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Emotional Responses to the Reading Difficulties Experienced by Young Children Enrolled in Title I: A Qualitative Study of Students', Teachers', and Families' Perspectives

Rae Ann Hirsh
Indiana University of Pennsylvania

EMOTIONAL RESPONSES TO THE READING DIFFICULTIES EXPERIENCED BY YOUNG CHILDREN ENROLLED IN TITLE I: A QUALITATIVE STUDY OF STUDENTS', TEACHERS', AND FAMILIES' PERSPECTIVES

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Rae Ann Hirsh

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

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Indiana University of Pennsylvania
School of Graduate Studies and Research
Department of Professional Studies in Education

We hereby approve the dissertation of

Rae Ann Hirsh

Candidate for the degree of Doctor of Education

March 14, 2014 Signature on File
Mary R. Jalongo, Ph.D.
Professor of Education, Advisor

March 14, 2014 Signature on File
DeAnna M. Laverick, D.Ed.
Associate Professor of Education

March 14, 2014 Signature on File
Kelli Reefer Paquette, Ed.D.
Professor of Education

ACCEPTED

Signature on File
Timothy P. Mack, Ph.D.
Dean
School of Graduate Studies and Research

Title: Emotional Responses to the Reading Difficulties Experienced by Young Children Enrolled in Title I: A Qualitative Study of Students', Teachers' and Families' Perspectives

Author: Rae Ann Hirsh

Dissertation Chair: Dr. Mary R. Jalongo

Dissertation Committee Members: Dr. DeAnna M. Laverick
Dr. Kelli Reefer Paquette

This research explored the emotions experienced by second and third grade children struggling with learning to read. The study employed grounded theory methodology to study the issue from three primary stakeholders: students, parents, and teachers. Anecdotal observations, along with interviews of children, parents, and teachers were analyzed using *NVivo 10* (QSR, 2010) software. The data suggested that children experiencing challenges in reading often respond with a neurological response of fear. This response manifests itself as emotional distress as indicated by behavioral signs of anxiety. The data suggest that a reason for the anxiety and avoidance could be fear and/or embarrassment of peer ridicule and opinion. To avoid the feelings of fear, anxiety, and embarrassment, these students often avoid tasks involving reading. Teachers frequently misinterpret the avoidance as a negative attitude toward reading, low motivation, and a poor work ethic. Insight into the human consequences of reading difficulties has implications for policy and classroom practice.

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CHAPTER ONE

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Reading achievement and literacy rates have been hotly debated topics in political and educational arenas. Reading failure is often linked to unemployment, higher prison rates, poverty, lower life expectancy, poorer health, and higher family stress in cultures that value literacy (Kirsch, Jungeblut, Jenkins, & Kolstad, 2001; Roman, 2004). The concerns over reading achievement span from classrooms, to researchers, to news reports as evidenced in the following statistics and headlines in newspapers across the United States: "U.S. Students' Reading Scores Show Little Progress" (Toppo, 2010); "Since 1990s, U.S. Students' Math has Sharpened, but Reading Lags" (Dillon, 2011); and "1 in 7 U.S. Adults are Unable to Read this Story" (Toppo, 2009). The U.S. Department of Education (2007) reported that 50% of unemployed 16- to 21-year-olds are functionally illiterate. The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (2007) reported that over half of U.S. prison inmates are illiterate and most juvenile offenders struggle with reading.

Adults who are proficient readers are two and a half times more likely to earn more than $850.00 per week and to be employed in a professional or business field (U.S. Department of Education, 2007). From these statistics, one can surmise that literacy is important for financial, social, familial, and personal success. The crucial nature of literacy has led to the creation of federally funded programs with the goal of combating illiteracy and improving the achievement of students in the United States (Stullich, Eisner, & McCrary, 2007). The most well-known program is Title I.

In 1965, Title I was created under the guise of the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act* (ESEA). To qualify for Title I services, a student must demonstrate the following three

conditions: (a) low academic achievement in reading, (b) low scores on a test of reading, and (c) parents' income level (Dabney, 2007). For decades, this program has served students considered at-risk for school failure. The program has been revised and reauthorized several times. The most notable revision was in 2001 when the ESEA was renamed No Child Left Behind (NCLB). The revisions included a national assessment of Title I effectiveness, tracking of reading scores of students enrolled in Title I, and increased accountability (Stullich, Eisner, & McCrary, 2007). NCLB also mandated state testing, accountability, and reporting of test scores for all students in public education. NCLB was revised in 2007 by President Obama. The changes in his revisions will take place in 2015 which include better assessments, incentive programs for schools and teachers, and innovation initiatives to help all children graduate high school college and career ready (U.S. Department of Education, 2010).

The National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) is the agency responsible for reporting standardized state test scores. In 2009, the NAEP reported that nationally 38% of fourth grade students scored Below Basic levels in reading, 31% were Proficient, and only seven percent were Advanced. Students enrolled in a Title I reading assistance program score 15% to 45% lower than non-Title I peers (Stullich, Eisner, & McCrary, 2007). Students enrolled in Title I for reading assistance have a statistically lower chance of becoming a literate adult and may end up experiencing low wages, imprisonment, depression, and poor health (Kirsch et al., 2001; Roman, 2004). High levels of literacy are crucial for success in a society that places a high value on literacy with print.

Scholars have developed many methodologies to address reading challenges. The methodologies vary. Some models emphasize phonics and comprehension, other models

emphasize fluency, and some models emphasize a lifespan developmental perspective focused on six principles:

1. Recognition of the changing role of reading as communication practices evolve;
2. broadening of the concept of reading beyond word recognition;
3. acknowledgement that growth in reading continues through the lifespan;
4. consideration of students' developing interests and needs;
5. instruction in domain-specific reading practices; and
6. attention to readers' individual differences. (Fox & Alexander, 2011, p. 8)

Controversy exists over the best practices to teach reading. Various federally funded task forces have been developed to identify and research best practices in reading education. In 1997, the Director of the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development and the Secretary of Education formed a National Reading Panel (NRP) to address effective reading approaches. The NRP endorsed a task-and-skills model through its identification of five pillars of reading instruction: "phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension" (National Reading Panel, 2000, p. 2). The five pillars are an expansion of the model focused on phonics and comprehension. In 2002, The National Institute for Literacy, in collaboration with the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, the U.S. Department of Education, the Office of Head Start, the U.S. Department of Human and Health Services, and the National Center for Family Literacy, formed the National Early Literacy Panel (NELP). In 2008, the National Institute for Literacy published the findings of the NELP in a report entitled, *Developing Early Literacy.* The purpose of the report was to:

> Identify the essential early skills or abilities relevant to later literacy development [through a search] for published scientific studies that could provide correlational

> evidence showing the relationship between early skill attainment and later literacy growth in decoding, reading comprehension, or spelling. (National Institute for Literacy, 2008, p. vii)

The report was a search to find strategies that specifically targeted the task-and-skills model of reading (National Institute of Literacy, 2008). Early literacy was defined in the report as reading comprehension, spelling and decoding, or using knowledge of sounds to pronounce words. The subtitle of the report, *A Scientific Synthesis of Early Literacy Development*, suggests the report was a synthesis of scientific research focused on promoting early literacy development. However, an examination of the report reveals that it was not a synthesis of early literacy development, but a collection of research facilitating the task-and-skills model of reading development. This is a noteworthy distinction.

The purpose of the report was not to identify or research the skills necessary for literacy to develop; rather, its purpose was to identify strategies to support a specific model of reading development (National Institute of Literacy, 2008). This was an important distinction because the report has been heavily citied in policies and practices that govern early literacy programs and grants. The skills and strategies mentioned in the report may help some children develop early reading skills and are certainly important elements in learning to read; however, many students continue experiencing difficulties, despite the claims that a task-and-skills reading model will prevent reading failure.

While the goal of the NELP was to promote early literacy development, the report did not help a significantly higher number of students to become proficient readers. Primarily concentrating on phonics and comprehension would be similar to trying to complete a puzzle with only a few of the puzzle pieces. Lilian Katz (1993), an international leader in early

childhood education, suggested the puzzle should not be limited to skills and knowledge. Simply acquiring a skill does not guarantee transfer of the skill. Katz (1993) proposed that in addition to skills and knowledge, emotions and dispositions should be mutually inclusive as curricular goals. Emotions can provide meaningful symbolic connections, motivation, and improved memory, and can strengthen efficient cognitive pathways. A disposition is "a pattern of behavior exhibited frequently . . . in the absence of coercion . . . constituting a habit of mind under some conscious and voluntary control . . . intentional and oriented to broad goals" (Katz, 1993, p. 16). Dispositions can strengthen or undermine the use and application of skills and knowledge and require specific emotions to increase desirable dispositions. The expectations of others can often influence dispositions. Da Ros-Voseles and Fowler-Haughey (2007) offer an example:

> In a public preschool, a four-year-old approaches his teacher with six sheets of paper stapled together in a booklike fashion. Each sheet contains recognizable letters written with a different colored marker. When the teacher asks the preschooler to share a story, he eagerly reads six stories, one on each page. The child not only displays emergent literacy skills but, just as important, the disposition to read and to write. (p. 2)

At the same time, emotions can be a challenging obstacle or strong deterrent in learning goals. For example, high school students struggling with reading report anger, helplessness, frustration, hatred, and boredom (Paterson & Elliot, 2006). These feelings toward reading develop over time and from interaction with the school environment and develop into a disposition.

Teachers' perceptions of challenges are especially important. When a child develops reading skills at a slower pace than peers, the teacher may view the child as having a deficit or having a difference. The deficit perspective dominates the classroom, and most past reading

research concentrated on strategies that targeted the deficit for remediation (Paterson & Elliot, 2006). Students are assumed to be deficient, thus responsible for their challenges in reading. In the current test-score driven climate of schools, educators implement strategies such as intervention, retention, and/or remediation to tackle the deficiency of the student (Ziolkowska, 2007).

Most previous research investigated various strategies to see what worked to improve the deficits in learners' reading abilities (Wanzek & Roberts, 2012). Instead of targeting the deficiencies of students or a specific strategy related to the deficit, the issue in reading could be viewed as a difference. Viewing students as having unique and varied minds encourages a different approach to children struggling with reading.

The vast differences in schools of thought regarding learning to read have resulted in policy and practice debates concerning the most appropriate instructional methods. Educators have directed much research and attention toward strategies and what is said and done to the student. This research concentrated on the student who struggles with reading, rather than on an instructional strategy or an intervention. The purpose of this research study was to explore and describe the feelings and dispositions of second and third-grade students who experience difficulty in learning to read. The objective of this in-depth study was to examine the issue from the multiple perspectives of three stakeholders in the process: parents, teachers, and, most importantly, the student.

The research took place with (a) second and third-grade students who receive Title I assistance for reading, (b) their parents, and (c) their teachers. Students are eligible for Title I through a combination of variables that include (a) low academic achievement in reading, (b) low scores on a test of reading, and (c) parents' income level (Dabney, 2007). The eligibility for

Title I support varies between school district; however federally, Title I is directed at helping students from low socioeconomic backgrounds to achieve state standards in reading.

Both educational standards and reading theory suggest that, by the second or third-grade, students are expected to demonstrate competence in independent reading (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2011; Fox & Alexander, 2011; Wanzek & Roberts, 2008). Children struggling with reading at these grade-levels have reading issues that often span beyond normal developmental variations. The initial process in this qualitative research study was to explore the affective responses the second and third-grade students struggling with reading have with academic and recreational reading. The second process identified the attitudes and emotions that parents and teachers report noticing in these same children as they work with reading tasks. The qualitative data gathered from the parents and the teachers were compared to identify patterns and themes. Emerging patterns and themes offered invaluable insight into this critical educational issue and possible strategies to target affective developmental considerations.

Theoretical Framework

Traditionally, affect and cognition have been studied as independent processes. However, contemporary neuroscience and advancements in learning theory support a more integrated view of these cognitive processes. Therefore, the theoretical framework guiding this research consisted of Masten and Chicchetti's (2010) developmental cascades model of integrated growth, Greenspan and Shanker's (2004) developmental evolutionary model of symbolic thought, expectancy-value theory (Applegate & Applegate, 2010); and advancements in neuroscience which have demonstrated strong correlations between emotions and cognition (Zull, 2006).

Masten and Cicchetti's (2010) developmental cascades theory supported this integrated approach. The theory suggested that the "function in one domain or level or system influences

another system or level of function over time to shape the course of ontogenesis and epigenesis" (Masten & Cicchetti, 2010, p. 491). The cascade effect could explain how a negative experience could begin in one domain in the early years of life and cascade into many systems of development by the time that child is an adolescent. How might this apply to reading?

A negative emotion or experience could have an impact on cognitive development; specifically, later reading development. In addition to developmental cascades theory, a developmental evolutionary model of symbolic thought supports the role of emotions in the developing brain (Stuart & Shanker, 2004). Emotions are thought to be the "architect of the mind" (Greenspan & Shanker, 2006, p. 13) because they are responsible for the construction of the cognitive structures necessary for symbolic thinking. In other words, emotions are responsible for the construction of the cognitive structures necessary for skills and knowledge to develop. Emotions could impact the motivation children have toward reading.

Motivation is a critical factor in reading development. Children who are enthusiastic about reading respond more thoughtfully to what they read and often read for pleasure (Applegate & Applegate, 2010). Motivation to read is linked to expectations and perceptions children have of themselves as readers. Often children will delegate a value to a reading task that is determined by whether they expect to succeed or fail at that particular task. This concept is known as expectancy-value theory (Applegate & Applegate, 2010). Applegate and Applegate (2010) identify two important factors of motivation in expectancy-value theory: "(1) The extent to which an individual expects success or failure in an undertaking; and (2) The value or overall appeal that an individual ascribes to the task" (p. 226).

The field of neuroscience has revealed important processes in the brain that may have implications for understanding the emotion-reading connection. Contemporary neuroscience

supports the structural intertwining of emotions and cognition (Zull, 2006). Enriched social/emotional environments result in healthier brain development, improved cognition, and the necessary foundation for symbolic thinking and early literacy development (Adophs & Pessoa, 2010; Hanson & Zambo, 2007; McCall et al., 2010; Mehta et al., 2009). The study of emotions in reading development reaches beyond methodological reasons for reading challenges and delves into the affective realm of the student to give a more complete view of the reading challenge puzzle.

Research Questions

The developmental evolutionary model of symbolic thought (Greenspan & Shanker, 2006), developmental cascades theory (Masten & Cicchetti, 2010), expectancy value theory (Applegate & Applegate, 2010) and advancements in neuroscience (Doan, 2010; Mehta et al., 2009; Pollak et al., 2010; Zull, 2006) provided a strong foundation for the exploration of emotions, motivation, and dispositions in young children struggling to read. The exploration involved interviews and observations that addressed the following research questions:

1. How do children in the second and third-grade enrolled in Title I struggling with reading describe their experiences, emotions, and dispositions toward reading?
2. What are the perspectives of teachers concerning children who struggle with learning to read?
3. What perspectives do the parents/guardians have on their child's struggles with reading?

Significance of the Problem

Reading competence is critical and is often the target of educational reform. Reform efforts swing from one side to the other, like a pendulum (Stein, 2004), and concentrate on deficiencies, strategies, and interventions. Contemporary neuroscience has begun to uncover the critical role of emotions in the developing brain and symbolic thought (Doan, 2010; Mehta et al., 2009; Pollak et al., 2010; Zull, 2006).

The field of education is at a crossroads. It can continue down the path of the pendulum swing and experiment with reading methodologies born from a deficit model, or it can fully explore the developing student's thoughts and feelings toward reading and learning and explore the powerful role of emotions in reading development. This study focuses on the latter because the role emotions play in reading development is under-researched.

Definition of Terms

Alphabet Knowledge. This term refers to the "knowledge of the names and sounds associated with printed letters" (National Institute of Literacy, 2008, p. vii).

Comprehension. Comprehension is the measure of "students' understanding of a written passage" (National Institute of Literacy, 2008, p. 6).

Conventional Literacy Skills. This term refers to "decoding, oral reading fluency, reading comprehension, writing, and spelling" (National Institute of Literacy,2008, p. vii).

Developmental Cascades Theory. This terms describes when a "function in one domain or level or system influences another system or level of function over time to shape the course of ontogenesis and epigenesis" (Masten & Cicchetti, 2010, p. 491).

Developmental Evolutionary Model of Symbolic Thought. This model refers to the development and cognitive encoding of a symbol. Once the symbol is formed through emotional

encoding, it continues to evolve as the child associates additional emotional experiences with that symbol (Greenspan & Shanker, 2004).

Differentiated Instruction. Refers to "a method of teaching that asks teachers to know their students so well that they can respond to individual needs and provide tasks and learning experiences that move each student forward" (Robb, 2013, p. 14).

Dispositions. Refers to a "pattern of behavior exhibited frequently . . . in the absence of coercion . . . constituting a habit of mind under some conscious and voluntary control . . . intentional and oriented to broad goals" (Katz, 1993, p. 16).

Distal Feelings. Refers to feelings unrelated to the task of reading such as anxiety, depression, or anxiousness (Morgan, Farkas, & Wu, 2012; Trzesniewski, Moffitt, Caspi, Taylor, & Maughan, 2006).

Emotion. Emotions can be defined as constantly evolving, neurological, and motivational cognitive constructs that develop with social interaction and influence multiple domains of development (Pekrun, 2006; Scherer, 2000; Op't Enyde & Turner, 2006).

Emotion Regulation. This term is defined as one who can:

> Initiate and cease activities according to situational demands, to modulate the intensity, frequency, and duration of verbal and motor acts in social and educational settings, to postpone acting upon a desired object or goal, to generate socially approved behavior in the absence of external monitors. (Boyer, 2009, p. 174)

Emotional State. An "emotional state is characterized by the chemical balance, posture, and respiratory patterns of a person in a given period of time (Jensen, 2005)" (Jalongo & Hirsh, 2004, p. 432).

Expectancy-Value Theory. This theory refers to "(1) the extent to which and individual expects success or failure in an undertaking; and (2) the value or overall appeal that an individual ascribes to a task" (Applegate & Applegate, 2010, p. 226).

Learned Helplessness. Refers to the belief that " no matter what they [children] do, their efforts will only lead to failure, never to success…..learned helplessness causes deficits in motivation because children who expect to fail lose their ambition and drive to try" (Zambo & Brem, 2004, p. 197).

Literacy. Literacy is:

> (1) a human right and is a fundamental part of the human experience, (2) not a trait that resides solely in the individual person. It requires and creates a connection with others, (3) includes communication, contact, and the expectation that interaction is possible for all individuals; literacy has the potential to lead to empowerment, (5) is the collective responsibility of every individual in the community; that is, to develop meaning making with all human modes of communication to transmit and receive information. (Keefe & Copeland, 2011, p. 97)

Motivation. This term refers to the amount of competence, control, interest, and sense of relatedness one has to a task (Center for Education Policy, 2012).

Neuroscience. Refers to a field of research that examines the nervous system and how it impacts thoughts, feelings, and action (Society of Neuroscience, 2012).

Oral Language. This term refers to "The ability to produce or comprehend spoken language, including vocabulary and grammar" (National Institute of Literacy, 2008, p. viii).

Phonological Awareness. “The ability to detect, manipulate, or analyze the auditory aspects of spoken language (including the ability to distinguish or segment words, syllables, or phonemes), independent of meaning” (National Institute of Literacy, 2008, p. vii).

Proximal Feelings. Refers to feelings directly related to reading tasks such as: motivation, attention, and persistence (Applegate & Applegate, 2010; Chapman, Tunmer, & Prochnow, 2000; Morgan, Farkus, & Wu, 2012)

Reading Fluency. This term refers to “speed, accuracy, and expression” in reading (National Institute of Literacy, 2008, p. 23).

Assumptions

The first assumption is that students who participate in this study were willing to share their thoughts and feelings regarding reading and have the cognitive and oral language abilities to use descriptive words to describe their experiences accurately. The students gained confidence and trust with the researcher through informal conversations during an initial observation period. Thoughtful consideration was given to the child’s reading challenges and the child’s comfort was established by reading directions and questions to the student so he/she was comfortable with understanding and responding. Students had the opportunity to draw their responses, which increased their comfort level in sharing feelings about reading.

The second assumption is that parents and teachers of those children would be willing to reflect and share the emotions the participating students demonstrated as they struggled with reading. Many parents and teachers felt reading was a critical skill for academic success. Both groups experienced frustration when reading was challenging for the children in their lives. Their participation provided future teachers and parents with insight to help facilitate successful future readers.

Delimitations

This study was delimited to: (a) children attending the participating public school who participated in Title I or special education for their challenges in reading; (b) one parent of the aforementioned participating children; and (c) second and third-grade teachers, Title I and special education teachers serving the child participants.

