I'm not racist; my high school was diverse!' White preservice teachers deploy diversity in the classroom. *Whiteness and Education*, 2(2), 131-147. doi:10.1080/23793406.2017.1362944

Potter, D., & Morris, D. S. (2017). Family and schooling experiences in racial/ethnic academic achievement gaps: A cumulative perspective. *Sociological Perspectives*, 60(1) 132-167. doi:10.1177/0731121416629989

Reardon, S. F., & Galindo, C. (2009). The Hispanic-White achievement gap in math and reading in the elementary grades. *American Education Research Journal*, 46(3), 853-891. doi:10.3102/0002831209333184

Reardon, S. F., Valentino, R. A., & Shores, K. A. (2012). Patterns of literacy among U.S. students. *The Future of Children*, 22(2), 17-37. doi:10.2307/23317409

Saldaña, J. (2016). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Salinger, T., Mueller, L., Song, M., Jin, Y., Zmach, C., Toplitz, M., . . . Bickford, A. (2010). *Study of teacher education in early reading instruction* (NCEE 2010-4036). Retrieved from https://ies.ed.gov/ncee/pubs/20104036/pdf/20104036.pdf

Shor, I. (1999). What is critical literacy? *Journal of Pedagogy, Pluralism and Practice*, 1(4), 1-31. Retrieved from https://digitalcommons.lesley.edu/jppp/

Sleeter, C. E. (2001). Preparing teachers for culturally diverse schools: Research and the overwhelming presence of Whiteness. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 52(2), 94-106. doi:10.1177/0022487101052002002

Stevens, L. P., & Bean, T. W. (2007). *Critical literacy: Context, research, and practice in the K-12 classroom*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Taylor, R., Kumi-Yeboah, A., & Ringlaben, R. P. (2016). Pre-service teachers' perceptions toward multicultural education & teaching of culturally & linguistically diverse learners. *Multicultural Education*, 23(3/4), 42-48. Retrieved from http://www.caddogap.com/periodicals.shtml

Timberlake, M. T., Burns Thomas, A., & Barrett, B. (2017). The allure of simplicity: Scripted curricula and equity. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 67, 46-52. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2017.05.017

Washburn, E. K., Joshi, R. M., & Binks-Cantrell, E. (2011). Are preservice teachers prepared to teach struggling readers? *Annals of Dyslexia*, 61(1), 21-43. doi:10.1007/s11881-010-0040-y

Wood, K. L. (2009). Preservice teachers' experiences in teacher education: What we taught and what they learned about equitable education. In H. R. Milner (Ed.), *Diversity and education: Teachers teaching, and teacher education* (pp. 163-174). Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas Publisher, Ltd.

Zeichner, K. M., & Hoeft, K. (1996). Teacher socialization for cultural diversity. In J. Sikula (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (2nd ed., pp. 176-198). New York, NY: Macmillan Reference Library.

Once you learn to read, you will be forever free.

—FREDERICK DOUGLASS

Exploring the Reading Motivation of Less-Motivated Adolescent Latinx English Learners

BY ROBERT A. GRIFFIN

Abstract

This qualitative study explored reading motivation among high school English learners whose first language was Spanish. Latinx English learners (N = 87) from two southeastern, suburban school districts took part in the first stage of the research. The researcher utilized subscores for self-concept as a reader and value of reading from a recognized reading motivation survey instrument along with reading subscores on a nationally recognized standardized language assessment to identify students who could be presumed to be less-motivated readers (n = 14) for interview selection. Responses from six randomly selected interviewees from this less-motivated pool of participants demonstrated that they faced numerous obstacles toward becoming proficient readers, including challenging home environments and debilitating anxieties. Overall, a series of complex factors were shown to inhibit reading motivation. Implications and practical recommendations for educators are discussed.

Over the next 40 years, more than one million immigrants a year will move to the United States (Pew Research Center, 2015). The Pew Research Center (2015) predicts a 6% surge in the Latinx population in the U.S. from 18% to 24% between 2015 and 2065. (As used in this study, Latinx refers to an individual of Latin American origin or descent, and this terminology is used as a gender-neutral alternative to Latino, Latina, or Hispanic.) Because of changing demographics and population growth, schools throughout the country are becoming more culturally and linguistically diverse. In 2015, roughly 4.8 million or approximately 10% of all public school students in the U.S. were identified as English learners (McFarland et al., 2018), and researchers predict that by the year 2030 approximately 40% of students will be English learners (Goldenberg, 2013). Furthermore, almost eight of every 10 English learners in the U.S. are native Spanish speakers of Latinx origin (McFarland et al., 2018).

Academic performance among this rapidly-growing population of linguistically diverse students has consistently remained far below that of their monolingual peers (Baker, Richards-Tutor, Sparks, & Canges, 2018). In 2017, the achievement gap in reading between English learners and their English-proficient peers on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) was 37 points in fourth grade and 43 points in eighth grade (McFarland et al., 2018).

English learners who value reading and see themselves as capable readers are motivated to engage more deeply with reading tasks (del Rio, 2013), and prolonged reading engagement results

in increased academic English proficiency which promotes overall academic success (Cummins, 2011). Studies have found a strong relationship between higher levels of student motivation and increased academic achievement (Cox & Guthrie, 2001; Marks, 2000; Schunk, Meece, & Pintrich, 2013). Specifically, research has shown that less-motivated students report a sense of disconnect with academic content and a feeling of isolation stemming from being labeled a poor student (Marks, 2000; McKool, 2007; Schunk et al., 2013). As such, this study seeks to explore more completely what inhibits motivation in reading among high school Latinx English learners.

Few studies exist specifically to explore what motivates English learners to engage in reading. Of the few studies that have been conducted concerning English learners' reading motivation (e.g., Arzubiaga, Rueda, & Monzó, 2002; del Rio, 2013; Howard, 2012; Ivey & Broaddus, 2007; Protacio, 2012), none addresses English learners' reading engagement at the high school level. Listening to what students say about reading is central to this study's purpose. As such, this study seeks to determine what high school Latinx English learners who are classified as less-motivated readers say about themselves as readers and what factors promote or inhibit their motivation. The descriptor less motivated was chosen because motivation should be considered along a spectrum and cannot be defined dichotomously (Schunk et al., 2013).

Expectancy-Value Theory

As the conceptual framework undergirding this study, the expectancy-value model of achievement posits that motivation is strongly influenced by one's expectation of success or failure at a task (Applegate & Applegate, 2010; Atkinson, 1957; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). Proponents of the expectancy-value model have argued that an individual's beliefs regarding competency and the extent to which one values an activity will determine the individual's choice, persistence, and performance on that activity (Eccles, 1983; Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, & Mazzoni, 1996; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). People will attempt to attain goals they value and perceive as achievable (Dörnyei, 1998). Unfortunately, Wigfield and Eccles (2000) found that as individuals got older, their ability-related beliefs and values became more negative, which led to a decline in motivation and task engagement.

Trends in Prior Research

Past research into reading motivation among Latinx students has primarily concentrated on the cognitive processes of individual students, but there is a growing trend toward viewing reading motivation through a sociocultural lens. Additionally, prior research has concentrated primarily on elementary and middle school students. Few studies exist that specifically address reading motivation among high school Latinx English learners.

Arzubiaga et al.'s (2002) pivotal study of Latinx English learners' reading motivation focused on how sociocultural dynamics such as home environments and family routines promote or inhibit reading engagement. Survey results (from Gambrell et al.'s [1996] Motivation to Read Profile) from 18 second-generation Latinx English learners from Mexico and El Salvador in third and fourth grades and interviews with their parents suggested that family togetherness and the encouragement and emotional support it fosters positively related to how much children valued reading. Family nurturance that promoted students' perceptions of the value of reading included teaching children religious values and moral principles, encouraging them to do well in school, and inspiring them to pursue an academic future. Furthermore, the extent to which families pursued Spanish and English reading and cultural activities positively correlated with how students perceived themselves as readers. In contrast, the extent and strenuousness of parents' work responsibilities and the number of young children at home negatively influenced children's perceptions of the value of reading (Arzubiaga et al., 2002).

In their formative mixed-methods study, Ivey and Broaddus (2007) sought to determine what effective literacy instruction in reading and writing among adolescent Latinx English learners entailed. Interviews with 14 Spanish-speaking Latinx English learner beginners in an upper middle school ESOL language arts classroom revealed that effective reading instruction for English learners involves flexibility and variety in the selection of texts. Students reported being motivated to read when texts matched their interests and were not overly difficult. Ivey and Broaddus (2007) cautioned against a blanketed, stereotypical selection

of reading materials and noted how students, even those with similar linguistic and ethnic backgrounds, have unique family, cultural, and educational histories that influence what is engaging for them. Furthermore, this study revealed that when teachers take into consideration the larger sociocultural context of reading motivation and the individuality of each of their students, meaningful reading engagement is possible even before English learners have mastered content-specific reading, writing, and language skills (Ivey & Broaddus, 2007).

In her qualitative study, Howard (2012) conducted three case studies to explore fourth-grade English learners' (two Latinx students who immigrated to the U.S. from Mexico and one Hindi-speaking student who immigrated to the U.S. when he was a toddler) perceptions of themselves as readers, the types of reading support programs they valued, and their reading preferences. Survey results revealed that students were motivated to choose books their friends suggested, and surveyed students revealed that they were motivated to read when they were given the freedom to choose books that interested them. While they avoided overly long or difficult books, they favored graphic novels and fiction books most. Parent expectation was the number one reason students said they read outside of school.