Limitations

The students, parents, and teachers invited to take part in the survey all attended the same public school in a city suburb. The children represented two second-grade classrooms and two third-grade classrooms in one school building located in a suburb of a major city in Pennsylvania. A larger population of students from multiple types of schools would help support, challenge, or expand the emergent theory developed in this study. Eight parents and four teachers participated in the study. The results were limited to those participants' insight. The surveys focused on the emotions related to specific academic and recreational reading tasks. Data were not collected on other areas of reading that could provide different insight or a different perspective.

Summary

Despite the variations in reading methodologies, the approaches most often found in practice and cited in policy emphasize phonics and comprehension. Phonics and comprehension are but small pieces in a much larger puzzle of reading development. As science explores brain function, the role of emotion in cognition continues to grow in visibility. The goal of this research study was to explore the affective realm of the student struggling with reading. The literature review in Chapter Two provides an in-depth exploration into the developmental theory, neuroscience, and research connecting emotions, cognition, and reading.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In Chapter One, literature that framed the problem of using a narrow tasks-and-skills definition of literacy was presented. Chapter Two includes a definition of literacy and emotions along with an exploration of the following areas: (a) emotions' role in cognition; (b) the synchronous development of emotions and cognition; (c) emotions' role in the learning process; (d) theories of reading development; (e) conflicting viewpoints on the role of emotions in learning to read; (f) related studies of emotions children experience who have difficulties reading and with school; and (g) current approaches to reading challenges in young children.

Literacy: "A Moving Target"

What exactly does it mean to be literate and why does it require definition? Kliewer (2008) defined literacy as, "The construction (which includes interpretation) of meaning through visually or tactually created symbols that compose various forms of text" (p. 106). The United Nations defined a literate person as one "who can with understanding both read and write a short simple statement on his (her) everyday life" (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2008, p. 18). The Program for International Student Assessment broadened the definition of literacy to include the use of literacy to meet goals, reach potential, and participate in society (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2006). Freire and Macedo (2005) included the value of social-cultural perspective in their definition:

> Every reading of the word is preceded by a reading of the world. Starting from the reading of the world that the reader brings to literacy programs (a social- and class-determined reading), the reading of the word sends the reader back to the previous reading of the world, which is, in fact, a rereading. (p. vi)

Each of these definitions added a new perspective to the concept of literacy. The definition seems to be in constant flux, as expressed by Leu (1997):

> Here we stand between traditional forms of literacy and new forms that are continually appearing. What it means to be literate has become a *moving target*, one we can never completely define because information and communication technologies continually change. As the meaning of literacy changes, our role as literacy educators is also being fundamentally altered. (p. 62)

The previous definitions of literacy are a small sample of the multitude of definitions that exist. Each definition invites a specific methodology rooted in a foundational perspective, a concept that is critical to understand. Policy, standards, and curricula are derived from these understandings of literacy (Keefe & Copeland, 2011). When children struggle with reading, the very definition of literacy helps promulgate the methodology used to help the child. Examining contemporary approaches to reading challenges will reveal the definition held by schools, the public, and educators in contemporary society.

Emotions Defined: A Pathway to Cognition and Reading Development

The wide range of definitions for emotions suggests that "emotions develop through social interactions, have an important role in cognitive development, and change with experience and interaction" (Jalongo & Hirsh, 2004, p. 432). Some of the definitions researchers have used are:

- "Dynamic time course of constantly changing affective tuning of organisms as based on continuous evaluative monitoring of their environment" (Scherer, 2000, p. 70);

- "Multicomponent, coordinated processes of psychological subsystems including affective, cognitive, motivational, expressive, and peripheral physiological processes" (Pekrun, 2006, p. 316);
- "A process that is composed of cognitive, neurophysiological, motor expression, and motivational processes as well as feelings, that mutually regulate each other over time and within a particular context" (Op 't Eynde & Turner, 2006, p. 361); and
- "A process in which appraisal processes play a central role; are social in nature and situated in a specific socio-historical context" (Op 't Eynde & Turner, 2006, p. 361).

These definitions suggest that emotions can be defined as constantly evolving, neurological, and motivational cognitive constructs that develop with social interaction and influence multiple domains of development. A review of the literature suggests three important roles emotions have in cognitive development. First, emotions are responsible for building cognitive constructs and for providing a foundation for symbolic thought processes (Greenspan, 1997; Greenspan & Shanker, 2004; Jensen, 2005). Second, emotions are responsible understanding and sharing symbols in the child's environment (Feldman, 2007; Silvia, 2005). Third, emotional development occurs in the context of the socio-cultural early learning environment of the young child (Op 't Enyde, De Corte, & Verschaffel, 2006; Op 't Eynde & Turner, 2006), can be influenced by encouraging positive emotional states (Jensen, 2005), and are an evolving process (Scherer, 2000).

Emotions: Physical Building Blocks of the Brain

As the study of neuroscience and brain imaging techniques have evolved, several parts of the brain have been identified as necessary and important parts in the learning process. The oldest part of the brain is the cerebellum, which contains slightly more neurons than any other

part of the brain (Amthor, 2012). The cerebellum is activated in learning that involves spatial tasks and visualizing movement. The largest part of the brain is the neocortex. This part of the brain contains the second largest concentration of neurons. The neocortex is divided into four lobes: "frontal lobe, parietal lobe, occipital lobe, and temporal lobe" (Wolfe, 2001, p.6). The thalamus receives information from most of the senses, except olfactory, and serves as a gateway to the neocortex (Amthor, 2012).

The primary functions of the hippocampus are processing memory and creating emotional responses to stimuli. It is the most important known structure of the brain related to learning. The amygdala is crucial in processing emotions and guiding social behaviors (Adolphs & Pessoa, 2010). The corpus callosum connects both hemispheres of the brain and contains the most white matter (Amthor, 2012). Wernicke's area processes speech and forms meaning from sentences. Broca's area controls the motor movements involved in speech. The pulvinar is involved in attention because it integrates vision and motor responses (Restak & Grubin, 2001).

The lateral prefrontal cortex is the main area responsible for working memory (Amthor, 2012). Basal Ganglia control behavior. The orbitofrontal cortex is the area concerned with moral judgment; assessing risks and rewards. The anterior cingulated cortex controls neural processing, allocates the processing according to task demands, monitors progress toward goals, and integrates activity in other areas of the brain (Amthor, 2012).

Neurons are the specialized cells in the brain responsible for processing information. Wolf (2001) reports that the brain has about100 billion neurons that consist of four basic types: sensory, motor, communication, and computation neurons. Neurons do not look like typical cells in the body because neurons have thousands of branches called dendrites. Dendrites are receptors

that pick up information the cell may need. A synapse forms where the dendrites share information with another neuron (Wolfe, 2001).

The brain has pre-synaptic receptors, which give information to other neurons, and post-synaptic receptors, which receive the information from other neurons. In addition to 100 billion neurons, the brain has even more glial cells of several varieties: astrocytes, oligodendrocytes, Schwann, and microglial cells (Ullian, Harris, Wu, Chan, & Barres, 2004). Astrocytes provide the structures where the neuron cells live. Oligodendrocytes and Schwann cells provide the myelination of axons, a process imperative for learning because it strengthens the connection between neurons and provides a stronger electrical connection. Microglial cells remove damaged and dead cells (Amthor, 2012).

There are structures in the brain that are responsible for a number of specific purposes, such as vision, attention, memory, emotions, motivation, and motor movements. However, no specific structure is responsible for reading. In fact, Medina (2008) stated the brain was not designed to read; its original design was thought to be for surviving outdoors in changing meteorological conditions and for being constantly in motion. Understanding this is an important concept. With the advent of symbolic thought around 2000 years ago, the brain needed to coordinate multiple structures and processes in the brain to allow a person to read. Such processes work efficiently in some individuals, but not in others.

Emotions: Chemical Building Blocks of the Brain

Zull (2006) defined learning as a change in a behavior, thought, action, or symbol. The internal changes of the brain during learning rely on chemical changes originating from a specific set of neurons in the neocortex: these chemicals were responsible for the evolutionary

changes in the brain (Zull, 2006). The chemical changes are initiated through social contact with other human beings. Greenspan and Shanker (2004) explained:

> This human capacity to exchange emotional signals with each other begins in early life during an unusually long practice period and leads to symbols, language, abstract thinking, and a variety of complex emotional and social skills that enable social groups to function. (p. 13)

Human beings have experienced increasingly complex social and emotional interactions over hundreds of thousands of years that have allowed complex symbolic thinking to emerge. Without the rich, changing emotional context of culture, symbolic thinking might not have reached the cognitive milestones of contemporary society.

The neocortex houses other biological components essential to learning, which include the processors for sensory input, association, and motor movement. These processors represent the biological structures thought to be responsible for learning. According to Zull (2006), "All regions of the neocortex are enmeshed in networks of other neurons that secrete emotion chemicals" (p. 7). Emotions are the primary contemporary function of those neurons. Emotion chemicals saturate every cognitive process in the brain associated with learning and provide the very foundation for learning (Feldman, 2007; Greenspan, 1997; Greenspan & Shanker, 2006; Jensen, 2005; Zull, 2006). Greenspan and Shanker (2004) referred to emotions as the "architect of the mind" (p. 13) because they are responsible for building the cognitive constructs in the developing brain. In addition to cognitive architecture, emotions in the brain allow symbolic thinking to emerge and continue to influence cognition "by providing the energy that drives, organizes, amplifies, and attenuates all thinking and reasoning" (Zambo & Brem, 2004, p. 189).

Emotions: Mediators for Meaning

Without emotions, symbols lose their meaning and use. Appraisal emotions help provide meaning. These types of emotions frame the affective context of an experience. For example, students who have had success with mathematics and have been encouraged to problem solve and take risks in math class will develop a positive appraisal of mathematics. Appraisal emotions can be responsible for solving (or not solving) challenging problems. Students with positive appraisal emotions about mathematics may work harder and longer at solving difficult problems than do students with negative appraisal emotions. Appraisal emotions may also offer an important tool for investigating the reasons for gender disparities between girls' and boys' success in content areas such as mathematics (Frenzel, Pekrun, & Goetz, 2007).

Emotions have been an integral part of creating and sharing cultural values and meaning throughout history in art, music, and movement (Silvia, 2005; Yeh, 2008). Interpreting and creating art, music, and drama involve using highly emotional symbols to communicate thoughts, feelings, desires, and information. Emotional competence has been linked to higher levels of creativity as children "represent externally what takes place internally" (Yeh, 2008, p. 135), which further contributes to the development of recognizable symbol systems in drama and the arts.

Emotions: Social-Cultural Early Learning Environments

Emotions assist the developing brain in the creation of symbols through interactions and relationships. The emotional environment of the infant has a profound impact on the epigenesis of the brain. During the first two years of life, the brain creates nucleic acids that control all developmental processes. As Schore (2001) explained, "This massive production of both nuclear and mitochondrial genetic material in the infant's brain is directly influenced by events in

specifically the social-affective environment" (p. 11). The nucleic acids can turn genes on and off and have profound developmental consequences.

Social-affective interactions, nucleic acids, and emotion chemicals work with sensory input, associative processes, and motor movements to develop symbols. For example, a toddler has an affective desire and then uses physical movements to indicate the affective desire to an adult. As the toddler coordinates gestures and desires, he/she begins to develop language to signal a response to the affective desire. This ability begins to emerge at nine months of age and changes from simple back and forth interactions to advanced methods of interactive problem solving (Greenspan, 2001).

As symbols develop, our brains have the capacity to understand the emotional meaning of a symbol or stimulus before the symbol/stimulus is even recognized (Greenberg, 2008). Children understand affect before they understand language and use this understanding to find meaning in words and symbols (Doan, 2010). Symbols such as letters and numbers provide a foundation such as reading and mathematics (Gardner, 1993). Symbol systems help to facilitate the development of a child's potential or intelligence. School curricula, most notably in the early years, are focused on recognizing, developing, constructing, communicating, sharing, and utilizing symbols from different disciplines.

Symbols provide meaning and transference for different disciplines and for strands of information. Symbol systems exist in different forms across many disciplines (Gardner, 1993). Examples include linguistic symbols such as letters, words, genres, and mathematic symbols take the form of numerals, signs, patterns, algorithms, and operations. Bodily or kinesthetic symbols involve movements and gestures that communicate specific physical disciplines such as ballet terminology and movements. Musical symbols consist of notes, staffs, rhythms, and genres.

Various art tools, forms, and techniques communicate spatial symbols. Symbols are the necessary tools that facilitate learning and the construction of knowledge (Gardner, 1993).

Theorists such as Piaget and Inhelder (2000) applied a developmental hierarchy to the use and sophistication of the development of symbols and symbol systems; however, the processes involved in initial construction and meaning of symbols can be understood by examining the role of emotions in symbol construction (Greenspan & Shanker, 2004; Zull, 2006). Emotions are responsible not only for symbolic thought, but also for the formation of crucial building blocks necessary for the brain to develop normally and functionally (Feldman, 2007; Greenspan, 1997, Greenspan & Shanker, 2004; Jensen, 2005; Zull, 2006).

The three themes previously presented in the literature connected emotions to cognition. Strong neuroscience research supported a bidirectional development of emotions and cognition. Scholars established the connection between emotions and symbols in meaning making and the critical nature of the social-cultural aspect of early learning environments (Masten & Chichetti, 0. The necessity of bringing emotions into the learning discussion was best summed up by Lyons (1999) “Our educational system’s failure to educate the masses of children who are cognitively capable of learning is due to reliance on a model that ignores the emotional nature of learning and the critical role emotions play in the making of mind” (p. 68).

Synchronous Development of Emotions and Cognition

In the previous section, the literature strongly connected the synchronous role of emotions in cognition and brain development. This section contains an examination of the bidirectional development of emotions and cognition as the development of symbol systems unfold.

According to the Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, almost 3,500,000 children in the United States have been diagnosed with some type of emotional problem (Hansen & Zambo, 2007). In addition to emotional diagnoses, a growing number of children also have been diagnosed with disorders that significantly affect emotional development. Children who have challenges in one area of development often have challenges in another and receive more than one diagnosis (Dyck, Piek, Hay, Smith, & Hallmayer, 2006). For example, children with autism, Asperger's, and on the autistic spectrum (children who are not diagnosed with autism, but exhibit similar symptomalogy without the severity) exhibit significant emotional, cognitive, behavioral, motor, and communicative delays. Greenspan (2001) reflected, "The core psychological deficit in autism may, therefore, involve an inability to connect affect (i.e., intent) to motor planning and sequencing capacities and symbol formation" (p. 3). As a result, these children tend to receive intervention services to address the multiple deficits that exist in their development.

In addition to emotional diagnoses, many young children experience a number of emotional stressors that include divorce, violence, poverty, abandonment, and neglect; any of these situations can put them at risk for optimal cognitive development (Hansen & Zambo 2007). The U.S. Census Bureau (2000) identified several familial risk factors for children that may impede reading development: poverty, welfare dependence, absent parents, single parent home, unwed mother, and having a parent who did not graduate from high school. All of these risk factors have the potential to severely impact the quality of the parent/child relationship, which negatively impacts the development and size of the brain and ultimately impacts cognition. Healthy emotional and symbolic development requires adults who nurture healthy emotional interactions from birth (Greenspan 1997; Klein 2007). For children to develop a sense of

symbols, they need to interact with an adult who is attentive to their needs and individual differences. This attentive, synchronous relationship inspires children to search for meaning in the symbols they see and manipulate. Greenspan (1997) explained the synchronous development of emotions and symbols in the first few years of life through the identification of specific emotional milestones labeled as: (a) making sense of sensations; (b) intimacy and relating; (c) buds of intentionality; (d) purpose and communication; and (e) images, ideas, and symbols.

The infant first experiences the world through sensory perceptions. The infant is bombarded with sensory experiences and needs to organize them and decide which sensations merit attention. These sensations begin to unlock the complex emotional world for the child as she figures which sensations are pleasurable and which are not; which sensations she wants repeated, and which she does not. The infant's first task is to make sense of these sensations (Greenspan 1997).

Next, the infant begins to understand social human interaction through intimacy and relating. The child begins to recognize and react to emotional cues and actions from others. As Greenspan (1997) explained:

> Without some degree of this ecstatic wooing by at least one adult who adores her, a child may never know the powerful intoxication of human closeness, never abandon herself to the magnetic pull of human relationships, never see other people as full human beings like herself, capable of feeling what she feels. (p. 51)

This is the beginning of affect synchrony, which Feldman (2007) defined as "the matching of micro-level affective behavior between parent and child" (p. 602). Affect synchrony develops through attuned interaction between an infant and her caregiver and is essential for symbolic development (Feldman, 2007). The synchronicity can predict the success and

sophistication of symbolic play in the toddler years, which is evident in the research on affect synchrony and familial relationships. Feldman (2007) studied interactions between infants and their mothers at three months to determine how emotionally in-tune the mother was with her infant. Affect synchrony at three months is a strong predictor of symbolic development in toddlerhood (Greenspan, 2001).

Vygotsky (1978) emphasized how crucial reciprocal social interaction is to development. The third milestone, buds of intentionality (Greenspan 1997), is marked with the infant's intentional attempt at two-way communication in social contexts. The infant begins to use gestures and expressions to initiate and respond to a caregiver; and "Caregivers can facilitate their introduction to symbols during affect-laden and intention-filled social interactions" (Adamson, Bakeman, Deckner, & Romski, 2009, p. 84). This purposeful two-way communication is the infant's first intentional attempts at verbal literacy. Tomasello and Farrar (1986) theorized that early communication and language develop as mothers follow their child's lead, as opposed to directing their child's attention.

Milestone four, purpose and interaction (Greenspan, 1997), marks the child's ability to understand and use gestures and sounds not only to communicate wants and needs, but also to communicate intention and purpose. The child begins to fine-tune his/her interactions to learn more about him/herself, other people, and the world. Rather than exploring or communicating by chance, the child initiates interaction and has a new focused interest in interactions with adults. As Monaco and Pontecorvo (2010) observed, the child "can acquire, experiment, and refine some conversational competences" (p. 217) through these focused interactions.

The fifth milestone signifies the true beginning of symbolic thought. This milestone is referred to as images, ideas, and symbols (Greenspan, 1997). A child can give an emotion a

name and talk about his or her feelings. The toddler in this stage understands that a symbol can stand for something or someone else and the symbol emerges as the child replaces her caregiver's physical presence by a mental image (Feldman, 2007). Communication extends further than wants and needs. The child communicates for fun and pleasure. This milestone continues to require a responsive primary caregiver to develop. During this time, Adamson et al. (2009) explained, "The child acquires a vocabulary, the scope of joint engagement increasingly expands as the focus of shared attention is displaced from present objects to symbols that refer to them, to future and past events, and to internal states" (p. 84).

As communication evolves, the child reaches the sixth milestone, emotional thinking (Greenspan, 1997). At this level, the child can link ideas to sequences or emotions. The child can name feelings and explain why he or she feels a particular way. For example, the child can say, "I am mad because she took my toy." The child can also plan, create goals, and follow through on them. This kind of reasoning is significant to the development of symbolic representation because now the child can connect and sequence feelings and ideas. The child can elaborate on thoughts and causes for actions and feelings. The child now has the brain constructs necessary for further development of ideas, intelligence, and symbol systems, particularly reading. This is demonstrated through the type of symbolic play and language the older toddler/young preschooler exhibits (Feldman, 2007). Emotions not only help create the symbols a child uses, but also give meaning to these symbols once created. The meaning of a symbol changes with experiences and interaction.

After children reach the emotional thinking milestone, their ability to use and create symbols continues to evolve during the preschool years (Spendlove, 2007). The preschooler begins experimenting with symbols through drawing and exploration of print. Children's

symbolic representations during the preschool years have tremendous literary considerations. Children's drawings offer a narrative look at the thought processes involved in symbol formation. The thought processes usually revolve around experiences that have evoked strong emotional reactions in the preschool child. Without emotional interactions, the symbols have little meaning. When preschool children have strong emotional interactions with symbols in their environment, their idea of that symbol is strengthened and their own representations of the symbol become more detailed and authentic (Spendlove, 2007).

Many obstacles can disrupt the progression and development of these crucial emotional milestones: (a) emotional stressors such as divorce, violence, poverty, abandonment, neglect, and abuse (Hansen & Zambo, 2007); (b) parental challenges such as time management, age, domestic violence, disability, anger management, work schedule, drugs, alcohol, illness, and emotional diagnoses; (c) developmental challenges such as a genetic disorder, brain damage, prenatal stressor, birth trauma, or other developmental disorders (Greenspan, 1997); and (d) untrained/inconsistent caregiving for the first two years of life (Brazelton & Greenspan, 2000). In addition to these stressors, a growing number of children are diagnosed with specific disorders that significantly affect emotional development. Autism, Asperger's, and children on the autistic spectrum also exhibit significant emotional, cognitive, behavioral, and communicative delays. Children who have challenges in one area of development often have challenges in another and often receive more than one diagnosis (Dyck et al., 2006).

Much of the work dedicated to social/emotional deprivation studies and cognition revolved around children raised in international orphanages. Emotional deprivation has been specifically correlated with abnormal sizes of specific brain structures such as the hippocampus, amygdala, and corpus callosum (Mehta et al., 2009). Young children who have experienced

significant emotional deprivation have demonstrated 15%-18% reductions in brain matter, indicated through images obtained from medical resonance imaging (MRI), and smaller head circumferences than typical children (Mehta et al., 2009).

Children raised in institutions where caregivers have significant social and emotional training have increased developmental quotient scores on standardized developmental assessments by as much as 13.5 points (McCall, 2010). Children with significant emotional deprivation suffer with cognitive deficits and varied brain structure and size. While these extreme circumstances impact the cognition and emotions in pronounced ways, emotions might manifest in other ways in children with less noticeable cognitive differences, such as children with reading challenges.

The role of emotions in the learning process itself requires more thorough investigation and attention in school curricula (Schutz & Davis, 2000; Zembylas, 2005). As Zembylas (2005) pointed out, “Emotion is the least investigated aspect of research on teaching, yet it is probably the aspect most often mentioned as being important and deserving more attention” (p. 466). In the past decade, emotion has been more strongly connected to cognition. The ability to regulate emotions has been associated with attentiveness, persistence, self-control, peer acceptance, self-efficacy, decision-making, memory, and interest; which facilitate learning and improve academic competence (Greenspan & Shanker, 2006; Jerjir & Mahmoud, 2009; Trentacosta & Izard, 2007). Before further exploring the role emotions have in reading development, a review of accepted theories of reading development is necessary.

Theories of Reading Development

There are a multitude of learning theories that have shaped individual theories of reading and literacy development. The varying ideas about learning to read can be categorized into the

following theories: Theory of Literacy Development, Maturation Theory, Stage Theory, Emergent Literacy Theory, Social Learning Theory, and Cognitive Processing Theory (Tracey & Morrow, 2012). Table 1 depicts an overview of literacy theories.

Table 1

Theories of Reading Development

Theory	Theorists	Main Concepts
Theory of Literacy Development	Holdaway, 1979	Reading develops naturally, similar to the way oral language develops. Reading requires read-alouds, shared reading, and quality children's literature.
Maturation Theory	Piaget & Inhelder, 2000 Gesell, 1925 Morphett & Washburne, 1931 Healy, 1999	Reading instruction too early can be a hindrance to development. The brain is 'ready to read' at approximately 6 ½ years of age.
Stage Theory	Gunning, 2005 Ehri, 1991 Chall, 2983	Children go through reading stages that usually consist of a visual stage, alphabetic stage, and orthographic stage.
Emergent Literacy Theory	Clay, 1966 Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998 Teale & Sulzby, 1991	Reading, writing, speaking, and listening are intertwined and develop simultaneously. Early experiences with language, books, and literacy are critical.
Social Learning Theory	Bandura, 1986 Vygotsky, 1978	Reading develops in a social context through interaction. Literature circles, book buddies, and modeling play an important role. Scaffolding, language, and community are essential concepts to reading development.
Cognitive Processing	Gough, 1972 LaBerge & Samuels, 1974	Individual processes of reading are isolated, analyzed, and developed from a bottom-up

Theory	Rumelhart, 1994 Stanovich, 1984	perspective. The theory is somewhat behaviorist in nature. Phonemic awareness, think-alouds, context clues, word families, are examples of these individual processes. Cognitive processing models also rely on other processes at work during reading such as memory storage and retrieval, encoding, decoding, and comprehension. This theory concentrates on the biological bases for neuroscience.

Note. This table summarizes major theories of reading development.

Holdaway's (1979) Theory of Literacy Development explained that reading develops naturally, similar to the way oral language does. As the child's attempts at reading are reinforced, reading develops. Therefore, reading begins very early in development and is promoted with read-alouds, shared reading, and quality children's literature.

Maturation theory suggested that formal reading instruction should not begin until the child is cognitively ready for reading, which would typically occur around six and one-half years of age (Gesell, 1925). Reading instruction before that age was considered a hindrance to natural reading development. Theorists such as Healy (1999) proposed that the brain develops in layers and trying to access and force reading too early creates abnormal pathways to more sophisticated layers in the brain. Piaget and Inhelder (2000) also advocated concepts of the maturation theory but also believed experience was an important factor in brain maturation.

Stage Theory referred to specific stages of reading children go through as they learn to read. Tracey and Morrow (2012) explained that in most stage models, "readers go through a visual stage of word recognition, an alphabetic stage of word recognition, and an orthographic stage of word recognition" (p. 201). This means children first recognize sight words, which are familiar words and patterns. Next, phonics is stressed. All new words are learned by putting sounds together. The stage model emphasizes phonics. As children broaden their understanding

of the rules of phonics, they begin to put sounds together to form more complicated words. Finally, students can write their own words based on the phonics rules they have learned and are able to read their own written words.

At each stage, there are a predictable number of words students should be able to read (Chall, 1983). There are many variations of the stage theory (Chall, 1983; Ehri, 1991; Gunning, 2005). Most variations highlight the importance of direct instruction, phonics, and practice.

Marie Clay first coined the term “emergent literacy” in 1966. In Emergent Literacy Theory, reading, writing, speaking, and listening are intertwined and do not develop in specific isolated stages. In contrast, these skills develop simultaneously, and begin at birth. This theory of reading development stressed the concept of literacy over reading. Early experiences in the home are considered crucial to successful literacy development (Tracey & Morrow, 2012). According to Sulzby and Teale (1991), “emergent literacy has expanded the purview of the research from reading to *literacy* because theories and findings have shown that reading, writing, and oral language develop concurrently and interrelatedly in literate environments” (p. 728).

Social Learning Theories encompass language experiences, literature circles, buddy reading, modeling, and cultural influences. These theories emphasize the importance of interaction and cultural norms. Vygotsky (1978) emphasized the importance of language in reading and writing, he explained “that language is the main tool that promotes thinking, develops reasoning, and supports cultural activities like reading and writing” (p. 72). Scaffolding is an essential component of social learning theory. Scaffolding involves carefully planning experiences for children that challenge but to not frustrate them (Vygotsky, 1978). Children need more capable peers and adults to challenge their thinking and help them progress in skill level through interaction and language (Bandura, 1986).

Cognitive Processing Theory focused on reading processors and processes. The theory is somewhat behaviorist in nature and takes a bottom-up perspective (LaBerge & Samules, 1974; Rumelhart, 1994; Stanovich, 1984). Readers begin with parts of words (letters) and build their understanding resulting in meaning. The theory targeted isolated development of specific reading skills. Most of the cognitive processing theories provided models for the development of very specific reading processes such as phonemic awareness, word families, sight-word recognition, and context clues (Tracey & Morrow, 2012). In addition to these skills, cognitive processing theory also focused on specific brain processes such as memory storage and retrieval and encoding and decoding text. This model also delves into the biological side of neuroscience (Tracey & Morrow, 2012).

While these theories vary in influence, experience, and foundational perspective, there is one commonality. They view reading as a cognitive function that develops in isolation from other aspects of development. Developmental Cascades Theory (Masten & Chichetti, 2010) and the Developmental Evolutionary Model of Symbolic Thought (Greenspan & Shanker, 2006) pose a more integrated view of development that may expand the developmental understanding of literacy and contribute to a new dichotomous reading theory.

Conflicting Viewpoints on the Role of Emotions in Learning to Read

Historically, a dichotomy has existed between domains of development. Physical, intellectual, social, and emotional domains are often studied as separate functions that develop in stages or phases independent of one another (Erikson 1993; Mooney, 2000). In school, these domains are addressed during separate parts of the day. For example, cognitive development is addressed in reading, mathematics, science, and social studies classes. Emotional development is addressed in the counselor's or school psychologist's office. Physical development is addressed

in gym class, recess, and occasionally by the school nurse. Social development is addressed at lunch, recess, or in the principal's office. The current trend in school is to have reading and other academic challenges addressed by a regular education, special education, or reading specialist teacher in a classroom, and then to have emotional challenges addressed by a counselor or school psychologist in a setting outside of the classroom (Lyons, 1999).

Rather than the dichotomous view of the past, Masten and Chichetti (2010) maintained that development occurred in cascades. One area of development influences and develops with another area of development through ontogenesis and epigenesis. This is a critical theoretical viewpoint defining development as bidirectional rather than unidirectional (Grills-Taquechel, Fletcher, Vaughn, & Stuebing, 2012; Zambo & Brem, 2004). The concept has important implications in research examining emotions and reading. The current research surrounding emotions and reading has a unidirectional approach. Grills-Taquechel et al. (2012) pointed out that many studies seek whether reading problems lead to anxiety and other emotional challenges or whether anxiety and other emotional challenges lead to reading problems.

Using a bidirectional approach allows exploration of the integrated relationship between reading problems and emotional issues rather than a causal relationship (Trentacosta & Izard, 2007). Masten, et al. (2005) followed 205 children for 20 years and uncovered an integrated pattern of development between cognition and emotion. Emotional challenges in childhood tended to hinder academic development in adolescence, which resulted in emotional problems in adulthood. Greenspan and Shanker (2006) also supported an integrated, bidirectional approach to reading and emotions.

Greenspan and Shanker (2006) proposed distinct emotional milestones that children needed to meet to develop a foundational symbolic knowledge for future language, reading, and

writing development. The emotional milestone theory suggested that emotion and symbolic development were intertwined and influenced the development of one another. The findings of research with children with autism demonstrated that when emotional challenges were addressed, language and symbolic thinking improved, leading to improved academic competence and to more socially appropriate behaviors (Greenspan & Shanker, 2006). Symbolic development requires a purposeful emotional emphasis from infancy on (Feldman, 2007) in an environment that nurtures emotional development (Greenspan, 2001; Gygax, Tapiero, & Caruzzo, 2007; Op 't Enyde et al., 2006; Yeh, 2008).

Emotions in Children with Reading and School Difficulties

The study of the correlation between emotions and reading difficulties is somewhat new in the research field (Jensen, 2005). Emotions were considered too ambiguous to be studied in a vigorous and systematic way and have been challenging to study because they are sensitive, unique to cultural and social contexts, and unique to individuals (deMarrais & Tisdale, 2002). Emotion research has gained legitimacy and attention with the advent of neuroscience (Jensen, 2005); the physiological study of the relationship between emotion chemicals and bodily functions and systems (Feldman, 2007; Zull, 2006); and studies of the dichotomous relationship of cognition and emotions (Greenspan & Shanker, 2004; Jensen, 2005; Zambo & Brem, 2004; Zembylas, 2005). Related studies have examined the relationship between preschool children's emotional and early literacy development, reading anxiety, self-efficacy, socioeconomic factors, causal factors, and distal and proximal feelings related to reading and academic performance. Most of the studies have identified anxiety, avoidance, self-efficacy, and motivation as recurring themes. The studies are presented in Table 2 and are summarized on the following pages.

Table 2

Related Studies of Emotions and School Difficulties

Researcher	Study	Results
Applegate & Applegate, 2010	The researchers studied 443 second through sixth-grade students to determine the motivation these students had to read.	The researchers concluded that the expectations for success and failure for reading determined the engagement and motivation students showed for the reading task.
Croizet & Detrevis, 2004	This study researched appraisal emotions related to stereotypes. Researchers administered the same achievement tests two times to two groups of students – one group was from a high SES and one was from a low SES. When the first group was administered the test, they were told the test would compare their achievement to the rest of the class. The same test was administered again, but this time students were told the results would help identify their own achievement and abilities.	When students were told they were going to be compared to each other, the group from the low SES scored significantly lower in comparison to the group in the high SES. When the groups were told they were looking at their own individual achievement, both groups performed similarly.
Morgan, Farkas, & Wu (2012)	The researchers conducted a longitudinal study of the emotions of children struggling with reading in third-grade to fifth-grade.	Third-grade students struggling with reading were twice as likely to describe themselves as sad, lonely, unpopular, angry, and distractible when they were in fifth-grade.
Trzesniewski, Moffitt, Caspi, Taylor, & Maughan, 2006	In this study, researchers investigated five to seven-year olds who were identified with both reading disabilities and antisocial behaviors.	The results indicated that difficulty with reading lead to behavior problems and antisocial behaviors, which led to more reading problems, and so on.

Morgan, Farkas, Rufis, & Sperling, 2008	The researchers investigated if children with reading difficulties in first-grade were more likely to experience reading and behavior problems in third-grade.	The researchers found that the studied population of children demonstrated more behavior and reading problems in third-grade than the control group of children.
Rowe & Rowe, 1992	Researchers studied 5,000 students in a school setting that were between the ages of five and 14 to study the relationship between inattentiveness and reading achievement.	The researchers found that inattentiveness negatively impacted attitudes toward reading and reading achievement.
Ialongo, Edelsohn, & Kellam, 2001	Researchers investigated 1,200 first-grade children and found that children as young as six were able to predict future academic achievement and future symptomology related to depression and other mood disorders.	Children as young as six were able to accurately self-assess emotions related to stress, depression, and anxiety.
Arnold et al, 2005	Researchers conducted a longitudinal study of the behavioral and emotional problems of adolescents with reading difficulties.	Poor adolescent readers were more likely to be anxious, depressed, have anxiety, and complain of somatic symptoms than their peers.
Zambo & Brem, 2004	Researchers conducted a study of middle school children who had difficulty with reading to determine the emotional responses and characteristics of these children with the intent to help teachers recognize signs of emotional distress.	The researchers developed a checklist for educators to use to determine if middle school children struggling with reading showed any signs of emotional distress. The checklist included behaviors such as fight, flight, self-schema, and learned helplessness.
Damico et al, 2008	Researchers observed a nine year old student with reading difficulties to identify the types of avoidance behaviors he demonstrated in relation to reading.	The student demonstrated the following avoidance strategies: (1) Interjection of off-topic comments or behaviors when the invitation to read was

		anticipated or when it was issued. (2) Picture description or a reasonable extension of the story segment just read to him rather than reading the text. (3) Direct repetition of the text just read by the adult rather than reading new text. (4) Initiation of reading with discontinuance to ask a question about a particular word or relevant topic within the first five words read. (5) Interjection of on-topic comments about the story rather than attempt reading. (6) Direct refusal to read by verbal or nonverbal means (Damico et al, 2008, p. 287).
Denham et al. (2012)	Researchers conducted an observational study of 352 four-year children participating in private or public preschool programs to determine if emotions in preschool had a relationship to academic success in kindergarten.	The researchers concluded that appropriate social-emotional health in preschool had a lasting impact and predicted kindergarten academic competence and developed executive functioning skills.
Denham, 2006	The researcher interviewed kindergarten teachers to determine factors that accounted for academic success.	Teachers reported positive emotions, self-regulation, and high motivation as determinants to academic success.

Reschly, Huerner, Appleton, & Antaramian, 2008	Researchers studied 293 seventh through ninth-grade students to determine what emotions were associated with academic competence and student engagement.	Researchers concluded that positive emotions increased student engagement and coping skills.
Amsterlaw, Lagattuta, & Meltzoff, 2009	The researchers studied five, six, and seven-year olds and adults to determine their understanding of how emotional states impacted their academic performance.	The researchers concluded that while all groups recognized that negative emotional states were related to poorer academic performance, only seven year-olds realized the value of positive emotional states on academic performance.
Chapman, Tunmer, & Prochnow, 2000	Researchers conducted a longitudinal study of early readers to determine if relationships existed between academic self-concept and reading performance.	The results indicated that children with negative academic self-concept had significant deficits in phonological awareness and letter-name knowledge.
Grills-Taquechel, Fletcher, Vaughn, & Stuebing, 2012	The researchers studied 153 first-grade students. The students were asked to complete a standardized reading achievement test and an anxiety rating scale at the beginning and end of the academic year to determine if anxiety predicted reading problems or vice versa.	The results concluded that some reading problems in the beginning of the year were associated with anxiety at the end of the year. They also concluded that some types of anxiety in the beginning of the year were associated with reading problems at the end of the year. The researchers concluded that a bi-directional model might best describe the relationship between anxiety and reading difficulties.
Carroll, Maughan, Goodman, & Meltzer, 2005	Researchers investigated nine to 15 year-old children from a variety of SES backgrounds to determine if reading difficulties were correlated with psychiatric disorders.	The researchers concluded that children from lower SES with reading difficulties had a higher incidence of psychiatric disorders.

Zin & Rafik-Galea, 2010	Researchers studied the impact of anxiety on English language learners with a group of Malay students.	Results indicated that anxiety was highly correlated with reading performance of the studied population of ELL learners.

Anxiety, Avoidance, Self-Efficacy, and Motivation

Denham et al. (2012) conducted an observational study of 352 four-year old children participating in private or public preschool programs to determine if emotions in preschool were related to academic success in kindergarten. The researchers concluded that appropriate social-emotional health in preschool had a lasting impact and predicted kindergarten academic competence and developed executive functioning skills. In a study of kindergarten teachers, Denham (2006) concluded that the most important factors in academic success included "positive emotional expressiveness, enthusiasm, and ability to regulate emotions and behaviors" (p. 57).

Most of the research on emotions in children with reading challenges focused on proximal feelings related to reading (Applegate & Applegate, 2010; Chapman, Tunmer, & Prochnow, 2000; Morgan, Farkus, & Wu, 2012). Proximal feelings consist of feelings that help one to complete a task such as motivation, attentiveness and persistence. Morgan, Farkas, Rufis, and Sperling (2008) studied children with reading difficulties in first-grade to see if they were more likely to experience reading and conduct problems in third-grade. The researchers concluded that by the third-grade, these students demonstrated more reading and behavior problems than students with typical reading abilities. Rowe and Rowe (1996) studied 5,000 students in a school setting between the ages of five and 14 to study the relationship between inattentiveness and reading achievement. The researchers concluded that inattentiveness negatively impacted attitudes and reading achievement.

One of the more commonly cited theories was expectancy-value theory. Expectancy-value theory explains that motivation is directly related to "(1) The extent to which an individual expects success or failure in an undertaking; and (2) The value or overall appeal that an individual ascribes to the task" (p. 226). Applegate and Applegate (2010) studied 443 second through sixth-grade students to determine the motivation these students had to read. Their findings suggested that the expectations for success and failure for reading determined the engagement and motivation students showed for the reading task.

Chapman, Tunmer, and Prochnow, (2000) conducted a similar longitudinal study of early readers to determine if a relationship existed between intellectual self-concept and reading ability. The results indicated that children with negative academic self-concept had significant deficits in phonological awareness and letter-name knowledge.

Emotions related to motivation are referred to as appraisal emotions (Croizet & Dutrevis, 2004). Appraisal emotions can be influenced by culture and class as demonstrated by Croizet and Detrevis' (2004) study comparing the achievement of children from lower socioeconomic status (SES) to children from higher SES. The researchers found that when students were told they were going to be compared to each other on an achievement test, the group from the lower SES scored lower in comparison to the group in the high SES. When the groups were told they were looking at their own individual achievement, both groups performed similarly. Children from lower socioeconomic status (SES) have a history of underperforming on standardized tests, have higher dropout rates, have a higher incidence of special education referrals, and are often identified as at risk as they enter school by school officials and policy makers (Stein, 2004). Thusly, they are expected to perform lower than their higher SES peers. The legacy of this self-

fulfilling prophecy is realized as students perceive the school environment as a negative experience and interpret it as a threat (Croizet & Dutrevis, 2004).

When students perceive something as a threat it changes their emotional state and reduces their ability to learn, retain, and demonstrate mastery of specific concepts (Jensen, 2005). This specific type of threat is referred to a "stereotype threat" (Osborne, 2007). This is often evidenced when students from low socioeconomic status are presented with a learning task (such as a standardized test) as a tool for comparing and ranking their ability with their peers from higher SES. However, these same students may score higher when they do not perceive the task as a measure of cognitive ability to be compared with their peers (Croizet & Dutrevis, 2004). This suggests that bias itself toward children from low SES may contribute to negative appraisal emotions and ultimately lower test scores, poorer school performance, and emotional disorders. Caroll, Maughan, Goodman and Meltzer (2005) found that in a study of nine – 12 year olds with reading problems, children form lower SES were more likely to experience anxiety that eventually led to significant psychiatric disorders.

Appraisal emotions can be influenced through the environment, have a strong influence on reading and emotional states (Jensen, 2005). As Jalongo and Hirsh (2004) explain,

> An emotional state is characterized by the chemical balance, posture, and respiratory patterns of person in a given period of time (Jensen, 2005). While there are hundreds of emotional states, the most common seen in the classroom are joy/pleasure, anticipation/curiosity, fear/threat, and sadness/disappointment. Positive learning states, such as joy and anticipation, encourage intellectual arousal and help the brain attend to, relate, and store the new information in long term memory. Negative states, such as fear and sadness, reduce the brain's ability to attend to and process new information.