An example of a sociocultural investigation of reading motivation among English learners is Protacio's (2012) qualitative study in which she interviewed six English learners (four boys and two girls) in the elementary grades from different ethnic and linguistic backgrounds about what motivated them to read. She discovered that English learners use reading to affiliate with their American peers and assimilate into their new culture. She also found that the students she interviewed were motivated to read interesting texts that are at their independent reading level. As integratively motivated English learners, the focal students in Protacio's (2012) study remarked that reading became a way for them to bond with their peers in the United States and learn more about their new culture. In short, Protacio (2012) found that perceived competence, interesting reading materials, and social motivation all seemed to contribute to English learners' reading motivation.

Using a quantitative approach, del Rio (2013)

examined how third-grade reading achievement correlated with the reading motivation of fourth-grade students and how reading motivation (as measured by the Motivation to Read Profile [Gambrell et al., 1996]) related to fourth-grade reading achievement scores. Results from 207 fourth-graders in two different schools primarily of Latinx origin demonstrated that reading motivation influenced but did not control the correlation between third- and fourth-grade reading achievement scores. Most significant for del Rio's (2013) study was its implication that students' reading motivation in the early grades predicted future academic achievement.

Despite all the benefits of fostering increased reading motivation, research specifically investigating English learners' reading motivation at the high school level is relatively scarce (Protacio, 2012). Investigating reading motivation among high school English learners, therefore, warrants concerted research. Research is necessary to further clarify the strengths and learning needs of underperforming English learners.

Method

As an expression of its exploratory focus, this study used a qualitative-dominant mixed methods design. Over 300 high school Latinx English learners in two suburban, southeastern U.S. school districts were invited to participate in this study, and 87 students (with the permission of their parents/guardians) agreed to participate in the first stage of the study, the survey phase. Reading motivation survey results and standardized test scores for these 87 participants were used to ascertain students who could be presumed as less-motivated readers. Specifically, three measures were used to collect data in a cascading design. Adolescent Motivation to Read Profile (AMRP; Pitcher et al., 2007) survey results and ACCESS for ELLs (WIDA, 2019) English reading proficiency subscores were used to categorize participants (N = 87) into Below Average subgroups for the following categories: English reading proficiency (n = 48), student self-concept as a reader (n = 43), and student perception of the value of reading (n = 31). Students who scored below average on all three measures were placed in a Less Motivated subgroup (n = 14), and from this group, six students were randomly selected to be interviewed (Figure 1).
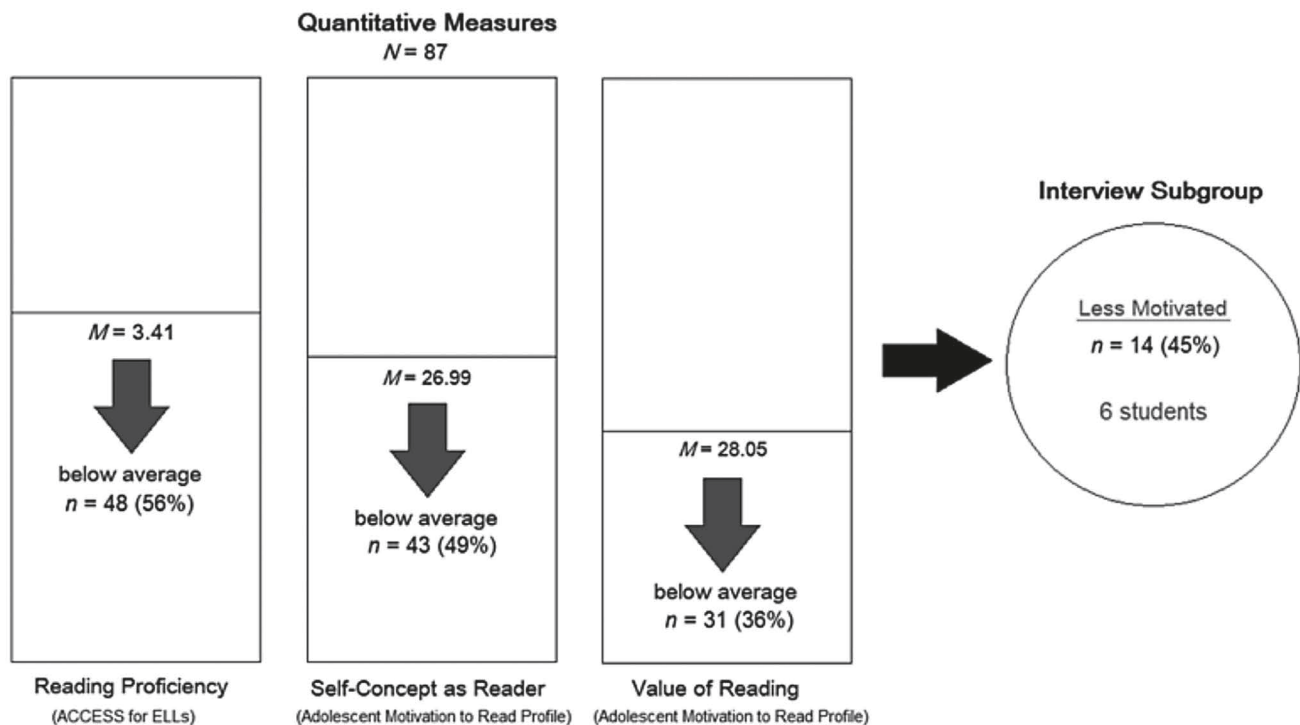
Quantitative Measures
N = 87

M = 3.41

below average
n = 48 (56%)

Reading Proficiency
(ACCESS for ELLs)

M = 26.99

below average
n = 43 (49%)

Self-Concept as Reader
(Adolescent Motivation to Read Profile)

M = 28.05

below average
n = 31 (36%)

Value of Reading
(Adolescent Motivation to Read Profile)

Interview Subgroup

Less Motivated
n = 14 (45%)

6 students

Figure 1. Procedure for selecting interview candidates.

Data Collection

The conversational interview protocol used in this study (see Appendix A) is an adapted and abridged version of Sturtevant and Kim's (2010) AMRP conversational interview for English learners (ACIELS). Ten questions were included on the interview protocol asking students to reflect on their reading experiences, primarily in English. Probing questions were also included to elicit more-detailed information from student interviewees. An audio recorder was used to record the interviews. The interviewer and a research assistant, a native Spanish speaker, took detailed notes on the students' responses during the interview sessions. The researcher interviewed all students, while the research assistant sat in on each interview to translate for the interviewer or interviewee as necessary. To promote a natural manner of conversation, the interviewer began by telling interviewees about an interesting book that he had read recently and why that book was interesting to him. This brief introduction prepared the students to open up and share about their own reading experiences in an honest and reflective manner.

The interview sessions ranged in length from 35 to 67 minutes, with the average length being approximately 50 minutes. Some interviews were longer than others because more probing questions were needed to

elicit more-detailed responses or because students provided rich responses that elicited further tangential discussion. Each interview session was unique as the primary researcher and the research assistant probed to explore deep-seated emotions and experiences related to reading over multiple contexts.

Data Analysis

The primary researcher transcribed the interviews to promote familiarity with the data. The assistance of a shadow researcher, a doctoral candidate at the research university, was also utilized to assist with coding the transcribed interviews. The researchers read the transcripts repeatedly to ensure intimacy with the data. Using a constant comparative approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967/2017), each interview was coded separately using open coding, and the researchers shared their codes with each other. After becoming highly familiar with the data and agreeing on the preliminary, open codes, the researchers used the same approach to develop overarching or axial coding categories (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Findings

Six students identified as less-motivated readers were randomly selected to participate in the interview sessions: Timoteo, Ulises, Vicenta, Ximena, Yesenia, and Zanetta (all pseudonyms). The depth of self-awareness of their own abilities as students and

readers was immediately apparent. In addition, the impediments they faced toward engagement with reading emerged from the conversational interviews.

Self-Awareness

Students reported a strong sense of awareness about their academic aptitudes both in and out of the classroom. They were acutely aware of their reading skills and language capabilities in English. Their reading motivation was linked to their image of themselves as poor students or nonreaders. They were specifically aware of their understanding of English and its impact on their perceptions of themselves as readers. In addition to being aware of their academic aptitudes, students were also highly aware of their own reading competence. Their struggles with reading caused lower self-esteem and feelings of embarrassment for not being able to transfer learning from one language to the other. Some of them expressed awareness that their limited vocabulary impeded their reading comprehension. Almost all of the interviewees were also aware that they were in the Less Motivated subgroup without being told beforehand.

When asked how she thought of herself as a reader, Ximena said in a tone of self-defeat, "A little bit. Not fluently. I'm an okay reader, not [an] excellent reader," and Yesenia managed to utter, "A little bit less," meaning that she thought she was in the "less" reading group. Ulises also knew right away into which group he fell, and he explained how he knew:

> I'm in below . . . because I don't think I have the perfect way how to read, so why would I teach someone to read if I don't even know how to? . . . I do know, but I'm not a perfect reader . . . because when I read, I read slow. Sometimes I have to ask the teachers how you pronounce that word, and I . . . ¿Cómo se dice "tartamudeo"?. . . I stutter a lot when I read.