> Prolonged negative states increase cortisol and other hormones in the brain and can eventually lead to damage to the hippocampus which directly affects the brain's ability to convert short term memory to long-term memory storage. (p. 432)

Positive emotional states are critical for success, especially for success in literacy skill development. Amsterlaw, Lagattuta, and Meltzoff, (2009) studied five, six, and seven year olds and adults to determine their understanding of how emotional states impacted their academic performance. The researchers concluded that while all groups recognized that negative emotional states were related to poorer academic performance, only seven year-olds realized the value of positive emotional states on academic performance.

Fewer researchers have examined distal feelings related to reading. Distal feelings are feelings not directly related to the act of reading, such as motivation and interest, but feelings such as anxiety, depression, or anxiousness that result from reading problems. (Morgan, Farkas, & Wu, 2012; Trzesniewski, Moffitt, Caspi, Taylor, & Maughan, 2006). The studies often relied on teacher or parent reporting (Morgan, Farkas, Tufis, & Sperling, 2008; Rowe & Rowe, 1992). Such reliance may offer insight into observable behaviors related to specific emotions; however, it may not give a clear sense of the emotions the child experiences internally. Having children self-report on their feelings may be a more reliable choice. Findings in a study by Ialongo, Edelsohn, and Kellam (2001) indicated that children as young as six are able to make accurate self-assessments of their emotions related to stress, depression, and anxiety. The Ialongo et al. study of 1,200 first-grade children found that self-reports at six years of age could even predict future academic achievement and future symptomology related to depression and other mood disorders. Children's self-reporting skills are surprisingly accurate and can provide a valuable perspective into emotional development.

Trzesniewski, Moffitt, Caspi, Taylor, and Maughan, (2006) investigated five to seven-year olds who were identified with both reading disabilities and antisocial behaviors to determine if a causal relationship existed. The results indicated that difficulty with reading lead to behavior problems and antisocial behaviors, which led to more reading problems, and so on, and the pattern continued. Masten and Chichetti (2010) refered to this relationship as "developmental cascades theory." This theory suggests that one area of development simultaneously influences and is influenced by another area of development. A similar study was conducted by Grills-Taquechel, Fletcher, Vaughn, and Stuebing, (2012). The researchers studied 153 first-grade students. Those students were asked to complete a standardized reading achievement test along with an anxiety rating scale at the beginning and end of the academic year to determine if anxiety predicted reading problems or vice versa. The results concluded that some reading problems in the beginning of the year were associated with anxiety at the end of the year. They also concluded that some types of anxiety in the beginning of the year were associated with reading problems at the end of the year. The researchers concluded that a bidirectional model might best describe the relationship between anxiety and reading difficulties (Grills-Taquechel, Fletcher, Vaughn, & Stuebing, 2012).

Morgan, Farkus, and Wu (2012) conducted a longitudinal study of the emotions of children struggling with reading in third-grade to fifth-grade. The researchers concluded that third-grade students struggling with reading were twice as likely to describe themselves as sad, lonely, unpopular, angry, and distractible when they were in fifth-grade. Zambo and Brem (2004) found that middle school children who had difficulty with reading demonstrated behaviors that:

> Indicate a flight reaction: such as withdrawing from a reading situation, exhibiting learned helplessness, avoiding reading at all costs, complaining of somatic symptoms when asked to read; or a fight reaction: such as the child becoming defiant, cautious, angry, or hyper vigilant. (p. 192)

Early reading failure has been linked to social-emotional maladjustment (Morgan, Farkas, & Wu, 2012), which could be due to the perceived threat that reading may pose. The brain processes physical threat and psychological threat very similarly (Wolfe, 2001). When a threat is perceived, emotions of fear evoke a flight or fight response in the body, which causes physiological symptoms of elevated blood pressure and heart rates, heightened senses, and a renewed sense of alertness. In this physiological state, the cortical memory systems in the brain focus working memory on eliminating the threat rather than on higher level thinking (Zambo & Brem, 2004). The brain responds in one of two ways: fight or flight. As Zambo and Brem (2004) reasoned, this reaction is a natural physiological reaction to fear that happens without thinking and is not "something learned–it needs to be unlearned" (p. 192). Healthy emotional development is necessary for appropriate self-regulation skills to develop. Self-regulation helps children to develop necessary skills for handling frustration, stress, threats, anger, embarrassment, and sadness (Trentacosta & Izard, 2007). These are critical resiliency skills that help children persevere in their efforts to read. Reading requires patience, being able to cope with mistakes, persistence, motivation, enthusiasm, and interest. School-aged children who struggle with reading often have difficulty relating to peers and paying attention and often react more aggressively to frustration than their peers (Kempe, Gustafson, & Samuelsson, 2011; Morgan, Farkas, & Wu, 2012). Poor readers are more likely to be aggressive, anxious, have anxiety, demonstrate somatic symptoms, and suffer from depression (Arnold, Goldston, Walsh,

Reboussin, Daniel, & Hickman, 2005; Carroll, Maughan, Goodman, & Meltzer, 2005; Trzesniewski et al., 2006).

Triplett (2004) reported that middle school children who struggle with reading "often feel alienated from teachers and frustrated by social comparisons" (p. 214). Triplett (2004) conducted a qualitative case study of a sixth-grade male student who struggled with reading throughout most of his schooling. Research results of the study concluded that through private tutoring it was possible to create a healthy emotional support system to help the student redefine his identity as a student and experience success and growth in reading.

Damico et al. (2008) described six common avoidance behaviors related to reading discovered in their research of a nine year old identified with reading challenges:

(1) Interjection of off-topic comments or behaviors when the invitation to read was anticipated or when it was issued.

(2) Picture description or a reasonable extension of the story segment just read to him rather than reading the text.

(3) Direct repetition of the text just read by the adult rather than reading new text.

(4) Initiation of reading with discontinuance to ask a question about a particular word or relevant topic within the first five words read.

(5) Interjection of on-topic comments about the story rather than attempt reading.

(6) Direct refusal to read by verbal or nonverbal means. (p. 287)

During the early school years, children work through a psychosocial crisis known as industry versus inferiority (Erikson, 1993). In non-literate cultures, children are learning the tools and roles of adult society and are often working as an apprentice. In literate cultures, children dealing with this crisis often develop their feelings of industry/inferiority by their ability or lack

of ability to read. Children competent at reading are encouraged to explore and to try various tools and roles of the adult world. They develop a high level of industry, which makes them feel competent and productive. Children who display incompetence at reading develop inferiority that can lead to embarrassment, disruptive behaviors, aggression, and withdrawal from peers. They are discouraged from trying out adult roles and tools until they master independent reading. As Reschly, Huerner, Appleton, and Antaramian (2008) concluded in their study of 293 seventh through ninth-grade students, "frequent positive emotions during school were associated with higher levels of student engagement and negative emotions with lower levels of engagement. Positive emotions, but not negative emotions, were associated with adaptive coping and student engagement" (p. 419). Positive emotions increased the students' own sense of competence and allowed them to develop the coping skills necessary to work through their academic struggles.

Zambo and Brem (2004) conducted a study of middle school children who had difficulty with reading to determine the emotional responses and characteristics of these children with the intent to help teachers recognize signs of emotional distress. Zambo and Brem (2004) developed a checklist for educators to use to determine if middle school children struggling with reading showed any signs of emotional distress. The checklist included behaviors such as fight, flight, self-schema, and learned helplessness.

In addition to studies of children, research has also examined the relationship of reading difficulties and anxiety in English Language Learners (ELL) (Horwitz, 2001; Zin & Rafik-Galea, 2010). Zin and Rafik-Galea (2010) studied the impact of anxiety on English language learners with a group of Malay students. Their results indicated that anxiety was highly correlated with reading performance in the studied ELL population.

Current Approaches to Reading Challenges in Young Children

When young children begin to exhibit challenges in reading, one or more of the three approaches are usually taken: (a) intervention, (b) remediation, and/or (c) retention (Ziolkowska, 2007). Intervention consists of providing strategies and alternative instruction before the first sign of struggle to prevent significant deficits from developing. Children designated as in need of intervention are usually labeled as at risk for school failure. Generally speaking, the term "at risk of academic failure in school" is applied to children who are living in poverty; have familial stressors such as a single parent, divorce, or abandonment; had a low birth rate or other birth complications; or have experienced significant events or experiences that may impede their cognitive development (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000).

Preschool children considered at-risk for academic failure may qualify for Head Start programs. Head Start is a preschool intervention program that identifies children at-risk for school failure and helps them build a successful foundation for future academic endeavors. While most Head Start programs focus on early literacy skills, Izard et al. (2001) found that children with strong emotion regulation skills in Head Start were more successful students by third-grade as indicated on standardized achievement tests.

Children of school age who demonstrate low academic achievement in reading, score low on reading tests, and have a low parental income level are considered at-risk for reading failure and qualify for Title I intervention services. Students in primary grades enrolled in Title I receive intervention services primarily to work on building foundational literacy skills. Children in third-grade and above who are enrolled in Title I are typically placed in remediation programs. Children in public education can also receive reading assistance through Response to Intervention (RTI). RTI was created in response to the reauthorization of the *Individuals with*

Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004 (IDEA) (Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act, 2004).

IDEA (2004) mandated that school districts could no longer wait until parents expressed concerns over children's academic achievement. The school had to actively monitor and assess children to identify those who might have challenges as early as possible. IDEA mandated data-driven methodologies of assessment and monitoring, which led to the creation of a tiered system of intervention known as RTI. Most children in public settings participate in this type of intervention. Children are monitored consistently for their reading progress and when a problem is identified, children receive different levels of intervention. If the child is still not successful after the most aggressive level of intervention has been reached, the child is referred for special education testing and help.

Remediation primarily consists of a pull-out program, where children who are struggling are taken out of their regular reading classrooms and provided with remedial strategies that target their perceived deficiencies to help them catch up to the reading levels of their peers. Remediation services usually begin with Title I reading programs or RTI programs. Criticisms of remediation techniques include a lack of consistency between the regular classroom and the pull-out classroom, loss of time in regular classroom, and a negative stigmatism associated with being pulled out of class for extra reading help (Ziolkowska, 2007).

Retention is used when a child's perceived deficits are so great due to immaturity, illness, or performance that the child is thought to benefit from repeating a grade-level to address the deficits with another year of the same instruction. Between 5% and 10% of children are retained in the United States each year (Jimerson, 2001). A meta-analysis of research on retention conducted by Jimerson (2001) revealed that only 20% of the grade-level retention studies

analyzed reported favorable outcomes for the children retained. Retention significantly decreased the chance a child would enroll in post-secondary education, especially when the retention occurred after the fourth-grade (Ou & Reynolds, 2010). Retained students are five to nine times more likely to become high school drop-outs (Jimerson & Ferguson, 2007).

Intervention, retention, and remediation are used extensively in schools to address reading challenges. Each of these approaches addresses the child's perceived cognitive deficits within the five pillars of reading: "phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension" (National Institute of Literacy, 2008, n.p.). The focus of intervention, retention, and remediation reveal a narrow definition of literacy that focuses on the five pillars of reading.

While these approaches address necessary reading skills, they neglect a critical aspect of reading development: emotions. Emotions are powerful mediators, motivators, and building blocks in the developing brain. While the attention and resources mount to improve isolated literacy skills, attention and resources for building optimal emotional health dwindle. This is noticed in trends with state standards.

According to the U.S. Department of Education, almost half of preschool-aged children attend a part-time or full day early education program (U.S. Department of Agriculture, 2009). These programs are often Head Start or Even Start programs, which are federally funded initiatives currently working under the guidelines of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (No Child Left Behind, 2002) and have adopted early learning standards for the Good Start, Grow Smart (U.S Department of Agriculture, 2009) early learning initiative. The policy guidelines adopted in this initiative outline biosocial, psychosocial, and cognitive domains (DellaMattera, 2010). Biosocial development refers to physical growth and brain development; psychosocial

development refers to emotions and relationships; and cognitive development refers to mental processes, language, and cognition. Figure 1 visually depicts the breakdown of these standards.

All 50 states have early learning standards for preschool-aged children. Thirty-four states have early learning standards for infants and toddlers. Forty-eight states currently have social/emotional standards for preschool-aged children (Dusenbury, Zadrazil, Mart, & Weissberg, 2011).

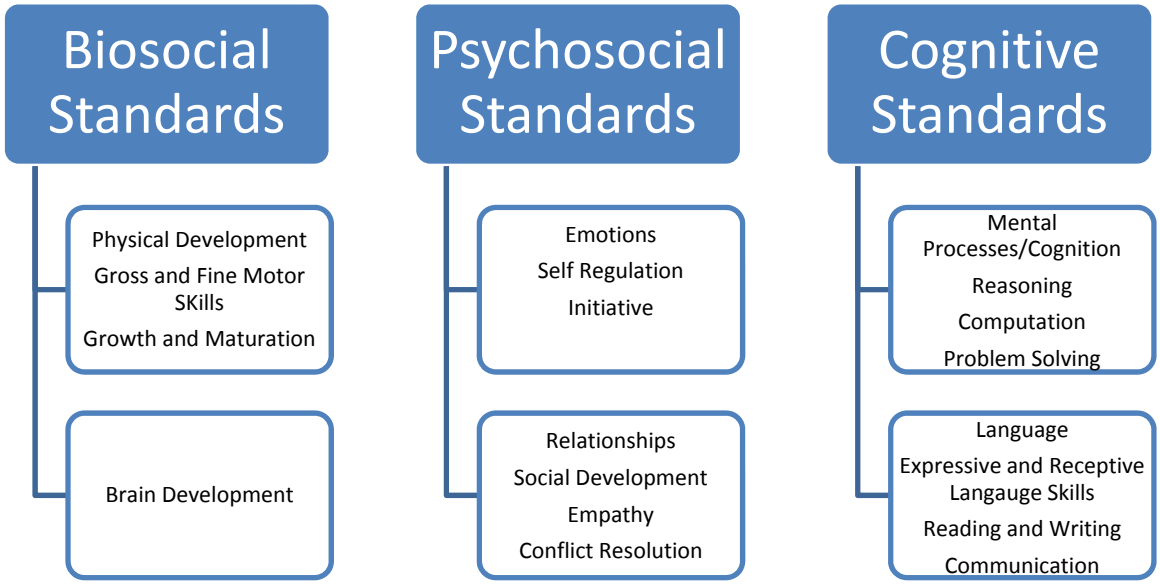

Figure 1. Breakdown of state standards as categorized by DellaMatera (2010). This figure summarizes the categories of state standards as reported by DellaMatera (2010).

Common social/emotional early learning standards across the states include self-concept, emotional (self-) regulation, initiative, pro-social relationships with peers and adults, and empathy (California Department of Education, 2008; Office of Child Development and Early Learning, 2009; Ohio Department of Education, 2012). While these states address social/emotional standards, a thorough examination of the early learning standards reveals an extraordinary emphasis on cognitive development. After a study of four states' early learning

standards, DellaMattera (2010) reported that 60%-70% of the early learning standards addressed cognitive development, 19%-23.5% addressed psychosocial development, and a mere 8% to 10% addressed biosocial development (See Figure 2).

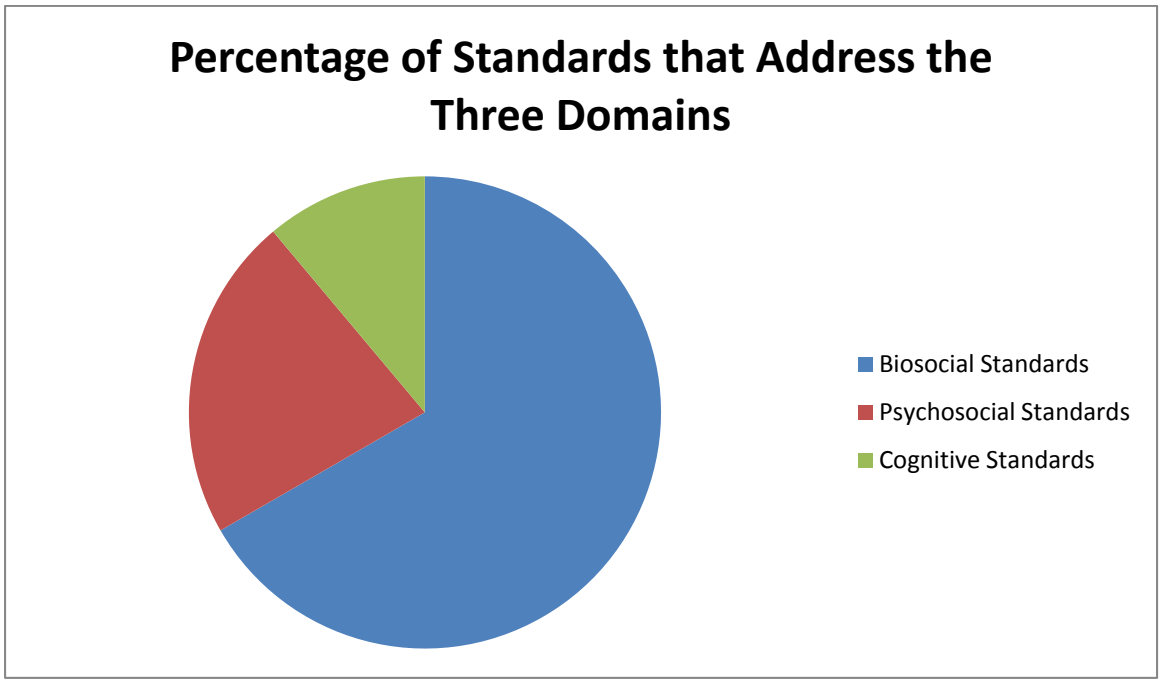

Figure 2. Percentage of early learning standards that address biosocial, psychosocial, and cognitive standards according to DellaMatera (2010).

An examination of K-12 standards has revealed that as of April 2011, only one state, Illinois, had free standing social/emotional standards in their state standards (Dusenbury et al., 2011). Some states attempted to integrate social/emotional standards into health and other content areas. Recent reform efforts of NCLB initiated the trend toward national core standards. As of 2014, every state except Texas, Alaska, Virginia, Minnesota, and Nebraska had adopted the new core standards. The Common Core State Standards (CCSS) were created to streamline the standards across the states. The core standards address education from K–12th grade and have no standards targeting social and emotional development and/or skills (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2011).

As of 2014, the new common core standards only have standards for reading and mathematics with plans of launching social studies and science standards. Social/emotional standards are not even in the conversation. As DellaMattera (2010) cautioned, “This sends a clear message about what is regarded as important elements of human development in preparing preschoolers for success in school and life” (p. 38). The message is clear; public policy encourages a cognitive emphasis in early learning programs that target specific literacy skills focused on decoding and comprehension.

The revelation of reviewing the existing literature on reading challenges was that most of the debate in policy and practice focused on the five pillars of reading instruction. Methodologies, philosophies, assessments, and lesson plans were pitted against each other to find research-based, data-driven strategies that were best at facilitating the development of specific reading tasks and skills. While the approaches could look very different and emanate from widely varied theoretical foundations, they targeted the same types of skills in intervention, remediation, or retention contexts. Rather than one approach emerging as optimal; the above research silently revealed that not one approach seemed to work for most children. Narrowly focusing on cognitive development in an academic setting may be an obstacle to alternative approaches to reading challenges. The narrow focus might be because of the dichotomous past of intellectual development.

Summary

Chapter Two began with a definition of literacy and emotions. It examined the role emotions have in cognition and the synchronous development of emotions and cognition. The chapter then explored the role of emotions in the learning process, theories of reading development, and the conflicting viewpoints on the role emotions may play in learning to read.

The chapter concluded with the emotions children experience that have difficulties reading and summarized current approaches to reading challenges in young children. Chapter Three thoroughly examines the methodology chosen to address the problem presented in Chapter One.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

A qualitative research design was carefully chosen to address the exploratory nature of this research. While quantitative research methods are used to quantify, predict causal relationships, describe characteristics of a population, and to confirm hypotheses; qualitative methods are used to describe and explain relationships, individual experiences, group norms, and explore data that may lead to the formation of a theory (Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest, & Namey, 2005). Qualitative research allows for a richer exploration into an issue, takes place in a natural setting, includes multiple sources of data, employs inductive data analysis, focuses on participants' meaning, is emergent in design, provides a holistic account of an issue, and uses a theoretical lens and interpretive inquiry (Creswell, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). When studying young children, these methods are necessary to "provide all of the information and insight required to appreciate young children's experiences . . ." (Darbyshire, MacDougall, & Schiller, 2005, p. 420). DeMarrais and Tisdale (2002) also recommend a qualitative approach to study a sensitive issue such as emotional responses.

The purpose of this research was to explore the feelings and dispositions of second and third-grade children struggling with reading from multiple perspectives. Emotions are a challenging research topic and have been marginalized in the field of research, even considered to be professional suicide up until the last few decades (Jensen, 2005). Emotions were considered too ambiguous to be studied in a vigorous and systematic way. Emotion research has gained legitimacy and attention with the advent of neuroscience (Jensen, 2005); the physiological study of the relationship between emotion chemicals and bodily functions and systems (Feldman, 2007; Zull, 2006); and studies of the dichotomous relationship of cognition and emotions (Greenspan & Shanker, 2004; Jensen, 2005; Zambo & Brem, 2004; Zembylas, 2005).