Zanetta knew she was in the below-average group, but she contributed her lack of motivation to the absence of childhood reading experiences: "I think it's below because when I was a little child, I never read a book, never in my life. I read a book, I think one time, then never." Zanetta also described as honestly as she could her sense of frustration at her own inability to learn English quickly enough, but her lack of progress likely came from her fear of failure:

> Oh my gosh, I remember that because I feel so

> . . . I was so angry with myself because I don't know . . . I don't know English. I don't know how to answer. I don't know what do you say? I think it's embarrassing because . . . for me, like example of me, I think I don't read well in English, but it's something interesting I have to do, and I have to learn. I think it's more like leave. . . If you are scared of something, leave that, and you know you have to learn, so focusing that. What do you have to do? How is the best way? I think it's more like that.

Zanetta's honesty illustrated how English learners sometimes gave up on themselves because of their past failures with language.

Timoteo, in his verbose style, acknowledged his own internal lack of self-interest and motivation as the root causes of his poorer reading skills:

> Through 1 to 10, I think I'm like a 4 or a 5, probably in the below average, probably because I don't put 100% effort to learning how to read in English, which English is something important that will help you through all your life, but I just don't put the 100% effort, and I bet if I did and I practiced at home, I would have been a good reader by now.

Unlike other students who had abandoned their hopes of improving, Timoteo's response showed some glimmer of hope that he could improve with time and effort, but self-depreciation still came across in his response. These excerpts exhibited the strong sense of self that pervaded the responses of interviewees, and they highlighted an apparent connection between self-image and reading motivation.

Impediments

Students faced significant obstacles with regard to becoming literate in both Spanish and English and ongoing challenges to improving their reading proficiency. Difficult home environments and anxieties concerning reading in public emerged as important subthemes that demonstrated the extent of their personal and emotional roadblocks toward reading success. These findings also underscored the magnitude of the challenges these students face.

Early traumatic experiences. Students reported rifts or disturbances in the family, such as parental conflict or divorce, or other influential mitigating factors,

such as financial hardships. Ulises, in what was a very touching exchange, talked about how his father abandoned the family: "He left us to . . . I don't know. He left us . . . to make a new family, I guess." Ulises had to stay with his neighbors because his parents worked for long hours: "My mom had to work to feed me here. My dad had to work too. I stay with my neighbors, and then they all took care of me."

Moreover, Zanetta's parents divorced when she was young: "When I was three years, my mom and my dad was separated." Likewise, Vicenta's mother left the family in Mexico to come to the U.S. when Vicenta was young: "She left me because she said in Mexico we didn't have a good life. She was unemployed. She didn't have no water. She said, 'I have to leave my child, so I could have a better life.'" These examples highlighted the traumatic experiences that shaped the perspectives of students concerning learning, schooling, and reading.

The poverty and abject living conditions that many students interviewed had experienced were difficult to comprehend. Timoteo described in detail what life was like for his family in Mexico before coming to the U.S.:

When I was a little kid, probably when I was four, I also lived in a small house, probably with two bedrooms. It was made out of, I think, wooden boards. It was in Mexico . . . we didn't have water running through our house—very poor lands, and to survive you would have to find jobs since you were young. Sometimes you would see kids in the streets asking at least for a nickel to buy them something to eat.

Current living conditions. Their living situations did not improve much after coming to the U.S. Parent workloads were of primary concern as their parents worked for long hours in factories doing labor-intensive tasks to earn money for the family. Heavy workloads served to distract the family from education for its members. Timoteo also described in detail the work situation of his parents:

I'm pretty sure that my parents would have love having a very good education because they could have probably had a better job and provide for their families with more money than they're getting now, because right now, they are working at this factory. My dad, when it's okay, $11 or $12 per hour, but

even with all that money, he still doesn't have enough to pay for the bill at the end of the week. He probably has 2 or 300 dollars left which probably will be used for needs from the house as well. [My mother] works in the same place, but she's not in a higher rank like my dad. She has less years in there.

While heavy parental workloads were common, students did household chores or managed multiple things at home, all of which did not allow them to focus exclusively on schoolwork when at home. Ulises's after-school routine involved him helping his mother in the afternoons: "I go help her. She does pillows, and I unfold the pillows to stack them in the back." In his verbose and highly expressive manner, Timoteo related his household responsibilities outside of school, responsibilities and chores that left little time for schoolwork:

When I get home, I usually help my mom because she right now she can't do much, so I have to help her with the babies. She does a lot of stuff because she's taking these pills that the doctor gave her so she can feel better and work more around the house so she won't get like . . . because without the pills, she gets really hard headaches. She gets big fever, and she collapse, and she can't move a lot. That's why she's taking pills, and with the pills, they help her because she feels like she's already ready to walk around, move more, but she still can't . . . I help the baby. She takes care of the one that just was born, the newborn, and I take over my brother, the one year old, which I help her clean diaper, give him food and stuff like that . . . I also take care of my dog when I get home . . . I have been working a lot because my family is coming from North Carolina, so we have to get the house ready for them and everything, and I had to clean the whole entire porch, which is actually a big porch. Then they made me clean the whole, the porch bars, little bars.

Timoteo's description highlighted the time restraints these students faced toward attaining any degree of literary or academic achievement.

Parental literacy. Students were also largely aware of the ability or inability of their parents to read and write both in Spanish and English. As such, students

were aware of their own family members' reading abilities and linguistic competencies in Spanish and English. Although their own motivation to read was low, sensitivity about their family members' education, level of learning, and grasp of language was high. Literacy among their parents was generally low, and literacy in English was usually restricted to one parent, most often the father who worked outside of the home. Students largely came from traditional, patriarchal home environments where reading was largely not part of their experiences growing up.

Their mothers suffered from low literacy levels, specifically in English. Their fathers were more proficient, though not proficient enough in English to be able to help their children. Ximena was asked about her parents' literacy in English, to which she emphatically responded: "[My father] can understand English, and he knows how to speak it a little bit. No, my mom doesn't know how to talk English."

Ulises shared similar thoughts about his parents' English skills, highlighting the obstacles his parents' illiteracy posed to him:

It makes it difficult because my mom doesn't know how to speak English, and my dad, I can hardly understand him when he speaks English, so it's hard to speak English [to them]. Mom knows some words, but she doesn't know it perfectly.

Likewise, Zanetta was embarrassed by her mother's inability to speak English correctly:

Mm-hmm, my mom doesn't know nothing. That day we was in the grocery store, and she said, "Dank you." I said, "Mama, it's thank you." Yeah, thank you, thank you. No English!

Zanetta gave her father a little higher mark when she responded, "[Dad] kind of learned, but he's not good." And Timoteo shared how his father corrected his mother's English: "She still has a few difficulty, but my dad always be like, 'No, you're spelling it wrong and reviews [corrects] her.'"

Anxieties about reading in public. To further illustrate the complexity of the challenge and obstacles to academic and reading success students face, students reported feeling anxious about the whole effort of learning English and reading. This theme denoted anxieties about reading or concerning the future because of students' current perceptions about reading. For less-motivated students, reading in either English or Spanish was difficult because the very act of reading created internal anxiety. Internal anxiety was due to their own inability to read or to feelings of social anxiety that arose from being watched and ridiculed by peers and friends if they did not read well or made mistakes in reading. This internal and social anxiety not only prevented them from reading; it also made them apprehensive about future prospects of reading. Students felt anxious about reading aloud in class, and they associated such public reading tasks with a deficiency within themselves, which made them want to avoid or escape from reading.

When asked why she did not like to read in public, Yesenia looked down and commented, "I don't know. I think the people's going to laugh at me," and Ximena responded matter-of-factly, "I don't like reading out loud." This unfavorable perception of reading aloud repeated itself. Other interviewees shared feelings of anxiety related to learning tasks and school activities in general. For example, Timoteo, in his distinctively reflective manner of responding to interview questions, remarked:

[T]here's a lot of students, and they're all watching me. What if I mess up in a word? They're probably going to be like, "You don't know how to read," or something. Well, if it's a small class, I don't really mind, but if it's like a big, big class with a lot of students, only if I know most of them. If I know everybody, I really don't care.

Ulises, in a similar fashion, described his feelings of anxiety:

[W]hen I started reading, I get nervous and I start . . . what's it called? Tartamudeo . . . stuttering, like you're stuttering once I read. When I read, I just get nervous because I don't like people hearing when I read. Yeah. That concerns me next year since this year, words are difficult. Some words are difficult to understand. Imagine next year what's going to happen.

Along these same lines, Zanetta shared her anxieties about reading aloud:

Everybody says, "Why you scared? You read so good." I'm like, "I don't know. I can." I feel

embarrassed, I think. Not really. It's just when I am in the front [of] other people . . . I have to read out loud. I feel so bad because I want to read really good. I want to do it good, but I cannot sometimes.

Discussion and Implications

The students interviewed for this study faced numerous challenges in their quest to attain proficiency as English readers. Coming from low-socioeconomic backgrounds and home environments where both parents worked long hours, students found themselves facing almost insurmountable obstacles to reading engagement. As explained through the lenses of expectancy-value theory, the students' self-awareness served as a further inhibitor to their motivation and success as their low self-esteem was reinforced from the negative experiences of their past failures with reading.

Factors Inhibiting Motivation

As the interviewees for this study shared, Latinx English learners experience much over the course of their lives that can adversely affect their motivation to read. Economic and social hardships and the time constraints they bring with them are primarily responsible for the lower reading motivation of Latinx English learners in general.

Economic hardships. English learners are first the children of immigrants, and their immigrant experiences shape their reading motivation more than other factors (Ayón, 2014). As immigrants from second- or third-world economies, Latinx English learners face many financial hardships that interfere with their reading success. Economic adversities coupled with the large families that are common in Latinx cultures usually mean that parents—primarily fathers, if there are small children at home—work long hours at labor extensive, low-paying jobs, while mothers are left home to tend to household chores and take care of multiple children. According to data from the Pew Research Center, more foreign-born Latinx mothers stay home than any other demographic subgroup in the U.S., regardless of the economic constraints the family may face (Livingston, 2014).

Moreover, Latinx immigrants have strong positive beliefs about the value of hard work in getting ahead socially and economically in the U.S. (Taylor, Lopez, Martínez, & Velasco, 2012), but their immigrant experiences have largely contradicted their strong beliefs in the American Dream. The Great Recession hit foreign-born Latinos especially hard (Taylor et al., 2012). Immigrant parents work longer and harder than many other American workers. Given these dismal work conditions, finding the time to read with their children is difficult for immigrant parents who work outside the home for long hours at labor extensive, blue-collar jobs. Moreover, they are often paid much less than non-immigrant workers. In 2011, the median weekly wage of Latinos working full time in the U.S. was $549 per week. White Americans earned approximately 30% more per week on average (U.S. Department of Labor, 2012). Low earnings like these can barely sustain a small family, much less a larger family. Latinx immigrant families, therefore, have limited discretionary funds to spend on non-essential reading materials like books or magazines.

Economic conditions are so dire in some families that older adolescents are required to work to help their parents earn money to support the family, leaving little time to read or discuss reading with family members or peers. The number of teens working after school or on the weekends has declined over the last decade among non-immigrant teens, but immigrant children are more likely to need to work to help their families survive (Soergel, 2015). Non-immigrant teenagers who work at low-paying jobs from 10–15 hours per week are usually able to pocket their earnings, but the children of immigrants have to spend their earnings on the family. Making a way for themselves in a new country while experiencing life on the lowest rungs of the economic ladder may make reading and schooling far-removed concerns for English learners and their families.

Social hardships. Latinx English learners also face numerous social hardships that impede their reading motivation and engagement. Parents of English learners are largely unable to help their children with their schoolwork or to read to their children because of their own lack of literacy. Most significantly, English (L2) literacy among Latinx parents of English learners is particularly low, though fathers who work outside of the home are somewhat better able to communicate socially in English. In a study conducted by the Pew Research Center, over 60% of first-generation Latinos

said they were unable to read a newspaper or book in English with any real sense of aptitude (Taylor et al., 2015). In addition, Spanish (L1) literacy is also low among many Latinx immigrant parents because they often have not been well educated through no fault of their own (Gándara, 2010). The situation, therefore, is one in which both parents often lack academic proficiency in both Spanish and English, so not only are they not reading to their children in English, but they also are not reading to them in Spanish. Without sufficient proficiency in academic English or Spanish, these parents are completely unprepared to help their children succeed in school, and reading a text to their children in English (or Spanish) is largely out of the question.

Lower educational attainment among Latinx parents is also a major factor inhibiting reading motivation for English learners. In contrast with only 6% of white mothers, over 40% of Latinx mothers in the U.S. have not attained a high school diploma (Gándara, 2010). Fathers are usually not at home with the children, which leaves poorly educated Latinx mothers badly equipped to read with their children or to help them with their schoolwork. Given the strong positive influence of the educational attainment of parents on children, these statistics underscore the serious risks Latinx students face toward reading success in particular and academic achievement in general (Gándara, 2010).

Recommendations for Educators

Understanding the theoretical dynamics of what negates or promotes reading motivation and engagement for Latinx English learners is only the starting point. The purpose of this section, therefore, is to take the theoretical and make it practical to the extent that teachers and school leaders are capable. English language teachers, mainstream teachers of English learners, school leaders, and other educational stakeholders may use the suggestions discussed here as talking points to elicit instructional and other reforms that promote higher reading engagement for adolescent Latinx English learners.

Empathetic teaching. More often than not, teachers and other educators with whom students interact during the school day have the greatest potential to be optimizers of reading engagement for English learners (Chun, 2009; Day & Bamford, 2002). To this end, educators should be particularly mindful of the economic and social factors that impede reading motivation for the English learners they teach. Creating empathy and understanding among teachers and other educators concerning the backgrounds and living conditions of Latinx English learners is an important starting point in being able to reach more English learners. In accordance with expectancy-value theory, constant encouragement and celebrating wins, even minors ones, will help students find their own internal motivation to learn and read (Lutz, Guthrie, & Davis, 2006).

Early literacy interventions. Teachers and learning support specialists should focus their attention on those English learners who are most in need of their support and intervention. Reading support for at-promise Latinx English learners should begin earlier in their schooling (Bowman-Perrott et al., 2009; Calderón et al., 2011; del Rio, 2013; Donovan & Cross, 2002). Focusing on younger students in earlier grades, especially males and less-proficient English learners, for reading interventions will result in more long-term successes in reading achievement (Applegate & Applegate, 2010; Donovan & Cross, 2002; Halle et al., 2012; Schiefele et al., 2012; Sturtevant & Kim, 2010). Language teachers, though, should not give up hope of initiating reading interest for at-promise students even as late as high school.

Parent/family engagement. While teachers have no control over the home environments or upbringing of their English learners, they can reach out to parents of English learners in a variety of ways to encourage them to get more involved in their child's learning. Parent involvement in their child's schooling and reading practices has more of a positive influence on student reading achievement than any other factor, including socioeconomic status, family size, or level of parental education (Clark & Rumbold, 2006). Parents should be invited to literacy awareness evening or weekend events at their child's school. Such evening/weekend events would be ideal times to distribute engaging texts directly to parents to help build home libraries and to bring in Latinx community members and reading mentors to speak to parents and students together (Gonzalez, Borders, Hines, Villalba, & Henderson, 2013).

Conclusion

Motivation is a dynamic process influenced by multiple and varied factors. Reading motivation for English learners is no exception. As a sizable and growing student subgroup in U.S. schools, English learners—Latinos being the largest subgroup of them—lag behind their native speaking peers, principally in reading. Their overall lack of motivation and reading success is more understandable given the economic and social hardships they face as an immigrant population making a way for themselves in a new and unfamiliar terrain.

Improving reading achievement and closing the achievement gaps will need to involve concerted effort from teachers, administrators, and educational policymakers alike. The solutions will need to involve educators changing the ways they perceive English learners and their capabilities, but larger, systemic fixes will also be necessary—expanded parental outreach, community-wide literacy awareness programs, etc. Fixing the problem will require an "all-hands-on-deck" approach with students, parents, teachers, and school and community leaders working together to achieve viable solutions.

References

Applegate, A. J., & Applegate, M. D. (2010). A study of thoughtful literacy and the motivation to read. *The Reading Teacher*, 64(4), 226–234. doi:10.1598/RT.64.4.1

Arzubiaga, A., Rueda, R., & Monzó, L. (2002). Family matters related to the reading engagement of Latinx children. *Journal of Latinos and Education*, 1(4), 231–243. doi:10.1207/S1532771XJLE0104_3

Atkinson, J. W. (1957). Motivational determinants of risk-taking behavior. *Psychological Review*, 64(6), 359–372. doi:10.1037/h0043445

Ayón, C. (2014). Service needs among Latino immigrant families: Implications for social work practice. *Social Work*, 59(1), 13–23. doi:10.1093/sw/swt031

Baker, D. L., Richards-Tutor, C., Sparks, A., & Canges, R. (2018). Review of single subject research examining the effectiveness of interventions for at-risk English learners. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice*, 33(2), 64–74. doi:10.1111/ldrp.12160

Chun, C. W. (2009). Critical literacies and graphic novels for English-language learners: Teaching Maus. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 53(2), 144–153. doi:10.1598/JAAL.53.2.5

Clark, C., & Rumbold, K. (2006). *Reading for pleasure: A research overview*. London: National Literacy Trust. Retrieved from http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/research/nlt_research/271_reading_for_pleasure_a_research_overview

Cox, K. E., & Guthrie, J. T. (2001). Motivational and cognitive contributions to students' amount of reading. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 26*(1), 116–131. doi:10.1006/ceps.1999.1044

Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2018). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Cummins, J. (2011). Literacy engagement: Fueling academic growth for English learners. *Reading Teacher*, 65(2), 142–146. doi:10.1002/TRTR.01022

Day, R. R., & Bamford, J. (2002). Top ten principles for teaching extensive reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 14(2), 136–141. Retrieved from http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/

del Rio, V. M. (2013). *Effects of sex, third grade reading achievement and motivation as predictors of fourth grade reading achievement of Hispanic students: A path analysis* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses database. (UMI No. 3608703)

Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching*, 31(3), 117–135. doi:10.1017/S026144480001315X

Eccles, J. (1983). Expectancies, values, and academic behaviors. In J. T. Spence (Ed.), *Achievement and achievement motives: Psychological and sociological approaches* (pp. 75–146). San Francisco, CA: W.H. Freeman.

Gambrell, L. B., Palmer, B. M., Codling, R. M., & Mazzoni, S. A. (1996). Assessing motivation to read. *Reading Teacher*, 49(7), 518–533. doi:10.1598/RT.49.7.2

Gándara, P. (2010). The Latino education crisis.