Nevertheless, emotions have been challenging to study because they are sensitive, unique to cultural and social contexts, and unique to individuals (deMarrais & Tisdale, 2002). Emotions are difficult to quantify and predict. Qualitative research offers a variety of scientific methodologies to explore emotional experiences and reactions and is a preferred method of inquiry when dealing with topics that defy quantification (deMarrais & Tisdale, 2002). This chapter explains the necessity of using a grounded theory approach, describe the setting and participants, and explore the research tools and procedure used for collecting data.

Grounded Theory as a Qualitative Research Methodology

There are multiple qualitative traditions that include "narrative, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, and case study" (Creswell, 2013 p. 27). This research employs the grounded theory tradition developed in the 1960s by Glaser and Strauss. In this method of interpretive inquiry, a theory emerges from data rather than the testing of a theory as is typically done in a qualitative research (Charmaz, 2003; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Patton, 1980). In a grounded theory approach, data are used "to generate explanatory models of human social processes that are grounded in the data" (Eaves, 2001, p. 654). Throughout the last few decades, varying theories and methodologies of grounded theory research have emerged. Even Glaser and Straus went into divergent paths (Charmaz, 2006). While Glaser preferred an "explicit method for analyzing processes" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 9), Strauss' method of data analysis was so prescriptive that Glaser (1992) deemed it an entirely different method of data analysis. Contemporary grounded theory researchers contend "that we can use basic grounded theory guidelines with twenty-first century methodology assumptions and approaches" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 9). This grounded theory study utilizes the constructivist qualitative approach of theorists such as Charmaz. Charmaz (2006) explains that "constructivism assumes the relativism of multiple

social realities, recognizes the mutual creation of knowledge by the viewer and the viewed, and aims toward interpretive understanding of subjects' meanings" (p. 7). The research takes place in the students' natural school setting, focuses on their specific emotions, approaches data collection from multiple perspectives, and utilizes a constructive qualitative epistemology to explore the following research questions:

(1) How do children in the second and third-grade enrolled in Title I struggling with reading describe their experiences, emotions, and dispositions toward reading?

(2) What are the perspectives of teachers concerning children who struggle with learning to read?

(3) What perspectives do the parents/guardians have on their child's struggles with reading?

Setting

The research was conducted in a public elementary school in a suburb of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. According to the 2011-2012 District Report Card (the most recent PDE Report Card available at the time of the study), 23% of the students who are considered economically disadvantaged in the school district scored Basic or Below Basic on the Pennsylvania System of School Assessment (PSSA) in reading at the third-grade benchmark. Sixty-two percent of third-grade students who have an individualized education plan (IEP) and receive special support services in reading scored Below Basic at the third-grade benchmark. These statistics demonstrate that a significant population of children in this district struggle meeting third-grade reading competencies. In addition to these statistics, the school receives Title I funding. Title I is a needs-based government financial assistance program designed to help individual school districts who service children with a designated percentage of low-income families. The

percentage of low-income families is measured by eligibility and participation in the free/reduced lunch program. A student is eligible for Title I support services in reading based on three criteria: (a) low academic achievement in reading, (b) low scores on a standardized test of reading, and (c) their family's financial eligibility for the free/reduced lunch program (Dabney, 2007). The participating school district uses a significant portion of its Title I funding for reading assistance programs. Beginning in second-grade, children begin eligibility for the Title I reading assistance program. The program involves pulling children out of one reading period per day for specialized reading activities that addresses their reading deficiencies. The support is given to small grade-level groups by a specialized Title I reading teacher. This particular school district was asked to participate because a high percentage of children in second and third-grade were receiving Title I reading support; the location was convenient for the researcher to make multiple visitations; and the researcher had an established, reciprocal and trusting professional relationship with the principal.

Participants

Initially, the researcher contacted the principal verbally to explain the research and to ask if the school would be willing to participate. The researcher then obtained a formal permission form from the principal of the elementary school (see Appendix A). Second and third students were the focus of the research. Educational standards and reading theory suggest that by second or third-grade, students are expected to demonstrate independent reading competence (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2011; Fox & Alexander, 2011; Wanzek & Roberts, 2008). Children who are struggling at these grade-levels normally have reading challenges that are beyond normal developmental variations. Children at these grade-levels are just beginning to

recognize their own reading struggles and realize that there is a difference between their reading abilities and the abilities of their peers (Wanzek & Roberts, 2008).

The researcher then asked the principal for a list of second and third-grade teachers in the building, along with Title I reading teachers for those grades. Consent forms were brought to the school and placed in each second-grade, third-grade, and Title I teacher's mailbox (see Appendix B). The teachers were asked to mail the consent forms to the researcher in an enclosed enveloped within two weeks if they were willing to participate in the study. Directions and contact information for withdrawal from the study were also included. During the research collection period, this particular school housed three second-grade classrooms, two third-grade classrooms, and two eligible Title I classrooms. Seven teachers were asked to participate. The consent form sent to teachers explained that participation would involve the following: observations in the teacher's classroom, work with individual students, and the completion of an interview. The consent forms indicated that each participating teacher would be offered a $25.00 bookstore gift card as an incentive for participating in the study.

After providing written consent, second and third teachers identified the number of children in their classrooms who participated in Title I for reading instruction and the researcher prepared consent forms for those families and asked the homeroom teachers to distribute them to the eligible families. Twenty-four children were eligible to participate and consent forms were sent home with those children. The parental consent forms explained that participation would involve an interview of one parent/custodial parent in the household, their child, and observations of their child in the classroom (see Appendix C). The packet also contained information and directions for parents about withdrawing their child or themselves from the research. The consent form indicated that each child would be awarded a $10.00 bookstore gift

certificate as an incentive for participation. The parents were asked to mail the consent forms to the researcher within two weeks.

After receiving consent from the child's parent, the researcher obtained assent from the participating children. Each child was read an assent form (see Appendix D). The form explained the child would be interviewed and then asked to draw a picture for the researcher. The child was informed that he or she would receive a $10.00 bookstore gift card for participating. The child was asked to circle "yes" or "no" as a way to indicate assent to participate.

Procedure and Data Collection Tools

The researcher spent three hours a day for five consecutive days in the students' classrooms. The time was scheduled during reading instruction and during other instructional periods of the day that involved reading. On the first day, the researcher met the participating teachers, observed the classroom environment, and talked with the teachers. Students were observed in their classroom settings. On the second day, the researcher introduced herself to the students by explaining that she was also a student and loved to learn about schools. She explained that she would be sitting in the back of the classroom working on her homework and learning about the classroom. She continued to observe and engage in conversation that was informal to provide an opportunity for both teachers and students to become comfortable with the principal investigator and to establish trust and rapport. The researcher talked with the participating children before recess, asked questions about objects and books that were on the children's desks, and talked about characters on the children's clothing and/or backpacks. In addition to observation and conversation, the researcher began observing students during the reading activities of the day using anecdotal records. The anecdotal records consisted of reactions, behaviors, conversations, and interactions that related to reading tasks. On days three,

four, and five, the principal investigator continued to talk with both teachers and students to continue to establish trust and rapport. During reading classes, the principal investigator continued to observe students and create anecdotal records.

After the five-day observation period was complete, the researcher began interviewing students. Each participating student was interviewed individually in a hallway alcove outside of the student's regular classroom. The interviews took place during recess and study periods in the afternoon. The length of the interview was tailored to meet the child's comfort level, with most interviews lasting approximately 30 minutes. The researcher invited the child out to a table in the hallway. The interviews took place during recess and afternoon class periods. No other children were in the hallway alcove where the interviews took place. Individually, the researcher asked the children if they knew what a researcher was. The children and researcher talked about this term and the researcher explained that a researcher was someone who wanted to learn more about something in particular. The researcher explained that she wanted to learn more about reading and that participation in the research would involve answering questions in a survey about reading, drawing a picture for the researcher, and talking about the picture while the researcher recorded the conversation. The children were then asked whether or not they would like to participate. They were told that they did not have to. They were told that their parents and teacher knew about the survey and said it was okay if they wanted to participate. The children were also told that no one would read the answers to the survey except for the researcher. The researcher read the children the assent form and asked the children to indicate whether or not they wanted to participate by circling yes or no. The researcher administered the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (see Appendix E). The Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (ERAS)

was developed by McKenna and Kear (1990) to help teachers identify their students' attitudes toward recreational and academic reading. The authors of the survey designed the survey to:

1. have a large-scale normative frame of reference;
2. comprise a set of items selected on the basis of desirable psychometric properties;
3. have empirically documented reliability and validity;
4. be applicable to all elementary students in Grades 1 through 6;
5. possess a meaningful, attention-getting, student-friendly response format;
6. be suitable for brief group administration; and
7. comprise separate subscale for recreational and academic reading. (McKenna & Kear, 1990, p. 627)

The survey consists of 20 questions concerning how students feel about recreational and academic reading. Students answer by circling pictorial representations of the Garfield comic character that indicated the following emotional expressions: very happy, slightly happy, slightly upset, and "very upset." The reliability of the survey was established using Cronbach's alpha, a statistical tool used to measure the internal consistency of attitude scales. The coefficients ranged from .74 to .89, demonstrating the reliability of the survey. For the recreational and academic subscales, the validity study demonstrated discreet aspects of reading attitude. Permission to use the attitude survey is granted for classroom and research purposes in the test directions. This survey was chosen for multiple purposes: to serve as a communication tool for students who, in addition to reading challenges, may have expressive language challenges; to offer an entry point into discussions about emotions related to reading challenges; to offer insight and talking points in the conversations about the students' drawings; and to compare the child's answers from the survey to other data sources including observations, interactions, and parent and teacher surveys.

To begin the ERAS survey, the researcher explained the scale to the participants by pointing to each Garfield character and talking about how each one would feel: "very happy," "slightly happy," "mildly upset," "very upset." The researcher also asked each student for an example of something that had made the student feel each of those feelings. The survey consisted of short sentences that asked the students how they feel about specific aspects of academic and recreational reading. Each question was read aloud to the student due to the student's reading challenges. The child was invited to respond by circling one of the four Garfield characters to answer the question. If students elaborated on an answer, the researcher would create an anecdotal note on a separate piece of paper to use it as a starting point for questions as the student drew a picture in the next phase of data collection. The responses from the ERAS survey explored research question 1: How do children in the second and third-grade struggling with reading describe their experiences and attitudes toward academic and recreational reading?

After the survey was complete, the child was shown an iPhone. All of the children were told they would be asked to draw a picture of themselves reading and then asked some questions about it. The researcher explained that the conversation would be recorded using the iPhone. Children were given the iPhone and recorded themselves saying something into the microphone. The researcher played back the recording. This procedure was done to increase the child's comfort level with the technology used for the voice recording. Before the child began drawing, the iPhone was set up on a stand next to the child and the record button for Recorder Pro 2.3 was pressed. As the child was drawing, the investigator asked the child some general questions such as "Tell me about your picture," "Where do you like to read?" "Who are you reading with in the picture?," and "What book are you reading in the picture?" The researcher also asked the child to explain items in the picture and to elaborate on some comments the student made during the

Garfield Survey. The conversation was recorded using the Recorder Pro 2.3 application on the iPhone 5. Recorder Pro is an application developed by Perception System that allows for professional voice recording that saves in wav, caf, and m4a formats and is transportable to other devices. The iPhone was chosen as a recording device because the children in the participating school use iPads on a regular basis in their classrooms and are familiar with the applications, set up, and look of the iPhone. The iPhone is small, has a stand, and was able to be easily maneuvered in the research/interview setting.

The drawing gave each child a chance to express his/her feelings in an alternative format that tended to provide more comfort and reflect a deeper understanding of his/her feelings associated with reading than the survey or the conversation itself. Children who experience difficulty with reading often struggle with expressive language and/or writing (Catts & Hogan, 2003). Using drawing as a narrative prop gave the researcher an opportunity to not only have the child elaborate on comments they may have made during the interview, but also to ask relevant questions that were inspired by the drawing. After the conversations were recorded, the researcher transcribed each interview twice to ensure accuracy. The transcriptions were uploaded to *NVivo* (QSR, 2010). Coding and analysis of the data are explained in detail in Chapter Four. The conversations also helped to explore question 2: How do children in the second and third-grades struggling with reading describe their experiences and attitudes toward academic and recreational reading?

After the observation and child interviews were completed, a survey was sent home with each participating child for the parent to complete along with the child's $10.00 bookstore gift card. Nine surveys were sent, one for each participating child. The survey is an adaptation of the (ERAS) and the Checklist of Emotional Distress Related to Reading (Zambo & Brem, 2004) (see

Appendix F). Parents were asked to complete the survey within a three-week time frame. Parents returned the survey by mailing it to the principal investigator in the addressed, stamped envelope provided to them. The researcher decided to invite parents to complete the survey in the comfort of their own homes and on their own time. Often times, parents of children who struggle with reading may struggle with reading themselves. In discussing the survey possibilities with the principal, it was recommended that surveys be sent home. Parents could take their time in reading and responding to the survey. They could ask family members for assistance if needed and they had time to observe their children if they were unsure of any of the responses. The surveys consisted of twenty questions and parents were encouraged to circle one of the following responses: (a) "very happy," (b) "happy," (c) "indifferent," (d) "mildly upset," (e) "very upset," and (f) "not sure." The survey had three additional questions that required a narrative response: (1) How does your child react when he/she is asked to read in class? (2) How does your child describe his/her ability to read? (3) How does your child describe his/her motivation to read? The questions were designed to think about reading from the child's point of view. The surveys had an assigned pseudonym to match the parent's survey with the child's survey. When the surveys were returned, each one was uploaded to *NVivo* (QSR, 2010). Coding and analysis of the surveys are explained in detail in Chapter Four. The surveys were used to explore research question 3: What perspectives do the parents/guardians have on their child's struggles with reading?

After the observation and child interviews were completed, a survey was given to each of the participating teachers. Due to schedule challenges and limited teacher availability, the teachers were asked to complete the survey and mail it back to the researcher within a three week time frame. The survey was adapted from The ERAS and the Checklist of Emotional Distress

Related to Reading (see Appendix G). The survey consisted of 20 questions about children with reading challenges in general (not the specific children in the study) and their feelings toward academic and recreational reading. Three additional questions were asked that required a narrative response: (1) How do these children react when they are asked to read in class?; (2) How do these children describe their ability to read?; (3) How do these children describe their motivation to read? The questions were designed to have teachers think about the responses from the child's point of view. Each survey was uploaded to *NVivo* (QSR, 2010). Coding and analysis of the surveys are explained in detail in Chapter Four. The responses from the survey were used to explore research question 2: What are the perspectives of teachers concerning children who struggle with learning to read?

Data Analysis

Data analysis began with a synthesis of the participants' survey and observational data. The data were reported by cases. Each case focused one child participant and that child's parents' responses. The data from the ERAS and the parent surveys were uploaded to Excel. Bar graphs were completed to identify trends and themes in student and parent data. Data collected from the teachers were synthesized next and uploaded to excel to create a bar graph analyzing the teachers' responses as a group.

As the surveys, interviews, and anecdotal records were completed, they were uploaded and coded using *NVivo 10 Software* (QSR, 2010). *NVivo 10* is unique software that allows multiple sources of data to be uploaded, searched, coded, and organized. This qualitative data analysis software is used to identify critical characteristics and patterns from the multiple sources of data collected in research. In this research, the software was used for analyzing and comparing

data among children, parents, and teachers, and within these groups to identify emerging patterns and themes.

In grounded theory research, coding is an essential process that helps derive meaning form the participants' words. Corbin and Strauss (1990) described coding as a "fundamental analytic process used by the researcher" (p. 12). The coding process evolves from the grounded theory methodology the researcher adopts. This research relies on Charmaz's (2006) grounded theory methodology and will follow her suggested coding process. The first step to data analysis in grounded theory is the initial coding phase. During this phase, the researcher asks, "What is the data a study of?" (Glaser, 1978, p. 57). "What does the data suggest? From whose point of view? What theoretical category does the specific datum indicate?" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 47). Charmaz (2006) explained that "initial codes are provisional, comparative, and grounded in data" (p. 48). There are multiple methods for initial coding that include word-by-word, line-by-line, or incident-by-incident (Charmaz, 2006). The researcher chose line-by-line coding for the initial phase. The method "fit" the data collected. As line-by-line coding is conducted, each line is looked at and coded as an action. Charmaz (2006) proposed these questions to help identify the actions:

> What process(es) is/are at issue here?
>
> How does this process develop?
>
> How does the research participant(s) act while involved in this process?
>
> What does the research participant(s) profess to think and feel while involved in this process? What might his/her observed behavior indicate?
>
> What are the consequences of the process? (p. 52)

When data is coded as an action, it allows the researcher to look to the data for meaning, rather than fitting the data into predetermined categories and themes. Each line of data uploaded to *NVivo* (QSR, 2010) was read and coded with action and process statements. Memos were also created during the coding to serve as placeholders for emerging themes and ideas. *NVivo* (QSR, 2010) was used to generate a report of the initial nodes and their frequencies.

The next step of coding is referred to as focused coding. Focused codes are "more directed, selective, and conceptual than word-by-word, line-by-line, and incident-by-incident" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 57). Focused coding allows the researcher to synthesize data and find meaning and themes from the initial coding. To begin the process of focused coding, the researcher ran a word frequency query on the initial coding nodes. More focused codes were developed and the data were re-coded. After the focused coding was complete, the focused codes were examined in detail. The focused codes were then compared with the indicators in Zambo and Brem's (2004) Checklist for Emotional Distress Related to Reading due to the similarity in the focused code themes (see Appendix H).

Zambo and Brem (2004) used the checklist to identify parallels among emotions, self-efficacy, and reading achievement. Zambo and Brem spent 11 months formally and informally interviewing students who struggled with reading to determine: "(1) the emotional reactions to reading that struggling readers encounter, and (2) the influence of emotions on children's cognition, mood, and self-schemas" (p. 190). The authors developed the checklist as an observation tool for teachers to use to identify emotional cues that indicate emotional distress related to reading and that suggest intervention strategies may be necessary. Permission to use the checklist and to adapt it to an interview format is in Appendix I. This specific observational tool was chosen to identify early signs of emotional distress exhibited by readers who struggle, to

identify the general automatic reactions associated with reading, and to identify the motivation and self-schemas related to reading. The checklist is typically used with older elementary and middle school students.

After the data were thoroughly analyzed and data saturation was reached, an emergent theory was identified. Data saturation refers to “the point in data collection when no new relevant information emerges with respect to the newly constructed theory” (Given & Saumure, 2008, n.p.).

Summary

In this chapter, the methodology for using a grounded theory qualitative approach was explained along with the methodology for coding and analysis of data. Information from surveys, drawings, and conversations were collected and uploaded to *NVivo 10* (QSR, 2010). Chapter Four reports the data collected from each participant and thoroughly examines the coding and analysis of the data.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis of this study of second and third-grade students and their emotional responses to reading challenges. The chapter begins with a description of who the participants were and then examines and synthesizes the participants' data. Next, the chapter presents the coding methodology used along with the coding and analysis process of the interviews with the children and the anecdotal observation records. Initial and focused codes are defined and explained. The chapter concludes with an emergent theoretical perspective.

Data were collected to answer the following research questions:

(1) How do children in the second and third-grade enrolled in Title I struggling with reading describe their experiences, emotions, and dispositions toward reading?

(2) What are the perspectives of teachers concerning children who struggle with learning to read?

(3) What perspectives do the parents/guardians have on their child's struggles with reading?

Participants

The participants included second and third-grade students along with their parents and teachers. Seven teachers were asked to participate in the study. Four of those seven teachers agreed to participate in the study by submitting a consent form to the researcher. All four participating teachers were female. Those teachers agreed to have the research conducted in their classrooms with their students. Each one of those teachers completed and returned an interview.

Twenty-four families were asked to participate. Nine families returned consent forms. All nine children granted assent to participate. Four of those children were in second-grade and five were in third-grade. One of the second-grade children was female, the other three were male. Two of the third-grade children were female and the other three were male.

Students' and Parents' Perspectives

Participating students completed the ERAS, a drawing, and were observed in their classrooms for five days. Only participating students' observations were recorded anecdotally; observations of other students in the class were not included. Data were gathered during the observations and from the surveys and drawings. In addition, parents completed surveys and interview questions to gain their perspectives on their child's reading challenges. The data were synthesized below and organized into individual cases to preserve anonymity.