Educational Leadership, 67(5), 24–30. Retrieved from http://www.ascd.org/publications/educational-leadership.aspx

Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967/2017). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Goldenberg, C. (2013). Unlocking the research on English learners: What we know—and don't yet know—about effective instruction. *American Educator*, 37(2), 4–38. Retrieved from http://www.aft.org/newspubs/periodicals/ae

Gonzalez, L. M., Borders, L. D., Hines, E. M., Villalba, J. A., & Henderson, A. (2013). Parental involvement in children's education: Considerations for school counselors working with Latino immigrant families. *Professional School Counseling*, 16(3), 185–193. doi:10.5330/PSC.n.2013-16.183

Howard, R. M. (2012). ELLs' perceptions of reading. *Reading Improvement*, 49(3), 113–126. Retrieved from http://www.projectinnovation.com/Reading_Improvement.html

Ivey, G., & Broaddus, K. (2007). A formative experiment investigating literacy engagement among adolescent Latinx students just beginning to read, write, and speak English. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 42(4), 512–545. doi:10.1598/RRQ.42.4.4

Livingston, G. (2014). Among Hispanics, immigrants more likely to be stay-at-home moms and to believe that's best for kids. Retrieved from http://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2014/04/24/among-hispanics-immigrants-more-likely-to-be-stay-at-home-moms-and-to-believe-thats-best-for-kids/

Lutz, S. L., Guthrie, J. T., & Davis, M. H. (2006). Scaffolding for engagement in elementary school reading instruction. *Journal of Educational Research*, 100(1), 3–20. doi:10.3200/JOER.100.1.3-20

Marks, H. M. (2000). Student engagement in instructional activity: Patterns in the elementary, middle, and high school years. *American Educational Research Journal*, 37(1), 153–184. doi:10.2307/1163475

McFarland, J., Hussar, B., Wang, X., Zhang, J., Wang, K., Rathbun, A. . . . Mann, F. B. (2018). *The condition of education 2018* (NCES 2017-144). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2018/2018144.pdf

McKool, S. S. (2007). Factors that influence the decision to read: An investigation of fifth grade students' out-of-school reading habits. *Reading Improvement*, 44(3), 111–131. Retrieved from http://www.projectinnovation.com/Reading_Improvement.html

Pew Research Center. (2015). *Modern immigration wave brings 59 million to U.S., driving population growth and change through 2065: Views of immigration's impact on U.S. society mixed*. Washington, DC. Retrieved from http://www.pewhispanic.org/

Protacio, M. S. (2012). Reading motivation: A focus on English learners. *Reading Teacher*, 66(1), 69–77. doi:10.1002/TRTR.01092

Schunk, D. H., Meece, J. L., & Pintrich, P. R. (2013). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.

Soergel, A. (2015, March 26). Why teens are getting shut out of the workforce. *U.S. News & World Report*. Retrieved from http://www.usnews.com/news/blogs/data-mine/2015/03/26/studies-suggest-teens-getting-shut-out-of-workforce

Taylor, P., Lopez, M. H., Martínez, J., & Velasco, G. (2012). When labels don't fit: Hispanics and their views of identity. Pew Research Center. Retrieved from http://www.pewhispanic.org/2012/04/04/when-labels-dont-fit-hispanics-and-their-views-of-identity/

U.S. Department of Labor. (2012). *The Latino labor force at a glance*. Retrieved from http://www.dol.gov/_sec/media/reports/hispaniclaborforce/hispaniclaborforce.pdf

WIDA. (2019). *ACCESS for ELLs*. Retrieved from https://wida.wisc.edu/assess

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

Appendix A: Reading Motivation Interview Protocol
Adapted from the Conversational Interview for English Learners (Sturtevant & Kim, 2010)

English

Directions:

Make sure the audio recorder is working prior to the interview session. Have a notepad prepared to take detailed notes during the interview in the event a student declines having the interview recorded. Familiarize yourself with the interview questions before the actual interview session in order to establish a more conversational setting. Select a quiet, comfortable room for the interview. Provide refreshments during the interview session. Plan for the interview to take 20–30 minutes, but more time may be needed if the student speaks more than expected. Follow up on any interesting comments and responses to gain more insight and a fuller understanding of the student's reading experiences. Lastly, make sure you have thought of a personal reading experience to share for the preliminary discussion before the interview session.

Say: Before we begin, it is important to remember that your name will not be shared with anyone other than the researcher, the research assistant, and the faculty advisor. Remember your participation in this interview is completely voluntary, and you may ask to stop the interview at any time. Your responses to the questions will not affect your grade in any class, including this one. I am going to ask you some questions. I want to know about your reading experiences. There are no right or wrong answers. I really want to know how you honestly feel about reading and what reading experiences you have had. To help me understand your answers more, I would like to record your answers to my questions. May I record our conversation? *Wait for the student to respond. Answer any questions the student may have about the interview process before proceeding.*

I have been reading a good book *(or magazine, newspaper article, etc.)* about . . . *(explain the nature of the text, some of its main characters, etc.).* I was talking with . . . *(name a person)* about it yesterday. I enjoy talking about good stories, books, or articles I have been reading. Today I would like to talk to you about what you have been reading either from a fictional book, a newspaper, a magazine, a web site on the Internet, anything you have been reading and learning about. Are you ready to begin?

B. Interview Questions

1. Think about something important or interesting that you learned recently, not from your teacher and not from television, but from something that you have read. What did you read about? *(Wait time.)*
    a. Tell me about what you learned. *(Probe for language material was read in.)* What else could you tell me? Is there anything else?
    b. How did you know or find out about reading material on this topic (e.g., assigned by teacher, chosen by student at school or out of school)?
    c. Why was this story (or reading) interesting to you?

2. Did someone ever do something that got you interested

Español

Direcciones:

Asegúrese de que la grabadora de audio está trabajando antes de la sesión de la entrevista. Tener una libreta preparada para tomar notas detalladas durante la entrevista en el caso de que un estudiante se niegue a tener la entrevista grabada. Familiarizarse con las preguntas de la entrevista antes de la sesión actual con el fin de establecer un ambiente más conversacional. Seleccione un salón tranquilo, y cómodo para la entrevista. Proporcionar algo ligero de comer durante la sesión de la entrevista. Planee que la entrevista tome 20-30 minutos, pero puede necesitarse más tiempo si el estudiante habla más de lo esperado. Dar seguimiento a las observaciones y respuestas interesantes para obtener mayor conocimiento y una mayor comprensión de las experiencias de lectura de los estudiantes. Por último, asegúrese de que ha pensado en una experiencia de lectura personal para compartir en el debate preliminar antes de la sesión de la entrevista.

Diga: Antes de comenzar, es importante recordar que sus nombres no serán compartidos con nadie más excepto con el investigador, el asistente de investigación, y el consejero de la facultad. Recuerden que su participación en esta entrevista es completamente voluntaria, y ustedes pueden abandonar la entrevista en cualquier momento. Sus respuestas no afectarán sus calificaciones en ninguna clase, incluyendo ésta. Voy a hacerles algunas preguntas. Quiero saber acerca de sus experiencias de lectura. No hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas. Con honestidad me gustaría saber cómo se sienten acerca de la lectura y que experiencias de lectura han tenido. Para ayudarme a entender más sus respuestas, me gustaría grabar las respuestas que dan a mis preguntas. ¿Puedo grabar nuestra conversación? *Espere a que el estudiante responda. Contestar cualquier pregunta que el estudiante pueda tener sobre el proceso de la entrevista antes de proceder.*

He estado leyendo un buen libro *(o una revista, artículo de periódico, etc.)* acerca . . . *(explicar la naturaleza del texto, algunos de sus personajes principales, etc.).* Yo estaba hablando con . . . *(el nombre de una persona)* de ello ayer. Me gusta compartir las historias, libros o artículos buenos que he estado leyendo. Hoy me gustaría hablar acerca de lo que tú has estado leyendo, ya sea un libro de ficción, un periódico, una revista, un sitio web en Internet, todo lo que hayas estado leyendo y aprendiendo sobre tu lectura. ¿Estás listo para empezar?

B. Preguntas de la Entrevista

1. Piensa en algo importante o interesante que hayas aprendido recientemente, no de tu maestro ni de la televisión, sino de algo que hayas leído. ¿Qué fue lo que leíste? (Espera tiempo.)
    a. Dime lo que aprendiste. (Sondea para obtener más información del idioma en que fue leído el material.) ¿Qué otra cosa podría decirme? ¿Hay algo más?

in reading a book or some other text?
  a.Who? What did s/he do?

3.What types of reading have your teachers asked you to do this year in school?
  a. What is your favorite type of reading in school? Why?
  b. Do you have any classes where you can read materials in your home language? (Probe for further explanation.)
  c. Do you have any classes in which your teacher reads to the class? Explain. How do you feel about this?
  d. In what class do you feel the reading is the most difficult? What makes it difficult?
  e. In what class is reading easiest? What makes it easy?

4.Have you helped anyone else learn to read? Explain.
5. Do you belong to any clubs or organizations for which you read?
  a. Could you explain what kind of reading or writing you do in these organizations (e.g., sometimes people read religious materials at church, or scout manuals at Girl Scouts or Boy Scouts)?

6. Do you ever work or help others with work where you need to read (e.g., students sometimes help their parents in a job or family store)? (If yes, probe for more detail).

7. In the next year, what kinds of new materials would you like to learn to read? Why?

8. Do you think having two languages has ever caused a problem for you? Explain.

9. Is there anything that worries or concerns you about reading? Please explain.

10. How do you think you could improve your own reading? Why?
  a. Do you try to do this?

Say: Thank you for helping me learn more about high school English learners!

b. ¿Cómo supiste o encontraste material sobre este tema (por ejemplo, fue asignado por el maestro, elegido por el estudiante en la escuela, o fuera de la escuela)?
c. ¿Por qué ésta historia (o lectura) fue interesante para ti?

2. ¿Alguien alguna vez hizo algo para que te interesaras en leer un libro o algún otro texto?
  a. ¿Quién fue? ¿Qué hizo ella, o él?

3. ¿Qué tipo de lecturas te han pedido tus maestros hacer en éste año escolar?
  a. ¿Cuál es tu tipo de lectura favorito en la escuela? ¿Por qué?
  b. ¿Tienes alguna clase donde puedas leer materials en tu idioma natal? (Sondea para más información.)
  c. ¿Tienes alguna clase en la cual su maestro les lea? Explica. ¿Cómo te sientes acerca de esto?
  d. ¿En qué clase sientes que la lectura es más difícil? ¿Qué es lo que lo hace difícil?
  e. ¿En qué clase la lectura es más fácil? ¿Qué es lo que la hace que sea fácil?

4. ¿Has ayudado a alguien más para aprender a leer? Explica.

5. ¿Perteneces a algún club u organización para la cual lees?
  a. ¿Podrías explicar qué tipo de lectura o escritura hacen en estas organizaciones (por ejemplo., algunas veces leen materiales religiosos en la iglesia, o manuales de exploración en las niñas exploradoras o niños exploradores)?

6. ¿Alguna vez has trabajado o ayudado a los demás con trabajo en el que tu necesitas leer? (¿por ejemplo, los estudiantes algunas veces ayudan a sus padres en un trabajo o negocio familiar)? *(Si sí, indaga para que te den más detalles)*.

7. ¿En el próximo año, que materiales nuevos te gustaría aprender a leer? ¿Por qué?

8. ¿En algún momento te ha causado problemas el saber dos idiomas? Explica.

9. ¿Hay algo que te inquieta o preocupa acerca de la lectura? Por favor explica.

10. ¿Cómo crees que podrías mejorar su propia lectura? ¿Por qué?
  a. ¿Tratas de hacer esto?

Diga: ¡Gracias por ayudarme a conocer más acerca de los estudiantes de preparatoria que están aprendiendo inglés!

Ready, Set, Grow:
Exploring the Readiness and Preparation of Kindergarten Students within a Title 1 School

By Morgan Mitchell, Sybil Keesbury and Vicki Luther

Introduction

While kindergarten is typically thought of as the beginning of a child's formalized schooling, today's students frequently attend some form of learning environment prior to the start of kindergarten. According to the National Institute for Early Education Research (2016), approximately 60% of Georgia's four-year-olds are enrolled in public preschools within the state. In addition, over 24,000 children, ages three and four, received funded services in Head Start programs within the state of Georgia in 2018 (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2018), and many other pre-kindergarteners attend private or public child care facilities. Research constantly confirms that children who enter school with a strong foundation in language development are more equipped to read, while those who enter school with limited language skills are more likely to fall behind in academic achievements (Wasik & Hindman, 2018). Young children who live in poverty are more likely to show deficiencies in critical language skills. Recent statistics show that 34% of all students entering kindergarten are lacking in basic understandings of phonological concepts, thus negatively impacting their abilities to read in later years (Kena et al., 2016; LoCasale-Crouch et al., 2007). Lottery-funded Pre-K, Head Start, and the Georgia Department of Early Care and Learning (DECAL) subsidize child care expenses for many low-income families, allowing young children living in poverty to become better prepared and more equipped for the rigors of elementary, middle, and high school (Georgia Department of Early Care and Learning, 2016).

Social and emotional developmental factors are also critical the education of young children. For preschoolers, the acquisition of language allows for self-advancement and greater understandings of others; however, children living in low-income

Abstract

This article discusses a research study conducted to evaluate whether young students' educational experiences prior to entering kindergarten affects their accomplishments within the content of English language arts and social development. Data from the Georgia Kindergarten Inventory of Developing Skills (GKIDS) and Student Learning Objectives (SLOs) were analyzed in one high-poverty elementary school over the course of a full academic year. Learning more about students' early literacy and development can allow teachers to have a much greater understanding of their students' needs. This, in turn, can benefit all students as they begin their formal educational experiences and as they learn and grow socially, emotionally, and cognitively.

households are more likely to have deficiencies in social, emotional, and linguistic fundamentals (McDevitt & Ormrod, 2013). Economic insecurity and a lack of early literacy skills are both indicators of low social development in children (McDevitt & Ormrod, 2013). Therefore, providing students from low socioeconomic backgrounds opportunities to become engaged in structured social environments prior to kindergarten can enhance cognitive, social, and emotional development. Young children engaged in organized learning environments have occasions to learn social skills through the observation and imitation of educators and peers, and such modeling can enhance necessary foundational understandings (Ormrod, Anderman, & Anderman, 2017).

A Review of the Literature

Basic language and emergent literacy skills are paramount to a child's development and growth. Without such skills, a child is more likely to struggle in language arts and in a wider variety of subject areas as they move into older grades, as early literacy is a critical indicator of success in later grades (Mullis, Mullis, Cornille, Ritchson, & Sullender, 2004). We often fail to appreciate the procedures necessary for student progression, especially in an area as multifaceted as English language arts, and teachers are often "unaware of the challenges" that students face when learning necessary etymological skills (Barone, 2006, p. 8). This is especially true when teaching students of low socioeconomic status. Children do not come to school equipped with the same background knowledge or rudimentary skills when they enter kindergarten, and many are developmentally deficient.

The foundations of language development, especially in oral language, are developed in the first few years of a child's life (Biemiller, 2006). Further research indicates that the initial foundations of reading must be developed well before a child even enters school (Dougherty-Stahl, 2014); therefore, it is pivotal that young children are positioned in environments where literacy is paramount and social learning consistently takes place. Young children who have opportunities to learn in environments where fundamental skills are introduced are more likely to narrow the literacy gap (Barone, 2006).

As critical components of English language arts include reading, writing, listening, and speaking, beginning learners benefit from having meaningful and solid linguistic exposures. Young children, when given opportunities to continually participate in meaningful conversations with peers and adults, are more likely to have better vocabulary, comprehension, and communication skills in later years (Hart & Risley, 1995). Providing children time to practice speech through everyday conversations is critical in both language and social development (Justice, Jiang, & Strasser, 2018). Furthermore, constant engagement in read-aloud events is a particularly effective practice for developing oral language skills in children, as this enhances both listening and speaking abilities (Straub, 2003). When made habitual, read alouds can demonstrate to young children the importance of the printed word and print concepts and can positively impact student motivation. Collaborative, text-based discussions can allow for greater text-to-self and text-to-world connections and for deeper understanding (Giroir, Romero Grimaldo, Vaughn, & Roberts, 2015).

Children of poverty often lack educational resources and are frequently unable to participate in educational experiences at home (Brophy, 2006). During the first few years of life, children develop linguistic, cognitive, social, and emotional skills at a rapid pace, and such resources and experiences are not available in impoverished home environments (Trawick-Smith, 2014; Brophy, 2006). According to the National Institute for Early Education Research (2016), children who receive early learning opportunities are less likely to repeat a grade level and are more likely to graduate from high school later on. In addition, children with early educational experiences are less likely to engage in crime and are more likely to earn more money as adults.

A Background of the School Environment

This study was conducted in an inner-city, Title I elementary school. At the time of the study, the school had a PK-5th grade enrollment of 708 students. In this same academic year, 99% of students were eligible for free or reduced lunch, 97% of the student population was Black, 1% Hispanic, 1% White, and 1% Multiracial. In addition, almost one-third (30%) of students were in the school's Early Intervention Program (EIP), and 10.2% of the student population received Special Education services (The Governor's Office of Student Achievement, 2019). This elementary school has been classified as low-performing; with a recent score of 55.5 on the College and Career Reading Performance Index (CCRPI), it ranks much lower than the state average. In addition, school data shows that 61% of students who took the Georgia Milestones assessment during this particular academic year scored at a "beginning" level in English language arts components, and the percentage of students scoring

at a "below basic" literacy rate is far higher than the overall state average. Only 15.1% of third graders and 36.6% of fifth graders were reading on grade level at the time of this study (The Governor's Office of Student Achievement, 2019).

Research Objectives

The objective of this research study was to determine if kindergarten students' schooling experience before entering kindergarten affected their foundational understanding of English language arts concepts, learning approaches, and social and personal development. To accomplish this goal, the data from the Georgia Kindergarten Inventory of Developing Skills (GKIDS), as well as the Student Learning Objectives (SLO) data for kindergarten students were analyzed during a recent academic school year. Eighty-nine students (n=89) were enrolled in kindergarten at this high-poverty, public school setting; information was collected to determine the percentage of these students who had gone to Pre-K, Head Start, or Day Care prior to the beginning of the academic year. The list of students was coded to remove names and protect identities. Spreadsheets were used to focus on three "previous schooling" environments (Pre-K settings, Head Start settings, and Day Care settings) in order to make correlations and comparisons between prior schooling and kindergarten data.