Case One

Student One was a second-grade female student with a different ethnicity than the rest of her class. She had a physical impairment that affected her fine motor control. On the first day of observation using anecdotal records, Student One was observed listening to her teacher read *Matilda* (Dahl & Blake, 2007) out loud to the class. *Matilda* (Dahl & Blake, 2007) is a children's book about a young girl who lives with parents. Her parents do not appreciate or value her and are often somewhat abusive. The young girl, Matilda, develops a special relationship with a teacher who appreciates her for the unique gifts she has and eventually adopts her. As the book was read aloud in class, Student One smiled and said to the student next to her, "I want to see what happens next." As she was listening to the story, she was smiling and laughing. She looked relaxed and comfortable. During humorous parts of the story, she looked at her peers, laughed, and made silly faces. She leaned in to see the pictures. She seemed to delight in the humor of the book. However, toward the end of the story, she watched the clock and bit her fingernails. The

class transitioned to Common Core practice. This period is a designated time of the day where students engage in teacher directed skill building for a specific Common Core State Standard in either reading or math. On this particular day, students were working on a grammar standard involving suffixes. The students in Student One's classroom were asked to write a sentence using a word with a suffix. Student One bit her fingernails as she worked on the worksheet. She yawned, rubbed her eyes, and brushed the hair out of her face. As she completed the worksheet, she sang very softly – "ahhhhhh." The students had to draw a picture of a noun. Student One grabbed her crayon with her whole fist, stood up to see what others were drawing, and then drew her picture. She picked it up and showed it to the girl next to her. Both girls smiled. When she finished, she stood up and looked around to see what other children had drawn. She continued to sing quietly to herself and talked to herself inaudibly. When her teacher announced they had a minute left, Student One looked at the clock. After a few seconds, she left her seat and asked to use the bathroom. During the time she was gone, the students shared their sentences and words with a partner.

Next, Student One's classmates were asked to share their word aloud with the entire class. When she was asked to share, she bit her fingernails. She said, "I forget" and rubbed her face. She then covered her face with her hands. As the rest of the class continued to share their words, Student One brought out a small piece of clay from her desk. She stabbed it with a pencil. She then used the pencil to throw the clay back in the desk. She took the clay off the pencil, threw it in the air, and caught it. Throughout the week, it was noticed that she would engage in off task behaviors such as playing with objects in her desk, after she unsuccessfully tried to read a sentence or word to the class. On another day of observation, the class was working on proper nouns and common nouns during their Common Core period of the day. Student One sat at the

end of her chair and played with the stop light stickers on her desk. She was asked to pass out papers and she jumped up, showing eagerness to do this job. When she returned to her seat, she drew random objects on her paper as the teacher explained the directions. She rocked her chair back and forth and put her palm on her forehead. When the teacher asked if anyone wanted to share what they wrote, she jumped up and raised her hand. When she was called on, she scratched the back of her head and told her teacher, "This was easy" but did not give an answer. She then yawned and balanced her pencil on her lip and looked at her teacher. Damico et al. (2008) would identify her verbal response as characteristics of the following avoidance behavior: “interjection of off-topic comments or behaviors when the invitation to read was anticipated or when it was issued” (p. 278). She eagerly gave a response; however, it was off-topic and unrelated to the question asked by her teacher. This type of avoidance response was repeated throughout the week of observations. For example, the class was asked to write a sentence that contained a proper noun and a verb. Student One drew a picture of the Statue of Liberty instead of writing a sentence. When she was asked to share her sentence, she responded “I went to New York with my family to see the Statue of Liberty. It is in New York on an island. This is where people came from countries to this one. I saw it.”

When Student One was invited to participate in the ERAS, she skipped out of the classroom and smiled at the researcher. On the ERAS, Student One reported feeling generally “happy” with both recreational and academic reading. Even though she demonstrated many avoidance behaviors in the classroom with reading, she gave only “happy” and “very happy” responses on the ERAS survey.

When asked to complete the drawing, Student One drew herself outside, sitting in a chair and reading next to her younger sister (See Figure 3). Both she and her sister were smiling in the picture. The chairs were outside under a sunny sky. She used lots of color in her picture. She stated, “I draw my younger sister because she is more like me and I draw her like me. She has one more year of preschool. She needs to be smaller than me.” She also indicated that she reads books to her younger sister about characters such as *Dora the Explorer*. During the interview she talked about having an older sister. When asked if the older sister reads to her, she responded, “Sometimes, but I usually read myself.

Figure 3. Student one’s drawing.

I know how to read so I go in my room and read or outside. I have a tree outside, and I go outside, and my sister hands me the book, and I read in my tree for peace and quiet.”

When asked why she reads in the tree, she responded, “Because I can think better. I can’t think with noise. I can’t think or read.” This response showed insight into her understanding of her own reading strategies. This is referred to as metacognitive thought. Martinez (2006) describes metacognitive thought as “the monitoring and control of thought.” The student recognized that a quiet environment, free from distraction and peers, was a better place for her to

read and think. This type of environment would also allow her to read without the fear of peer ridicule.

Student One's parent reported that this student felt "happy" with reading a book a rainy Saturday, reading for fun at home, getting a book for a present, spending free time reading, starting a new book, reading during the summer, going to a bookstore, reading in school, reading other school books in school, learning from a book, when it's time for reading class. The parent indicated the his/her child would feel "indifferent" with reading a book in school during free time, reading different kinds of books, and feeling indifferent toward the stories she reads in class. Parent One felt that his/her daughter would feel "mildly upset" when her teacher would ask her questions about what she reads, reading instead of playing, completing reading workbook pages and worksheets, reading out loud in class, using a dictionary, and taking a reading test. Parent One reported that his/her daughter "seemed to really like reading in her special class with [name omitted], but seemed a bit nervous about reading in front of her whole class." Parent One explained that, despite the fact that his/her daughter states she has difficulty with reading, the child frequently tries to read environmental print in places out in the community such as "stores and museums." The parent indicated that her daughter "has trouble reading."

Student One and Parent One's survey responses to recreational reading were very similar. However, the responses to academic reading were quite different. Student One reported feeling "happy" with most academic reading tasks. Student One's picture was full of smiles and sunshine. In contrast, Parent One reported his/her daughter feeling "mildly upset" with most of those tasks, which was more consistent with the behaviors of avoidance witnessed in the classroom. Parent One's responses to the survey indicated he/she was aware of his/her daughter's

struggles with reading, but did not mention the avoidance behaviors Student One demonstrated in the classroom.

Case Two

Student Two was a male third-grade student. He was slightly taller and heavier than the rest of the students in his class. He wore a black bracelet on his wrist that he constantly played with by pulling on it and letting it snap back onto his wrist. On the first day of observation with anecdotal note taking, Student Two was observed finishing reading workbook pages. As the observation began, Student Two finished the last question, closed his workbook, and put his head down on his desk. Student Two's teacher asked the class to open their workbooks to check their answers. The teacher would ask the questions on the workbook pages and expect the students to recite the answers. Student Two mouthed answers, but did not say anything out loud. He erased his work frequently and wrote down the correct answers.

On the second day of observation, Student Two was observed making up a spelling test due to a school absence. The students who missed the spelling test were asked to find a spot in the hallway. Another student in the class was designated as the spelling teacher. Her job was to read the list of spelling words to those students in order for the students to make up the test. Student Two covered his face with his hands, rubbed his face, and talked to himself during the test, which is referred to as self-guided speech. He hid the test from other students in the hallway by covering it with his arms. When the test was completed, students went back into the classroom for independent reading. As soon as Student Two stepped back into the classroom, he asked his teacher if he could use the restroom. After a few minutes, the teacher asked another child to check on Student Two and ask him to return to the classroom. A few minutes later, Student Two returned. He sat at his desk without opening his book for independent reading. He

sat very quietly and watched his teacher until the bell rang to indicate that the class period was over.

On the ERAS, Student Two indicated feeling "very happy" and a "little happy" with most recreational reading tasks. Student Two reported feeling a "little happy" with many academic reading tasks; however, this student reported feeling a "little upset" when it's time for reading class, reading out loud in class, and taking a reading a test. These responses were in contrast to the observations made in the classroom. Student Two rarely smiled, continually covered his head with his hands during class, often looked at the floor during class, and would stare silently at his book or workbook page when asked to read aloud or share an answer in class. Student Two appeared to be attempting to avoid reading in class. For example, Student Two was partnered with two girls during a small group reading task. Student Two immediately opened his reading book and looked at each page of the text the group had to read. He asked the girls in his group if he could read specific page numbers. These page numbers had the least amount of text on them. The girls agreed. When the other girls were reading, Student Two carefully watched to see when they turned the pages and then he turned his page. As the girls read, he constantly covered his eyes and the top part of his head with his hands. Student Two rubbed his forehead. When it was his turn he had a difficult time reading his part. Whenever he would pronounce a word incorrectly, he would say "Wait." After the story, students were given a comprehension worksheet to complete. He told the girls to read the sentences and he would provide the answers.

Student Two drew a picture of himself reading next to a desk. He did not include any facial expression or detail (See Figure 4). He chose to draw his picture with a thin black marker. When asked about the picture, he indicated that he was reading "*Nate the Great* (Sharmat & Simont, 1977) in a classroom where there was a bookshelf."

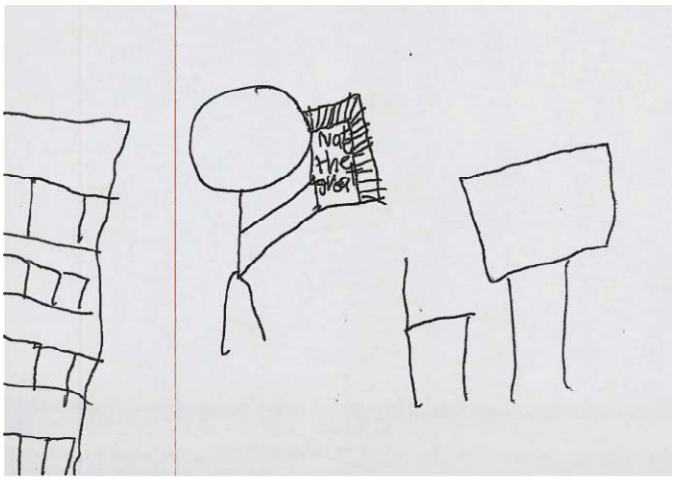

Figure 4. Student two's drawing.

After he shared that information, he asked, "Can I go to recess now, I know my class already left." The interview with this student ended quickly. Student Two's parent did not complete the parent survey.

Case Three

Student Three was a third-grade male student of average size. He wore dressier shirts than most of the other students. His clothes were neat, usually designer, and appeared new. On the first day of observation with anecdotal note taking, Student Three was observed during reading class. The teacher was calling on students to read part of a reading story out loud to the rest of the class. When Student Three was called on to read, his face turned red, he covered the top of his head with his hands, looked straight down, pulled on a strand of hair and wrapped it around his finger. He stared at the reading page. His teacher came over and stood by him. He continued to stare and twirl his hair. His teacher called on someone else to read the page. Student Three sighed and sat back in his chair.

During another observation period, students were finishing workbook pages. After the pages were complete, the teacher asked the students to correct their own work. She would read

the question and the students would answer the question as a group. Student Three did not participate in reciting the answers. He erased many of his answers and wrote down the correct ones. After the teacher went through each question, she asked the class for their results, “Please raise your hand if you had one answer wrong. Two answers wrong. Three answers wrong. More than three answers wrong.” Student Three did not raise his hand to indicate he had any incorrect answers. Student Three was often observed erasing answers on workbook pages and worksheets and changing them to correct responses. On the final day of observation, Student Three’s class was instructed to complete a “quick write” after reviewing paragraph development. This is a writing process in class in which the students are familiar. A quick write consists of a five sentence paragraph about a designated topic that students needed to complete in fifteen minutes. Students had completed similar quick write assignments previously. Student Three repeatedly erased his work as he completed his paragraph. His teacher walked around the room. When the teacher stopped by his desk, he began to kick the chairs legs of his desk and chew on the top of his eraser. He did not write while the teacher stood near him. After she left, he looked at the paper of the student’ seated next to him. He erased his work again and then asked his teacher for an additional piece of paper. He began his paragraph over on the new piece of paper. As students finished writing their paragraphs, they were asked if they needed to use the restroom. Student Three asked to use the restroom and remained in the restroom the longest. When he returned to the classroom, students were in small groups sharing their paragraphs. He missed most of the sharing time, but proceeded to a small group with his paragraph. He listened to other students’ paragraphs in his group, but did not share his nor contribute anything to the small group conversation.

Student Three was eager to work with the researcher. He stated, “I can’t wait for this” as the researcher led him to the interview area in the hallway. Student Three reported feeling a “little upset” with most recreational reading tasks and a “little happy” with most academic reading tasks. Student Three drew himself sitting at a desk reading a book (See Figure 5). When asked about his picture, Student Three responded:

> I'm usually outside during summer. My brother made a game called racquet ball. Pretend this is a hill. It goes deep in the hill. If your ball goes past the post, you are out. You have to try to keep it in to get a goal. And if there is a net, and your ball goes down there, you can go on their side and in their ditch and shoot the ball into their net. But you have to run your hand. And if they get a goal on you have to do a net shot. And if it's overhead, they have to take a goal shot. If it gets in the ditch, if you hit it and it bounces out, it counts as a ditch shot. You have to take a shot from the ditch and keep it on the ground.

Student Three’s initial response to his drawing was interesting and consistent with Damico et al. (2011) noted avoidance behaviors. This student responded with off-topic conversation frequently during class, especially during small group work. After the student shared this story, the researcher then responded, “Wow, that really sounds like a great game. I’d like to play that. Let’s go back to your drawing.”

> I am reading here *Nate the Great* (Sharmat & Simont, 1977) but sometimes when I read it, but I go to (name omitted) for reading and I do the DIBELS (Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills) thing and I'm really good at the DIBELS thing but I am not a fast reader. My retell is a 4 out of a 5. I've never got to a 1 on retell. I like the retell on the stories, but sometimes I get nervous cause, my ideas get a little nervous, cause I might forget a little bit about it and that will lower my grade.

Figure 5. Student three's drawing.

The researcher then asked, "So when somebody else is asking you questions about stuff, it's nerve-wracking?" "Yeah, it's like when I have that reading thing and somebody else won't do it. So I kinda answered every single question." "Was it hard?" "Not that hard because we were allowed to look in the story and find the answer. Sometimes, in class though, you have to remember." When asked how the student felt about reading out loud, Student Three responded, "To me, I don't want to read out loud if I mess up on a word. That kind of sucks, you know? I have to read it, not every time I want to read it." "That's why I drew the sad face, that's how I feel when I read out loud in school."

During the observations Student Three demonstrated significant behaviors that indicated avoidance and a dislike for academic reading tasks. He was able to articulate his feelings during the interview.

Student Three's parent, however, was unsure of how his/her child felt about many of the reading tasks. In response to how Student Three would feel about reading a book on a rainy

Saturday, getting a book for a present, spending free time reading, reading during the summer, going to a bookstore, reading different kinds of books, reading in school, reading other school books in school, when it's time for reading class, using a dictionary and when it's time for reading class, Parent Three indicated he/she was "not sure" how his/her child would feel. Parent Three reported the child would feel "indifferent" reading a book in school during free time, reading for fun at home, starting a new book, when a teacher asks him questions about what he reads, completing workbooks pages and worksheets, and learning from a book.

Parent Three indicated his/her child would feel "mildly upset" reading instead of playing, and reading out loud in class. This was confirmed when the parent responded to the narrative question on the survey, "How does your child react when he/she is asked to read in class?" Parent Three wrote, "I think he feels self-conscious, because he doesn't read as well as other children – he doesn't want to be made fun of." In response to the narrative question, "How does your child describe his/her ability to read?" Parent Three responded, "Not as well as other children." Parent three indicated that his/her child "doesn't" describe his/her motivation to read.

While Parent Three indicated that his/her child feels self-conscious about reading and is afraid of being made fun of in class, he/she didn't seem to voice the anxiety the child experienced in class or noted during the observations. The parent was unsure of most of the survey responses and only indicated two tasks, reading instead of playing and reading out loud in class that would cause the student a negative feeling.

Case Four

Student Four was a male third-grade student of average size. He wore rock band t-shirts and brand new tennis-shoes. The first day of observation with Student Four occurred during independent reading. Students were called in groups to use the restroom. Students were expected to be engaged in silent reading while they waited for their turn and while other students were using the restroom. Student Four did not return from the bathroom until the silent reading was over. This type of avoidance was very common with many of the students in the study. The restroom offered a convenient escape from reading silently and/or reading out loud in class. In addition to using the restroom, Student Four found other methods for avoiding reading. During another observation during silent reading, Student Four's teacher sent another student to the restroom to bring Student Four back to the classroom. After he returned, the teacher asked him to find his book for silent reading. Student Four retrieved a book from his desk and flipped through the pages. He opened to what seemed a random page and began to mouth words without looking at the page of his book. He continued this until silent reading ended.

During another reading task, Student Four used conversation and off topic behaviors as an avoidance method. The following observation notes are an example of the common avoidance methods he used. Students were assigned a partner and a place in the classroom to read together. Students were instructed to take turns reading a story out of their reading books and answer comprehension questions about the story on a worksheet. Student Four and his partner sat on the floor. Instead of reading, they talked about recess. The conversation was initiated by Student Four. When the classroom teacher walked by, Student Four and his partner, they would turn a page in their book. Several minutes later, the classroom teacher asked Student Four and his partner if they were finished. Student Four looked at his partner and said, "We finished the whole

story, right?" The partner responded, "Yes." The teacher then instructed the two students to complete the worksheet. Student Four told his partner he needed a pencil. The partner began to fill in answers on the worksheet, using the book as a reference. Student Four leisurely walked over to his desk to find a pencil. He played with the erasers on his desk for a few minutes, and then walked back to his partner. By the time Student Four reached his partner, the worksheet was completed. Student Four smiled, closed his book, and put it under his arm. Student Four and his partner continued to talk about recess until it was time to go back to their seats. Student Four asked, "Are we going to play four-square today?" The other student responded, "Yes, but let's make it boys today and no girls." Student Four said, "What about [student name omitted], she's really good. The other student said, "Yes, but then all the girls will play, even [student name omitted]. Student Four said, "Oh, yeah I guess." Student Four then looked down at the ground and said, "What if we don't have recess if it rains?" The other student responded, "Doesn't look like rain."

Student Four reported feeling a "little happy" and "very happy" for most recreational and academic reading questions. This was surprising, given the extent to which Student Four manipulates the circumstances to avoid reading. The student indicated feeling a "little upset" getting a book for a present, completing reading workbook pages and worksheets, and taking a reading test. The student reported feeling "very upset" reading out loud in class, reading during summer vacation, and reading instead of playing. Student Four drew himself sitting at a desk in school and reading (See Figure 6). When asked about his picture, he responded, "I am putting my feet up on the bars on my desk and relaxing." The researcher then asked, "I see, are you relaxed when you read?" "Not in school, I look like this." Student Four then drew a large face

with a sad expression. The researcher asked, “Reading makes you feel this way?” Student Four responded, “Yeah, just in school.”

Figure 6. Student four’s drawing.

Student Four’s parent reported the student feeling “happy” with reading a book on a rainy Saturday, reading a book in school during free time, getting a book for a present, spending free time reading, reading during the summer, reading different kinds of books, completing reading workbook pages, reading other school books in school, learning from a book, when it’s time for reading class, taking a reading test and when a teacher asks questions about what he read. Parent Four indicated the student felt “mildly upset” reading for fun at home, starting a new book, going to a bookstore, and reading in school.

Parent Four indicated his/her child felt “mildly upset” reading out loud in class. In addition, Parent Four wrote, “He seems fine when asked to read aloud with a reading specialist but upset when reading out loud in class. He is fine with reading in class and I know because he will tell me the story when he gets home.” Parent Four stated that his/her student prefers to read

aloud with his reading specialist, but does not like to read out loud in class. Parent Four believes his/her child does well in reading class because he can retell the story when he gets home from school. Parent Four believed that his/her child prefers the small class with the reading specialist and wants to stay in that class. When asked how Parent Four's son described his reading abilities, Parent Four replied, "He feels he is an okay reader, but not the best reader. When I asked him to read with me to leave his extra reading class he says no, he likes the reading class. He doesn't see leaving this extra group as a good thing." At home, Parent Four stated that "When we pick out library books, he volunteers every time to select first. When I ask him to read at home without me, it can be a fight. But after he gets started, he is happy to continue. He is also proud to tell the story." He will argue when it is time to read at home, but after he begins his mood improves and he likes to retell the story.

Case Five

Student Five was a female in second-grade. She was thin with a very pale complexion. She was missing most of her eyelashes and eyebrows. The whites of her eyes were often red. During the first observation, Student Five was observed in her regular classroom during reading. The students were working on a group noun activity. The students had 12 minutes to list nouns that began with the letters A through Z with a partner. Student Five's partner began right away. Student Five took several minutes to put her name on her paper. Her partner looked at what she was doing and told her she wrote one of the letters in his name incorrectly. The student's face turned red, she erased and rewrote the letter darker and larger. Her partner was working on nouns beginning with the letter f when Student Five began. Student Five looked at her partner's paper and told her she would catch up. She began copying her partner's words. Student Five then looked at the last letter, z, and said, "I know this letter – let's write zebra." The partner agreed.