Georgia Kindergarten Inventory of Developing Skills (GKIDS) data and each students' individual score for the SLO assessment were examined. Because the GKIDS evaluation is a performance-based assessment aligned to the state mandated content standards, teachers are provided year-long data concerning the instructional supports needed for each individual child (Georgia Department of Education, 2019). Student learning objectives are content-specific, grade-level learning goals that are aligned to current curriculum standards. According to the Georgia Department of Education (2019), SLOs allow educators and school systems methods in which to better understand and recognize success within the classroom. It is important to note that for the sake of this research, only a few specific areas were focused upon, as the purpose was look at whether or not different schooling experiences impacted kindergarten scores.

Research Results

Results of Students Who Attended Pre-Kindergarten (Pre-K):

Forty-four (approximately 50%) of the eighty-nine (n=89) total kindergarten students attended Pre-K before entering Kindergarten. Fifteen of these 44 students (approximately 34%) attended Pre-K at the same elementary school prior to being promoted to kindergarten, while the other children attended local, public Pre-K settings within the community. The average Pre-ELA Student Learning Objective (SLO) score for students who previously attended Pre-K was 33.7758861 and the Post score for ELA was 83.1727273. The following table shows the percentages of the students' abilities, according to the collected GKIDS data. This information displays the percentage of Pre-K attendees who met or exceeded the kindergarten standards by the end of the academic year.

Kindergarten Concepts or Students: ELA	% of Students Who Met or Exceeded Skills
• Can describe the role of the author and illustrator in a text • Can identify the front cover, back cover, and title page • Recognizes and names both upper and lower case letters adequately • Demonstrates basic knowledge of consonants and vowels	91%
• Recognizes common types of texts • Actively engages in group reading activities • Can read commonly used high-frequency words	80%
• Demonstrates appropriate questioning skills • Demonstrates ability to work independently	70%
• Can capitalize words and can name ending punctuation	61%
• Recognizes and produces rhyming words • Orally produces and expands complete sentences	50%
• Demonstrates ability to use affixes as a clue to word meanings with teacher support	41%

Pre-Kindergarten (Pre-K) Approaches to Learning and Personal/Social Development

GKIDS data revealed that 90% of the students who previously attended Pre-K consistently demonstrated an ability to adjust to changes in routines and environments. In addition, 80% of the former Pre-K attendees demonstrated self-confidence and were able to consistently work cooperatively with others. By comparison, the data found that less than half of the students displayed motivation and enthusiasm for learning, and only 20% demonstrated the ability to use a variety of problem solving strategies.

Kindergarten Concepts or Students: Approaches to Learning and Personal/Social Development	% of Students Who Met or Exceeded Skills
• Constantly demonstrates an ability to adjust to changes in routines and environments • Demonstrates respect for self and for others	90%
• Constantly demonstrates self-confidence • Consistently works cooperatively with others	80%
• Demonstrates ability to follow age-appropriate directions • Constantly demonstrates appropriate questioning techniques • Seeks help when needed • Works independently	70%
• Demonstrates the ability to pay attention within the age-appropriate learning environment	50%
• Exhibits imagination in storytelling, writing, and drawing	45%
• Displays motivation and enthusiasm for learning	40%
• Displays the ability to use a variety of problem solving strategies	20%

Results of Students Who Attended Head Start:

Twenty-three (n=23; approximately 26%) of the 89 kindergarten students attended a local Head Start program preceding their formalized education. The average Pre-ELA Student Learning Objective (SLO) score for the students who attended Head Start prior to kindergarten was 32.933325 and the Post score for ELA was 83.2666667. Based on the data obtained from the GKIDS assessments, the following table shows the percentages of the students' abilities. This information displays the percentage of Head Start attendees who met or exceeded these kindergarten standards by the end of the academic year.

Kindergarten Concepts or Skills: ELA	% of Students Who Met or Exceeded Skills
• Can describe the role of the author and illustrator in a text • Can identify the front cover, back cover, and title page • Actively engages in group reading activities • Recognizes and names both upper- and lowercase letters adequately	91%
• Can read commonly used high-frequency words • Recognizes and produces rhyming words • Demonstrates basic knowledge of consonants and vowels	83%
• Recognizes common types of texts • Demonstrates appropriate questioning skills	74%
• Activity engages in group reading activities	60%
• Demonstrates ability to use affixes as a clue to word meaning with teacher support • Orally produces and expands complete sentences • Can capitalize words and can name ending punctuation	43%

Head Start Approaches to Learning and Personal/Social Development

According to the GKIDS data, 91% of the students who attended Head Start adjusted well to changes in

routines and environments, and 83% demonstrated consistent respect for others and themselves. Fifty-two percent of these kindergarteners demonstrated motivation and enthusiasm for learning throughout the school year, yet only five of these 23 students were able to use a variety of problem solving strategies in a consistent manner.

Kindergarten Concepts or Skills: Approaches to Learning and Personal/Social Development	% of Students Who Met or Exceeded Skills
● Constantly demonstrates an ability to adjust to changes in routines and environments	91%
● Demonstrates respect for self and for others	83%
● Consistently works cooperatively with others	74%
● Consistently demonstrates self-confidence ● Demonstrates the ability to seek help when needed ● Works independently ● Demonstrates ability to follow age-appropriate directions ● Demonstrates the ability to pay attention within the age-appropriate learning environment	61%
● Displays motivation and enthusiasm for learning ● Exhibit imagination in storytelling, writing, and drawing	52%
● Displays the ability to use a variety of problem solving strategies	22%

Results of Students Who Attended Daycare:
Twenty-one percent (n=19) of the 89 kindergarteners went to some form of daycare prior to the start of kindergarten. The average Pre-ELA Student Learning Objective (SLO) score for the students who attended daycare prior to kindergarten was 30.291675 and the Post score for ELA was 73.777889. Based on the data obtained from the GKIDS assessments, the following table shows the percentages of the students' abilities. This information displays the percentage of Daycare

attendees who met or exceeded these kindergarten standards by the end of the academic year.

Kindergarten Concepts or Students: ELA	% of Students Who Met or Exceeded Skills
● Can identify the front cover, back cover, and title page	95%
● Recognizes and names both upper- and lowercase letters adequately	84%
● Can describe the role of the author and illustrator in a text ● Demonstrates basic knowledge of consonants and vowels	63%
● Recognizes and produces rhyming words ● Recognizes common types of texts ● Demonstrates appropriate questioning skills ● Demonstrates ability to work independently	42%
● Can read commonly used high-frequency words ● Orally produce and expand complete sentences ● Actively engages in group reading activities	32%
● Demonstrates ability to use affixes as a clue to word meanings	21%

Daycare Learning and Personal/Social Development
Fourteen of the 19 students (74%) consistently demonstrated that they were able to seek help when needed. Eight of these students (42%) effectively demonstrated the ability to work independently. While ten of the 19 students consistently followed age-appropriate directions within the classroom, only six recurrently displayed motivation and enthusiasm for learning, and merely four of the 19 students (21%) demonstrated the ability to use a variety of problem solving strategies.

Kindergarten Concepts or Skills: Approches to Learning and Personal/Social Development	% of Students Who Met or Exceeded Skills
● Constantly demonstrates an ability to adjust to changes in routines and environments	84%
● Demonstrates respect for self and others ● Seeks help when needed	74%
● Constantly demonstrates self-confidence	63%
● Demonstrates ability to follow age-appropriate directions ● Consistently works cooperatively with others	53%
● Works independently	42%
● Exhibits imagination in storytelling, writing, and drawing ● Displays motivation and enthusiasm for learning ● Demonstrates the ability to pay attention within the age-appropriate learning environment	32%
● Displays the ability to use a variety of problem solving strategies	21%

Talking with the Kindergarten Team

While collecting data, we had the opportunity to sit down and have an open conversation with the kindergarten teachers. We wanted to hear about their classroom experience with children from different previous schooling experiences. Their comments remained anonymous in the hopes that we would receive complete honestly from each of them. We first asked, "Do you believe that it is easy to access Pre-K in this area?" They expressed their deep concerns on the difficulty of this and the many issues that occur with accessing Pre-K within the community and went on to say that many parents/caregivers desire for their children to be placed in Pre-K classes within the school but there are simply not enough spots for children. The teachers hope that the school will be able to add another Pre-K class to make students' transition into the rigors of kindergarten easier. They were all

very passionate about this urgent need, and this brief discussion left us with an obvious understanding how desperate this community is for more access to free Pre-K education for its children.

We then asked, "Do you see a difference in the children that went to Pre-K, Head Start or Day Care?" The teachers all agreed that students who went to Pre-K before coming to their class could be spotted immediately. The previous Pre-K students were not only advanced academically, but in their self-confidence and the ability to follow the structure of a school day. It was enlightening to hear the teachers express their thoughts on the Head Start program; most felt that there is a need to improve the program so that the transition into kindergarten will be a more positive one for students. We found this to be extremely interesting, as there was not a significant difference in scores between the students who attended Pre-K and those who attended Head Start, and the ELA Post score for students who attended Head Start was even slightly higher than that of the students who attended Pre-K. The kindergarten teachers also stated that daycare programs may be more easily accessible than the other options, but that does not mean that all daycare facilities have quality curricula set in place.

Analysis of the Collected Data

Overall, the data did not show an extremely substantial difference in success based upon the different schooling experiences prior to kindergarten. This data does show that Pre-K and Head Start students did perform higher than those who attended daycare. Both the Pre- and Post-ELA Student Learning Objective of students who attended daycare prior to kindergarten was points lower than those who attended Pre-K or Head Start. In addition, those who attended daycare had more difficulty working independently and adjusting to changes in routines that those who attended Pre-K or Head Start.

We did see some areas that few kindergarteners consistently demonstrated ability; in English language arts, most of these students, regardless of previous schooling, struggled in the use of affixes to understand word meaning, and few students were able to demonstrate mastery of problem-solving techniques. As this research progresses in the future, it is our hope to follow these students for the next three years in

order to more deeply analyze the long-term impact of pre-schooling as the students move on to higher grade levels. Because the process of assessing the GKIDS data is left more to the teachers' and administrative discretion (Georgia Department of Education, 2019), we would also like to know more about the process by which they choose to assess the standards, allowing us to better understand the system that is used.

Conclusion

The purpose of this research was evaluate whether the type of schooling impacts students' readiness for academic success. The data show that high-quality learning environments are imperative for all students, and perhaps especially for students of poverty. Young children benefit, both cognitively and socially, from early learning environments. Students who are in such settings are able to develop a beginning sense of self and of personal initiative, as well as a greater academic foundation (Bakken, Brown, & Downing, 2017).

From this research, we learned that not all pre-kindergarten settings are exactly alike. We also determined that while students who attended Pre-K had higher skill percentages, other programs can be effective in preparing children for kindergarten. The environment itself may not be the most important factor; instead, teachers continue to be the most significant influence in a child's educational journey, and students who have passionate early-care educators who understand child development are more prepared for school (Bakken, Brown, & Downing, 2017). High-quality, effective teachers who have high expectations of students are more likely to make an impact in high-poverty schools (Barone, 2006). Whether in Pre-K, Head Start, or in a daycare environment, children learn, grow, and develop best with they have supportive caregivers who help them flourish.

References

Bakken, L., Brown, N., & Downing, B. (2017). Early childhood education: The long-term benefits. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 31(2), 255-269. https://doi.org/10.1080/02568543.2016.1273285

Barone, D. M. (2006). *Narrowing the literacy gap: What works in high-poverty schools.* New York, NY: Guildford Press.

Biemiller, A. (2006). Vocabulary development and instruction: A prerequisite for school learning. In D.K. Dickinson & S.B. Neuman (Eds.)., *Handbook of Early Literacy* (Vol. 2, pp. 41-51). New York: Guildford Press.

Bright from the Start: Georgia Department of Early Care and Learning (DECAL). (2019). http://decal.ga.gov/PreK/Default.aspx

Brophy, J. E. (2006). Effective schooling for disadvantaged students. In M. S. Knapp & P. M. Shields (Eds.), *Better Schooling for the Children of Poverty* (pp. 211–234). Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing.

Dougherty Stahl, K.A. (2014). Fostering inference generation with emergent and novice readers. *The Reading Teacher*, 67(5), 384-388.

Georgia Department of Education. (2019). Georgia Kindergarten Inventory of Developing Skills (GKIDS). https://www.gadoe.org/Curriculum-Instruction-and-Assessment/Assessment/Pages/GKIDS.aspx

Giroir, S., Romero Grimaldo, L., Vaughn, S., & Roberts, G. (2015). Interactive read-alouds for English learners in the elementary grades. *The Reading Teacher*, 68(8), 639-648.

Hart, B., & Risley, T. (1995). *Meaningful differences in the everyday experiences of young American children*. Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brooks Publishing.

Justice, L.M., Jiang, H., & Strasser, K. (2018). Linguistic environment of preschool classrooms: What dimensions support children's language growth? *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 42(1), 79-92. https://doi.org/10.1016.j.ecresq.2017.09.003

Kena, G., Hussar, W., McFarland, J., de Brey, C., Musu-Gillette, L., Wang, X., Dunlop, Velez, E. (2016). *The condition of education 2016* (NCES 2016-144). Washington, DC: Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education.

LoCasale-Crouch, J., Konold, T., Pianta, R., Howes, C., Burchinal, M., Bryant, D.,…Barbarin, O. (2007). Observed classroom quality profiles in state-funded pre-kindergarten programs and associations with teacher, program, and classroom characteristics. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 22(1), 3-17. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecresq.2006.05.001

McDevitt, T.M., & Ormrod, J.E. (2013). *Child development and education* (5th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Mullis, R.L., Mullis, A.K., Cornille, T.A., Ritchson, A.D., & Sullender, M.S. (2004). *Early literacy outcomes and parent involvement*. Tallahassee, FL: Florida State University.

National Institute for Early Education Research (2016). State of Preschool Yearbooks. http://nieer.org/state-preschool-yearbooks/yearbook2016.

Ormrod, J.E., Anderman, E.M., & Anderman, L. (2017). *Educational psychology: Developing learners* (9th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Straub, S.B. (2003). *Read to me: A family literacy program for young mothers and their babies*. In A. DeBruin-Parecki & B. Krol-Sinclair (Eds.), Family literacy: From theory to practice (pp. 184-201). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

The Governor's Office of Student Achievement. (2019). *Georgia School reports*. https://school grades.georgia.gov/

Trawick-Smith, J. (2014). *Early childhood development* (6th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. (2018). Head Start Program Facts: Fiscal year 2018. https://eclkc.ohs.acf.hhs.gov/about-us/article/head-start-program-facts-fiscal-year-2018

Wasik, B.A., & Hindman, A.H. (2018). Why wait? The importance of wait time in developing young students' language and vocabulary skills. *The Reading Teacher*, 72(3), 369-377.

GALA Membership Application

Fill out the form below and mail it with a check for $20 ($10 for students and retirees), payable to Georgia Association of Literacy Advocates. Do not send cash.

Send form to: Dr. Beth Pendergraft, 269 Sugarcreek Drive, Grovetown, GA 30813

❑ New Membership   ❑ Renew   GALA Number _____   Date _____

Name _____

E-mail _____

City, State, Zip _____

Circle one (if applicable):   Retiree Member   Student Member

Are you an IRA member?   ❑ Yes   ❑ No   IRA Number _____

Home Phone _____   Work Phone _____

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Robert A. Griffin is an assistant professor in the Department of Literacy and Special Education at the University of West Georgia, Carrollton, GA 30118. Email rgriffin@westga.edu.

Sybil Keesbury, keesbury_sa@mercer.edu. Keesbury is an associate professor in the Tift College of Education, director of The Holistic Child Program, and has been teaching at Mercer University for nine years. She has her Ed.D in curriculum and instruction from Gardner-Webb University, M.S., in special education from University of Minnesota-Mankato, and a B.A. from Gustavus Adolphus College. Her area of interest is special education, with a focus on Autism Spectrum Disorders and Behavioral Disorders.

Vicki Luther, luther_vl@mercer.edu. Luther is an associate professor in the Tift College of Education, where she teaches reading and literacy courses in The Holistic Child Program. Her research interests include early literacy skills, effective co-teaching practices, and teaching ready to children of poverty. Vicki Luther, luther_vl@mercer.edu, Dr. Luther is an associate professor in the Tift College of Education, where she teaches reading and literacy courses in The Holistic Child Program. Her research interests include early literacy skills, effective co-teaching practices, and teaching ready to children of poverty.

Morgan Mitchell, morgankelleymitchell@gmail.com. Mitchell graduated Summa Cum Laude in May of 2017 from Mercer University's Holistic Child Education Program. She currently teaches in Fulton County Schools and will begin the Master of Education in School Counseling Program at Georgia Southern University this summer.

Rebekah E. Piper, Ph.D., is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Educator and Leadership Preparation at Texas A&M University-San Antonio in San Antonio, Texas. Email rebekah.piper@tamusa.edu

Roberta D. Raymond, Ed.D., is an Assistant Professor of Reading and Language Arts in the College of Education at the University of Houston-Clear Lake in Houston, Texas. raymond@uhcl.edu

Laurie A. Sharp, Ed.D. is the Dr. John G. O'Brien Distinguished Chair in Education at West Texas A&M University in Canyon, Texas. Email laurie.sharp2013@gmail.com.

GEORGIA JOURNAL OF READING
CALL FOR MANUSCRIPTS

The Georgia Journal of Reading is a peer-reviewed journal of the Georgia Association of Literacy Advocates. The Georgia Journal of Reading is published in the fall and spring of each year and is sent to educators across Georgia and surrounding states. The Journal publishes articles that address topics, issues, and events of interest and value to teachers, specialists, and administrators involved in literacy education at all levels. We invite those interested in improving reading and language arts instruction at all levels to submit manuscripts for publication in future issues. Please view our website for more information at www.gala.org Information can be found under the link "publication."

Submission Guidelines:
Articles should deal with research, current issues, and recent trends in reading or literacy programs. Appropriate topics for the Journal include project descriptions, research or theoretical reports that address pedagogical implications or issues in reading education at the local, state or national level. Preference is given to articles focusing on topics that impact Georgia's students and surrounding states.

■ Manuscripts should be submitted electronically in Microsoft Word, double-spaced, and the format should conform to the guidelines presented in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (6th Ed.).

■ Manuscripts should not exceed twenty double-spaced typed pages.

■ The author's name, full address, telephone number, email address, and school/affiliation, and a brief statement on professional experience should be submitted on a separate cover page.

■ The author's name or any reference that would enable a reviewer to know who the author is should not appear on the manuscript.

■ Manuscripts will not be sent out for peer review until this information is provided.

■ All manuscripts will undergo a blind review by at least two members of the editorial board.

■ Decisions will be made within 8-12 weeks of publication of the journal for which the submission was made. Only electronic submissions will be accepted.

Questions may be addressed to georgialiteracyadvocates.gmail.com