Student Five continued to copy the rest of the words on her paper. After the activity, the teacher went around the room and had each child share a noun on from his/her paper. Student Five stared intently at her paper. Right before it was her turn, she turned to the student sitting behind her and stared at him wide-eyed. When it was Student Five's turn to share she stared intently at her paper with her shoulders hunched over and her face close to the paper. She stared blankly at the paper with her head down and did not speak. After some time, her partner, who was sitting in the back of the room, stated, "She can't read it but I know what it is." Student Five's head spun around and she looked at her. Her teacher asked her to go see her partner for help reading the word. She walked back to her partner and her partner told her the word. As she walked up to the front of the room – she said the word "home" several times softly to herself. After she arrived at her desk, she looked up at the teacher and said, "home." Each student was asked to share a second word. Student Five counted the students ahead of her in order to identify what word she would need to read aloud. Her finger followed the word list to identify the noun on her paper than began with y. When it was her turn, she shouted "Yo yo!" immediately.

In addition to the avoidance behaviors noted with Student Five, she also exhibited significant signs of emotional distress, especially in paired reading activities. During silent reading, the teacher would ask specific students to read out loud with the teacher in the back of the room. Student Five and another student in the classroom were frequently called upon. Student Five and the other student took turns reading out loud. Student Five rubbed her eyes as the other student was reading aloud. She then pulled out some of her eyelashes and eyebrows and played with her hair. Student Five only has a few eyebrows and eyelashes left because she repeatedly pulls them out when she is nervous or anxious. When it was her turn to read out loud, she put her finger under the word and began to read. She struggled with every word on the page

and read very quietly. As she read, she swung her feet under the table and then rubbed one foot on top of the other. She took her hand and rubbed it up and down her leg very deliberately and forcefully. Her body was tense, her face pale, and eyes wide. She pressed her finger hard on the words on the page. As the other boy read, she tapped her thumb on her nose and rubbed her nose. When it was her turn to read aloud again, she rubbed her hand up and down her leg hard, hunched her shoulders, and pursed her lips together. Her physical appearance suggested that she was in extreme pain. When the reading aloud was over, she sighed and sat straight up. During other observations, Student Five exhibited similar physical symptoms of stress during reading activities. Zambo and Brem (2004) explain that reading can provoke a strong emotional fear reaction in children with reading difficulties. When this happens, higher-level thinking can shut down, causing the child to tense up, freeze, stare, and not be able to think clearly. This reaction is an automatic, neurological response to fear.

Student Five's emotional distress seemed more prominent than the other student participants. Given the behaviors she exhibits in class, it was expected that she would report feeling "very upset" about most reading tasks. In contrast, Student Five reported feeling "very happy" with recreational reading tasks, when it is time for reading in school, and about the stories she was required to read in class. The student described feeling a "little upset" when learning from a book and using a dictionary and "very upset" reading out loud in class and taking a reading test. Student Five shared that she doesn't like reading, "I can't do it good." She then talked about what she likes to do on the playground at recess.

Student Five drew herself sitting at a desk with a book (See Figure 7). She chose one color, green, and drew herself with her hands on the desk next to an open book. She described her picture as "just sitting there with a book." The expression on the face she drew was very

similar to the wide-eyed blank expression that was frequently observed during reading tasks in school.

Figure 7. Student five's drawing.

Student Five's parent reported the student feeling "mildly upset" with reading a book on a rainy Saturday, reading for fun at home, when it's time for reading class, and when a teachers asks her questions about what she reads. Parent Five indicated his/her daughter felt "very upset" spending free time reading, reading during the summer, reading instead of playing, completing workbook pages and worksheets, reading in school, reading other school books in school, when she reads out loud in class, and taking a reading test. The "very upset" responses were consistent with the student's responses and with the anxiety behaviors observed in class. Parent Five wrote that his/her daughter "gets very nervous" when she has to read out loud in class and indicated that his/child described her ability to read as "not very good." Interestingly, the parent described his/her daughter's motivation to read as "She loves too, but does not want to do it in class, because her friends are a lot better at reading than she is." When asked how his/her daughter feels when she reads out loud in class, Parent Five wrote, "She gets very nervous." Parent Five indicated that Student Five felt "happy" reading a book during free time, getting a book for a

present, starting a new book, going to a bookstore, reading different kinds of books, learning from a book, and using a dictionary. Parent Five reported that his/her child is extremely nervous when reading in class. The parent believed his/her daughter loves to read, but is embarrassed that most of her classmates are better readers than her. While Parent Five acknowledged his/her daughter's struggles with reading, he/she did not mention the eyebrow pulling or other physical manifestations of anxiety.

Case Six

Student Six was a female second-grade student. She wore glasses and usually dressed in skirts and colorful tops with matching bracelets and earrings. During the first and subsequent observations, Student Six was observed engaging in the same pattern of avoidance behaviors as her peers who participated in the study. She frequently broke her pencil point before it was her turn to read aloud or share an answer from her paper. She slowly walked to the back of classroom to sharpen her pencil. After her turn was passed, she would slowly walk back to her seat. Student Six broke her pencil point several times a day during the observations. Zambo and Brem (2004) would refer to these behaviors as flight responses to reading activities. Student Six also displayed evidence of learned helplessness. Zambo and Brem (2004) explain that "children with learned helplessness believe that no matter what they do, their efforts will only lead to failure, never to success . . . learned helplessness causes deficits in motivation because children who expect to fail lose their ambition and drive to try" (p. 197). These students will often ask others to complete tasks for them or ask for help before they try. During a partner activity, Student Six and another student worked on a comprehension worksheet together after their teacher read a story from their reading book aloud. Student Six watched as her partner completed an answer and then she copied the answer from her partner. At one point, her partner looked at

Student Six's paper and said, "This is wrong." She erased Student Six's answer and rewrote the correct answer to the comprehension question. Student Six smiled and let her fix the answers. Student Six then continued to copy answers from her partner. Her partner then stopped and waited for her to get caught up. The partner pointed to the words on Student Six's worksheet and read them one at a time for her. She did this twice. As Student Six finished the worksheet, the partner would sound out the words for Student Six as she copied them. Student Six's print was large and messy with many erasure marks on the paper. The pair thought they had completed the assignment and then realized they needed to complete the back. Student Six began to slowly read the first question on the back. She then said the answer aloud and started to write the answer in. On the second letter she stopped and wrinkled her forehead. Her partner sounded the word out to her and waited for her to finish it. Student Six sat looking at the paper. The partner used her pencil to complete the word for her. Student Six often engaged in this type of exchange. A peer would read directions, complete work for her, or help her to spell words correctly. On another observation day, Student Six was observed during independent seat work, Student Six was asked to complete a seasonal worksheet. As soon as she received the worksheet, she took her paper to the partner she was working with earlier that day. She told the partner that she didn't understand what the directions meant. The partner told her what to do on the worksheet. Student Six seemed to expect help. She appeared to give up very easily when confronted with a task. A peer or teacher usually stepped in to help her complete the assignment or reading task, which reinforced the learned helplessness.

Student Six reported feeling generally "very happy" with most academic and recreational reading tasks. She reported feeling a "little upset" using a dictionary, completing reading

workbook pages and worksheets, and when a teacher asks her questions about a story the she had read. The student noted feeling “very upset” when reading in school and during a reading test.

Student Six drew a colorful picture of herself smiling and sitting a desk with the sun out (See Figure 8). She described her picture as “reading a book about friendship. I have a lot of friends in class.” She drew a tall chair and desk and her legs in the air, and not touching the ground. She drew detailed eyelashes and used many colors to complete the drawing. She asked the researcher to sharpen a couple of the colored pencils because, “I am very good at coloring and my pencils need to be sharpened.” She stated that she was “very good at reading and very good at a lot of things in school like reading and math.”

Figure 8. Student six’s drawing.

The parent indicated the child felt “happy” reading a book on a rainy Saturday, reading a book in school during free time, reading for fun at home, getting a book for a present, spending free time reading, reading during the summer, going to a bookstore, reading different kinds of books, reading other school books in school, and when a teacher asks him questions about what he read. Parent Six reported the child felt “mildly upset” reading instead of playing, completing workbooks pages and worksheets, reading in school, when it is time for reading class, and “very

upset" taking a reading test and reading out loud in class. Parent Six stated that his/her child prefers to read in the reading specialist's class. When his/her child receives a low grade, the child reports that the reading story is boring, too long, or stupid. Parent Six shared that his/her child feels she is better than most children in her class at reading but just does not like to read in school. When asked how Parent Six's child feels when she is asked to read in class, Parent Six responded:

> She doesn't like reading in her class, but it is okay in [name omitted] class. She usually forgets to give me her reading tests and I find them crumpled in her book bag. She doesn't get good grades in reading, but says its because she didn't like the story.

Parent Four described her daughter's ability to read as "better than some kids. She thinks she is good, but she says she doesn't like to read in school. She will say stories are stupid, too long, or boring. She also says her teacher thinks she's dumb." The parent and student's responses were very similar.

Case Seven

Student Seven was a male third-grade student. On the initial observation day, Student Seven's Teacher read the book *Click Clack Boo: A Tricky Treat* (Cronin & Lewin, 2013) aloud to the entire class. The book is about animals that live on a farm and type messages that indicate their demands to the farmer. The exchanges between the farmer and the animals are humorous. Student Seven was watching and listening to his teacher; he laughed at the funny parts of the book, and engaged in dialogue about the story. He was attentive and appeared interested in the story. However, when he had to read on his own, he engaged in many avoidance behaviors. For example, during one lesson, students were asked to look at the picture in their reading book about a particular story and to begin inferring what the pictures might indicate about the story.

Student Seven opened his book and spun his head around and shook it up and down. He covered his eyes and yawned. He put his hands over his mouth and back over his head. He was redirected back to the pictures in his book by his teacher. The students were asked to listen to the story as it was played on a CD and to follow along with their fingers. Student Seven followed along for the first page. After that, he began flipping through the other pages in the story. He flipped through the pages of the reading book and turned to another story. He put his hand on the boy's book next to him and pointed to the new story. This boy also turned to the other story. The teacher walked back over and asked him to stay on task and to go back to the story he was supposed to be listening to. He followed along with his finger for the last few pages. As the story ended, he snapped his book shut, put his fists up in the air, and said "Yes! Reading is over!"

Student Seven reported feeling "very happy" with most questions on the survey. Student Seven drew a large face with a smile next to a book (See Figure 9). He drew quickly and used one color in his drawing. He drew short curly hair on the top of his head, which is similar to his own hair. He said that he drew the book with slanted lines to show the book was open. When asked about his picture, Student Seven indicated that he liked reading books with pictures and words. "I like the kind that have pictures and words. They are funny." When asked about how the child feels about reading in school, he replied, "Happy because it is sometimes easy."

The researcher asked if he found anything hard about reading. Student Seven replied, "When there are very long words." His narrative responses were very different from the observed avoidance behaviors he demonstrated throughout the five-day observation period.

Student Seven's parent indicated the student felt "happy" with reading a book on a rainy Saturday, reading a book in school during free time, reading for fun at home, spending free time reading, starting a new book, reading during the summer, going to a bookstore, reading different

kinds of books, reading in school, reading others school books in school, and when it's time for reading class. Parent Seven indicated his/her child felt "mildly upset" when taking a reading test, reading out loud, or reading instead of playing. Parent Seven was "not sure" how his/her son felt when his teacher asked him questions about what he had read. Parent Seven did not complete the narrative portion of the interview. The student's and parent's survey responses were similar, but seemed to contrast the observed behaviors noted during the five-day observation period.

Figure 9. Student seven's drawing.

Case Eight

Student Eight was a male student in third-grade. He was slightly smaller than most of the boys in his class and had a different ethnicity. The following anecdote highlights the typical behavior observed of Student Eight. Student Eight's teacher asked the class to look through their reading book at the pictures for an upcoming story. They were asked to begin thinking about the story from observations they made about the pictures. As Student Eight's teacher was giving directions, Student Eight growled, barked, and laughed softly to himself. He then played with a pencil in his desk. He then threw it in his desk, making a loud noise. He turned around to see if anybody was looking or noticed, but no one reacted to the noise. He then did it again. His teacher walked by him and told him to open his book and look at the pictures in the story. He covered his head with his hand and then laid his head down in his open book. The teacher then played a CD

recording of the book and asked students to follow along with their finger. Student Eight slid his flannel shirt part way off his arms and then flipped it over his face. He sat in his chair with his face covered with his shirt as the story began. He then started waving his arms up over his head. His teacher walked over to him and pointed to the part of the story his class was on. He took out a highlighter and began following along with the cap. As his teacher walked away, he wrapped a piece of string around the highlighter and dragged the string across the book and then played with the string in his lap. He laid his head down with his nose in his book for the rest of the story. He rarely turned pages with the rest of the class. Occasionally he looked around the room to see what page the class was on.

During the observations, Student Eight rarely followed along during oral reading. Student Eight's teacher choose students randomly to read sentences from the reading book orally in class. She reminded all the students to follow along with their fingers and to "Sit up nice and tall." During one specific read aloud, Student Eight was flipping through his book and was usually on a different page than the rest of the class. When it was his turn to read aloud, he could not find the right place in the story that the class was reading. He asked the girl next to him, "Where are we?" She pointed to the page number in her book. He then began to read very slowly. As he read, he kicked his legs out repeatedly under his desk. After two sentences, he was asked if he wanted to continue or if his teacher should choose another classmate. He asked for another classmate to be chosen. He sighed and sank down in his desk.

Student Eight had a difficult time completing reading tests. During several different tests involving reading, Student Eight was observed kicking his feet under his desk and rubbing his head and eyes. As his teacher would walk by, she would ask him to redo something or clarify the directions. He needed continued intervention from his teacher to complete his reading tests.

His teacher would walk up next to him and look at him until he returned to the test. His teacher would point to specific questions in the test, take small objects he was playing with, and redirect him to test questions.

Student Eight reported feeling “very upset” with most recreational and all academic reading tasks. The student indicated feeling “very happy” to a “little happy” reading a book during free time, getting a book for a present, beginning a new book, reading instead of playing, going to a bookstore, and reading different kinds of books. Student Eight drew a tiny figure with a smile, holding a small book (See Figure 10).

Figure 10. Student eight’s drawing.

When Student Eight was asked to complete a drawing, he chose an orange crayon and drew quickly. He drew limited details and scribbled for the hair. When asked about his picture, Student Eight responded, “I don’t like it.” “What don’t you like about your picture?” “My head and my book, it is too little.” When asked how the Student Eight felt about reading in school, the student paused and then said, “umm, bad.” The researcher responded, “Bad, huh, I see - you don’t seem to like it. What don’t you like about it?” Student Eight replied, “I don’t like a lot of words, a lot of hard words. I like to do fun stuff. I don’t really like anything about it. Well, there

is only one book I like, it's Chima." The researcher asked, "Chima? What is that book about?" The student responded, "It's about Chima, a little Lego guy with powers."

Student Eight's conversation about the drawing is consistent with some of the characteristics of learned helplessness. He reported not liking anything about reading and not being able to do it. His behaviors noted in the observations indicated this as well. This negative self-schema could be detrimental to future reading success. Zambo and Brem (2004) explain that "the feeling we have built into our self-schemas, or past experiences, influence our current evaluation of who we are and who we can become" (p. 195).

Student Eight's parent indicated that his/her child felt "mildly upset" reading a book in school during freetime, reading instead of playing, and reading different kinds of books. Parent Eight reported that his/her son felt "very upset" reading instead of playing, when the teacher asks him questions about what he has read, completing workbook or worksheets, reading in school, reading other school books in school, when it's time for reading class, reading out loud in class, and taking a reading test. These responses were pretty consistent with the student's responses.

Parent Eight indicated that his/her child "wouldn't" spend free time reading in school and "doesn't" read for fun at home. Parent Eight reported that his/her son felt "indifferent" getting a book for a present, starting a new book, going to a bookstore, and was not sure how his/her son felt about using a dictionary or learning from a book. Parent Eight reported that his/her "hates reading" and "gets into trouble when it is reading class." When asked how his/her child describes his ability to read, the parent wrote, "He describes himself as really bad. He hates it. He will say he is stupid and the other kids laugh at him." Student Eight had shared that he really liked Legos and would read a book about Lego characters called *Chima*. Parent Eight confirmed

the student's interest in Legos when asked how his/her child would describe his motivation to read, "He would rather play Legos or do anything else. He really doesn't choose to read."

Student Eight's responses to the interview questions, his parent's responses to the interview questions, and the observed behaviors in class all indicated similar reactions and feelings toward reading. Student Eight had a very negative self-schema toward reading. He has developed behaviors that could be detrimental to future reading success.

Case Nine

Student Nine was a female third-grade student. She had long hair that she frequently used to cover her face. She wore comfortable clothes and had dark circles under her eyes. She often closed her eyes, yawned, and put her head on her desk. On the first day of observation, Student Nine's teacher was reading the book *Clack Boo*: *A Tricky Treat* (Cronin & Lewin, 2013) to the class. The story is a humorous account of the typed letter exchange between a farmer and his animals. Student Nine was attentive to the story, laughed, frequently smiled, was able to follow the flow of the story, and volunteered to answer questions about the story. After the story was finished, Student Nine's demeanor changed. The class was asked to take out their reading books and turn to the next story. Student Nine had a sullen look on her face and frowned. The class was asked to review the pictures in the story to see what the story might be about. Student Nine could not find the story at first. She looked at the table of contents and then turned the book page by page until she found the story. The teacher then put on a CD for the students to listen to the story and follow along with their finger. Students were taking turns reading parts of the story aloud. She put her book straight up on her desk with it open and put her head behind the book. She closed her eyes and laid her head on her desk. Her teacher tapped her on the head, put the book flat on the desk, and pointed to where the class was in the story. Student Nine often closed her

eyes during reading tasks and tests and lay her head on her desk. When it was Student Nine's turn to read aloud, she read slowly and with a soft voice. When she did not know a word, she rubbed her eye and covered part of her face. She let her hair fall down around her face which kept in partially hidden from the rest of the class and moved her face very close to the book when was unsure of what she was reading. Her teacher then asked her a question about the part of the story she had just read. She replied with the word “glum” which was a word she had just read. When her teacher asked her what that meant, she said, “I don’t know.” She moved her head closer to the book and rubbed her head and hair. She repeated that she did not know what the word meant. The teacher then asked her how she would feel if her clubhouse was broken. She said “I don’t know how I would feel.” The teacher then asked her to look at the illustrations to see if she could figure out what glum meant. She stared at the illustrations then smiled and said “Sad.” While she was figuring out the answer, she played with her hair.

The drawing and the interview yielded quite different responses than what was observed in class. Nine reported feeling “very happy” to a “little happy” with all academic and recreational reading survey questions. Student Nine drew a very colorful, detailed picture of herself reading at a table (See Figure 11). She drew a smile on herself and used many colors for her clothes and hair. She colored in the background and spent more time than the other child participants on the drawing. When asked about her drawing, she responded, “I like it, I like the books that my mom bought me.” She reported finding reading very easy and indicated that she did not find anything hard about it.

Parent Nine indicated that his/her child felt “happy” reading for fun at home, going to a bookstore, reading other school books at school and “very happy” when it’s time for reading class. These responses were consistent with the student’s responses, however, inconsistent with

the student's observed behaviors in class. However, Parent Nine shared that his/her child "does not feel comfortable with reading," and that it "wasn't fun for her to read." Parent Nine reported that his/her child felt "mildly upset" learning from a book, reading a book on a rainy Saturday, reading during summer, completing workbook pages and worksheets, reading in school, and learning from a book. Parent Nine shared that his/her child felt "indifferent" getting a book for a present, starting a new book, reading different kinds of books and was not sure how his/her daughter felt spending free time reading, about the stories she reads in class, reading out loud in class, using a dictionary, and taking a reading test. The parent reported that his/her daughter felt "very upset" reading instead of playing and shared that "We get [name omitted] to read a little bit at a time. She does not do it on her own."

Figure 11. Student nine's drawing.

Themes in the Case Data

Figure 12 represents the student data collected on the surveys. Generally, these children reported feeling happier with recreational readings tasks and "very upset" with reading out loud in front of peers. Some children shared insight into environments they felt helped them to read better such as the Title I reading class, reading alone outside, and having a choice of reading material.

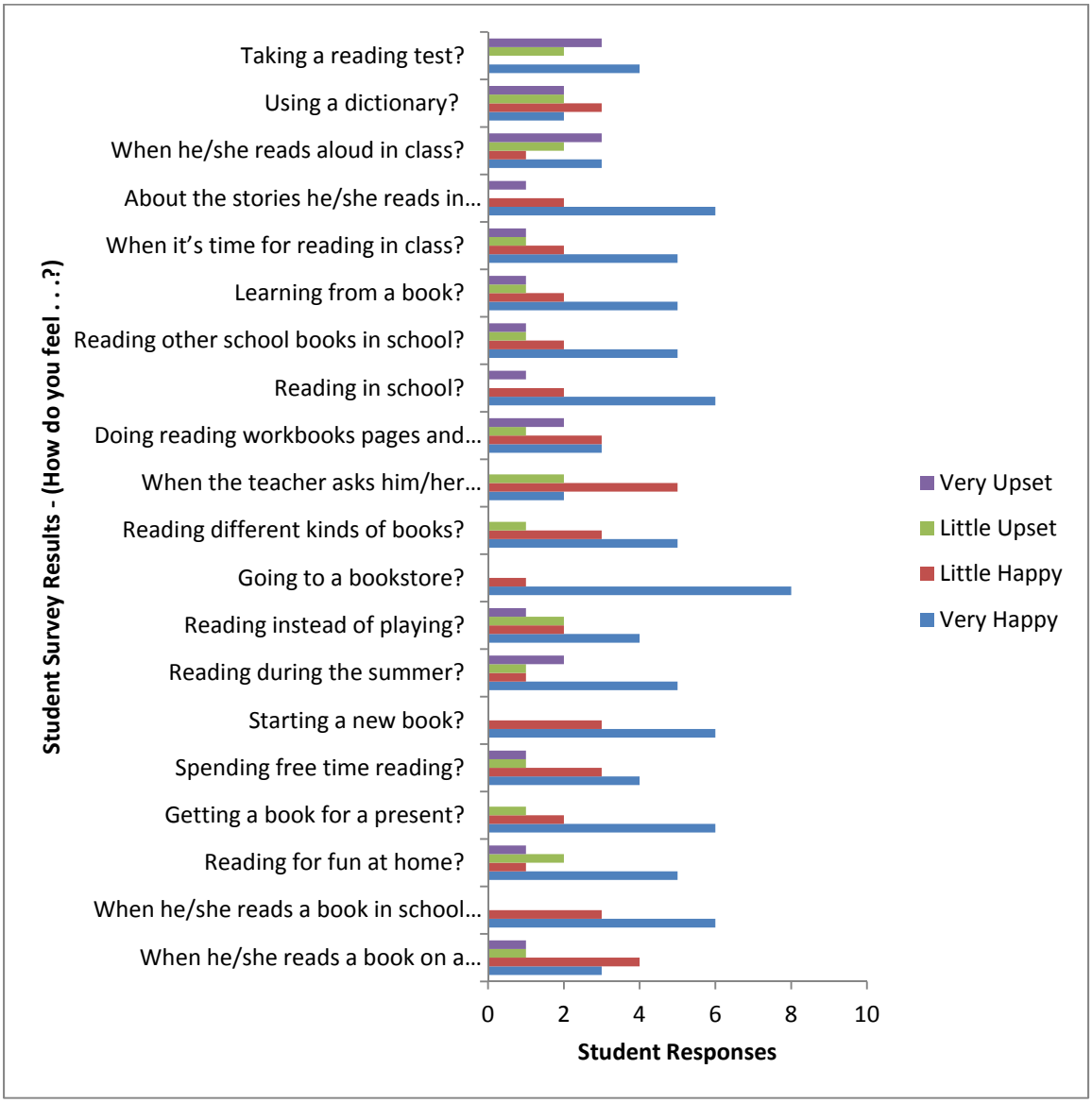

Figure 12. Students' responses to the survey.

Second and third-grade students who struggle with reading demonstrate many behaviors associated with anxiety in the classroom, including physical behaviors that involve covering and rubbing the head, obsessive rubbing of legs and arms, pulling out eyelashes and eyebrows, biting fingernails, and turning pale. When a strong emotional response such as anxiety is experienced, these students most often choose a flight response and attempt to avoid reading and other literary tasks. These students have learned to copy by manipulating peers in group work, leaving the classroom to go to the bathroom or visit the nurse, and engage in distracting and off-topic behaviors.

Parents' responses on the surveys indicated their children felt a "little happy" to very happy with recreational reading choices and tasks and a "little upset" to "very upset" with academic reading tasks (See Figure 13). Parents noted that reading out loud in class, taking reading tests, and completing reading worksheets and workbook pages seemed to upset their children the most. Most parents expressed bewilderment over their child's reading challenges, particularly because their children enjoyed visiting the library and being read to when they were younger.

In most categories, students generally reported slightly more positive feelings than their parents reported their children having. Parents reported feelings not knowing how to respond to their children's reading struggles. On the interview questions, the parents indicated their children enjoyed visiting the library, being read to at home, and liked being read to. One parent chose "indifferent" or "not sure" for most of the survey responses. Most other parents indicated that that were not sure of some of the feelings their child would have in specific academic reading tasks. Their children reported interest in books of their choosing and indicated they liked to hear stories read aloud.

In most classrooms, it was noted that the participating children's demeanor changed when the teacher read a story orally to the class. These students were attentive, interested, and often volunteered answers to questions. They laughed out loud and smiled while listening.

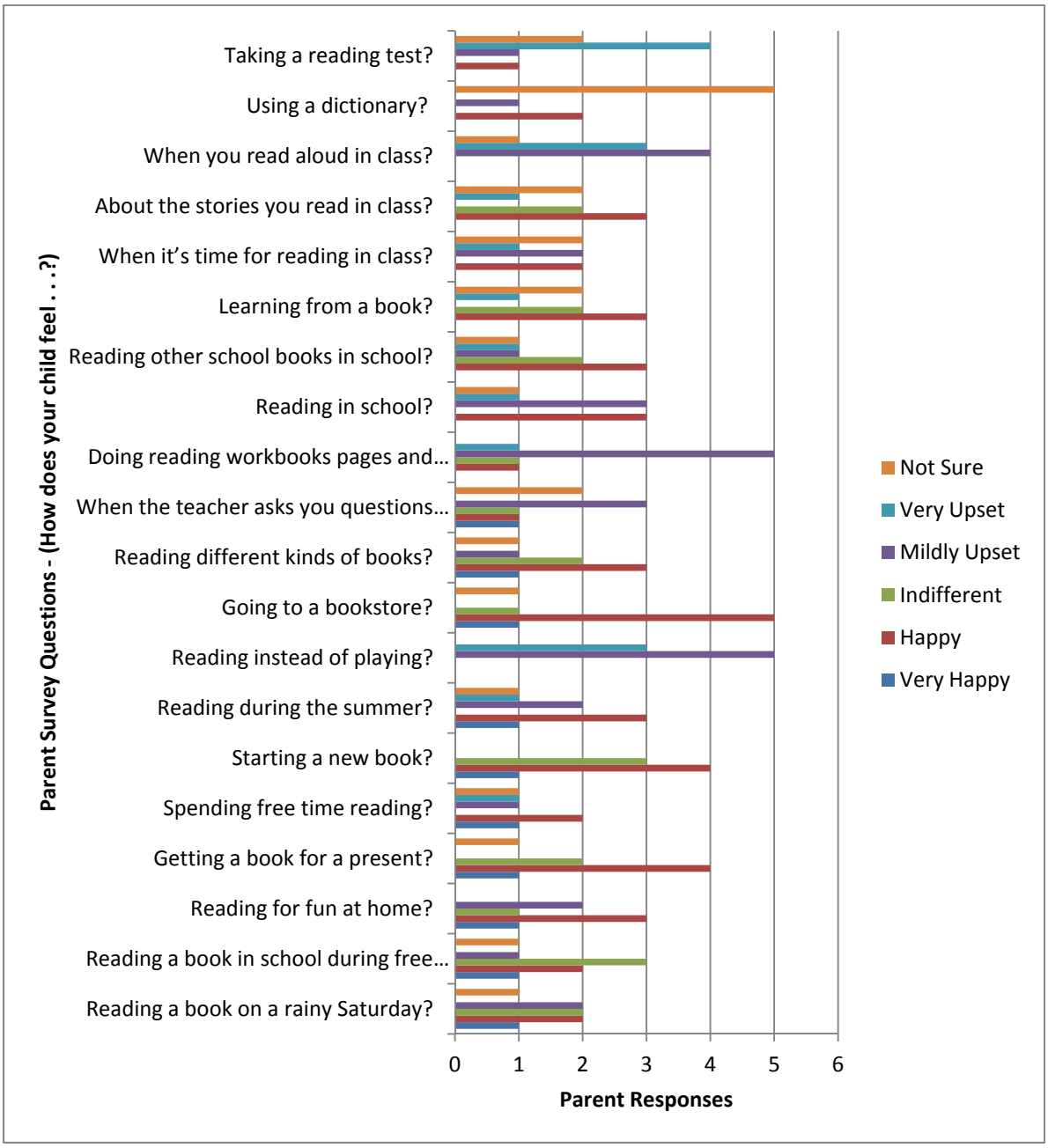

Figure 13. Parents' responses to the survey.

Second and third-grade students experiencing reading challenges enjoy listening and responding to age-appropriate stories that are often above their own reading level. Students reported that they like to choose their own books. In the drawings, students also indicated a preference for books as they drew pictures of trade-books such as *Nate the Great* (Sharmat & Simont, 1977) instead of reading textbooks. Even Student Eight, who clearly articulated that he did not like reading at all, still indicated he liked to read books about Chima and did enjoy listening to his teacher read *Click Clack Boo: A Tricky Treat* (Cronin & Lewin, 2013) to the class.

Another interesting find revealed in the data synthesis, was the student's responses on the survey. Most of the students, with the exception of Student Eight, reported feeling generally "happy" with recreational reading tasks and "happy" to "mildly upset" with most academic reading tasks. Anecdotal observations, coupled with parent responses, indicated the children were not as "happy" with reading as they reported. This discrepancy could be due to a variety of factors.

One possible explanation is that the students were trying to preserve their own self-esteem by inflating their responses to the questions and by drawing happy, smiling readers who were diligently reading at their desks. Another explanation could be that they are not unhappy with reading, but unhappy with peer and teacher evaluation of their reading abilities. They clearly do not like reading in front of peers, nor do they like taking reading tests. Both of these reading tasks involve an evaluation or judgment. Reading in front of peers invites peer opinion and, at times, ridicule. These children were often embarrassed about not being able to read as well as their peers. Reading tests also involve a judgment, usually in the form of a grade, given by the child's teacher. It could be a fear or dislike of evaluation, rather than the task of reading

itself that causes anxiety. Students identified for Title I reading support may have been made fun of by peers and typically received poor grades in reading. It appears as though they may have developed a sense of learned helplessness, in which they feel their actions are powerless and they will not be able to improve their reading skills. As a result, these students avoid reading activities which cause others to surmise they dislike reading.

Teachers' Perspectives

Each teacher participating in the study expressed deep concern for students who find reading challenging. Their responses to the survey and interview questions provided a different perspective to this issue and yielded much different results from the child and parent participants. Table 3 provides an overview of their responses to the survey.

Teacher One indicated that second and third-grade children struggling with reading feel "very upset" in response to recreational reading tasks. For academic tasks, Teacher One indicated that students feel "indifferent" or "mildly upset" except for one task: reading out loud in class. Teacher One indicated that second and third-grade students struggling with reading feel "happy" when reading out loud in class. Teacher One believed these students' motivation to read is low due to the fact that they would prefer other activities over reading, prefer not to read aloud in class, and describe themselves as "not good readers."

Teacher Two responded that most second and third-grade children struggling with reading feel "mildly upset" to "very upset" with most recreational reading tasks. Teacher Two also indicated that these children feel "indifferent" to "mildly upset" with most academic reading tasks and described these children in class as "quiet and very unsure of themselves." When these children are asked to read independently their facial expressions and body language tend to

indicate they are “very unhappy.” Teacher Two believes these children want to be better readers, however, when they struggle with decoding, they give up very quickly.

Teacher Three indicated that second and third-grade children struggling with reading feel “happy” learning from a book and “indifferent” starting a new book, reading different kinds of books, responding to questions about what they read at home and in class. For most other academic and recreational reading tasks, Teacher Three indicated the students feel “mildly upset.” Teacher Three was not sure about how these students feel reading on a rainy Saturday, getting a book for a present, going to a bookstore, reading other schools books in school, or using a dictionary. Teacher Three expects her students to read every day in small groups and most of these children comply. However, her students will tell her “they do not like to read, they do not want to, or they are not good at it.” Teacher Three did indicate that students felt “happy” learning from a book. This was one of two “happy” responses given by a teacher.

Teacher Four indicated that students struggling with reading feel “indifferent” reading for fun at home, starting a new book, going to a bookstore, reading different kinds of books, answering questions about their reading material, reading in school, and reading aloud in class. Teacher Four responded that that these children feel “mildly upset” reading a book during free time, getting a book for a present, completing workbook pages and worksheets, when it is time for reading class in school, using a dictionary and taking a reading test. Teacher Four shared that most of these children will avoid lengthy chapter books and will choose picture books or reading material with less print. Teacher Four felt these children know they struggle but they do not articulate it. “Instead they may produce the minimum effort just to get by." The frustration could also originate from the strategies the teachers were using in the classroom.

Trends in Teacher Data

In most categories on the survey, students reported feeling more positive than their teachers reported these children feeling toward reading. All of the teachers reported that children feel "indifferent," "mildly upset," or "very upset" with most of the academic and recreational reading tasks. In contrast, many students indicated feeling a "little happy" to "very happy" with a variety of recreational reading tasks and some academic reading tasks. One teacher gave a "happy" response indicating that these children were "happy" reading out loud. Two other teachers indicated these students feel "indifferent" and one teacher reported these students feel "mildly upset." These responses were unexpected given the strong dislike for reading out loud that the student participants indicated on their surveys and shared during the interviews. In addition, classroom observations of these students revealed that these students would turn pale or red, obsessively rub their legs and arms, bite their fingernails, pull out their eyebrows and eyelashes, and engage in many different kinds of avoidance behaviors in response to reading out loud in the classroom. One teacher shared that these children were, "hesitant in getting out their reading materials or choosing a book for independent reading – seems like it takes them forever. Students will sometimes ask to visit the nurse or go to the bathroom." The teachers also stated that these children have a low motivation to read and when given the choice, "they would probably say they don't like to read or they can't find something interesting to read." Teachers felt student attitude was very influential in reading success and indicated that these children have low motivation to read and a low frustration tolerance for reading.

The teachers' responses seem to indicate that the students weren't trying hard enough to read. Perhaps they did not think these children cared if they could read or not. This perception might account for the 24 "indifferent" responses the teachers gave (See Figure 14). These

teachers may also feel that they are providing the same strategies and support for other students in the class who are competent readers. They see competent readers engaged in reading, answering comprehension questions, and progressing at a steady pace. They see children who are struggling and avoiding reading and may interpret this as a personal choice on the students' part to avoid the learning situation and not put forth the effort. The teachers' perceptions of these children seemed to originate from an expectancy-value theory perspective (Applegate & Applegate, 2010).

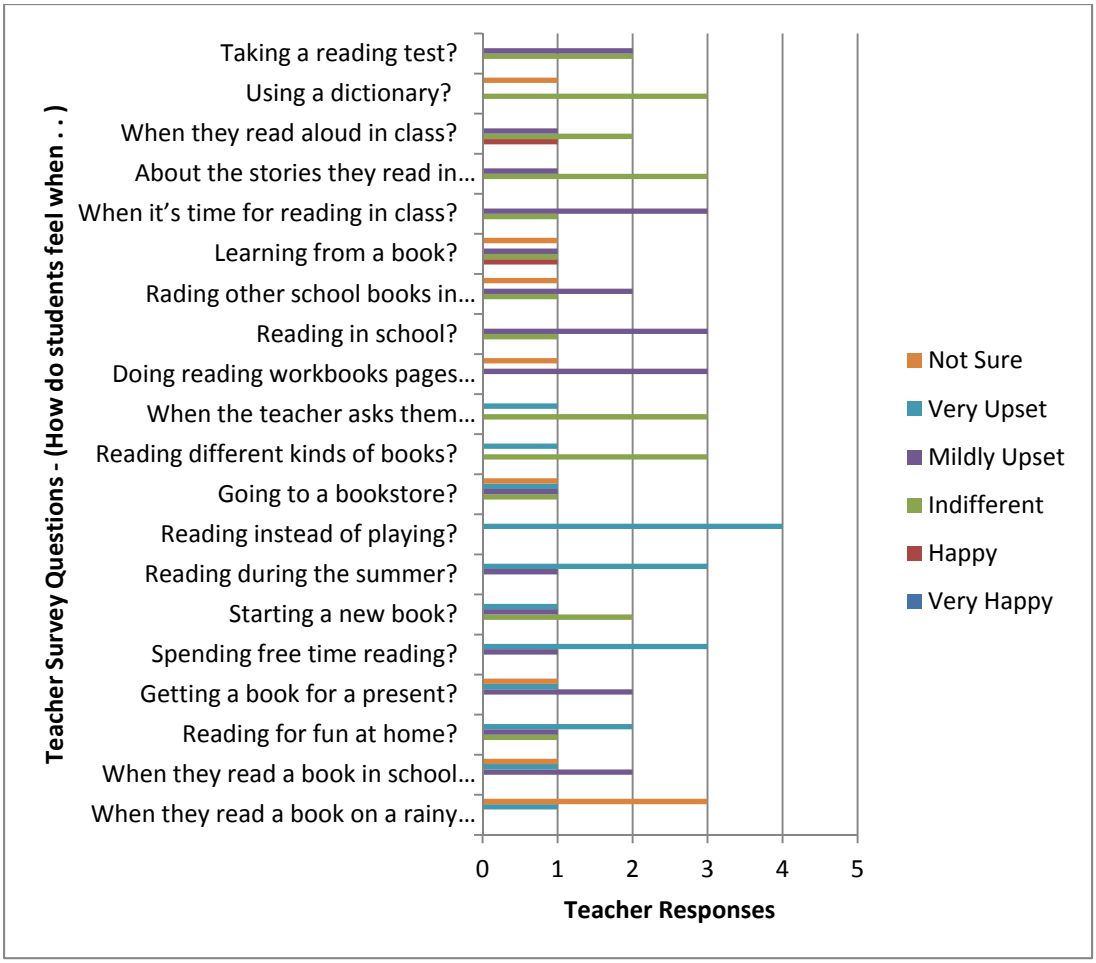

Figure 14. Teachers' responses to the survey.

The interpretation of these behaviors from the teachers' perspectives indicated low motivation and disinterest. They perceived these children as expecting to fail and then living up

to that expectation. However, from a neurological perspective, these students may be experiencing a fear response in the brain when confronted with reading tasks and deal with the feelings of fear by engaging in flight behaviors that take the form of avoidance. Zambo and Brem (2004) described this response as automatic:

> This reaction is not learned, the way most learning takes place. Our bodies know how to execute the flight or fight response without any training at all. In fact our bodies know the response so well, it is nearly impossible to stop it from happening in the face of a perceived threat. (p. 193)

This reaction can eventually turn into a phobia. These teachers may also be frustrated with these students. Teachers in this school, and in many others, are driven by a high-stakes test environment. When students struggle with reading, it is reflected in teacher performance evaluations. Teachers are evaluated on their students' achievement and often times these types of students lower class-wide and/or grade-level achievement which may cause school or district administration to view these teachers as ineffective. On many occasions, the researcher was asked to step out of the classroom to limit distraction so students could complete "important grade-level unit reading tests."

The frustration could also originate from the methods of reading instruction the teachers used in the classrooms. Most of the reading strategies observed originated from reading specific reading theories. In Holdaway's (1979) theory of literacy development, reading is described as occurring naturally, similar to oral language development. The theory suggests strategies that involve shared reading experiences such as reading aloud with a peer, reading aloud with a teacher, and reading high quality literature. Read-alouds and shared reading experiences were used often in the classrooms observed. However, these strategies were not successful for the

participating students. The participating students employed many behaviors to avoid reading and demonstrated behaviors consistent with anxiety when reading aloud to a teacher or in class. Other strategies used in class were consistent with cognitive processing theory (Gough, 1972; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; Rumelhart, 1994; Stanovich, 1984). In this theory, reading is developed from a bottom-up perspective as individual processes of reading are isolated, analyzed, and developed. Classroom strategies consistent with this approach occurred often during Common Core. Common Core was a period of the day where specific individual reading skills that are identified in the Common Core State Standards (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2011) were worked on through overhead projectors and worksheets. Specific isolated skills such as decoding, parts of speech, suffixes, prefixes, and comprehension strategies were observed during this portion of the day in the five-day observation period. This approach did not seem to be successful for the participating students. Students often copied work from a peer or partner, asked to go to the bathroom or sharpen a pencil during this portion of the day, copied examples from the teacher's overhead projector, or asked the teacher for help. They were not able to complete the tasks on their own.

Other teachers used strategies inspired from social learning theory such as scaffolding (Bandura, 1986, Vygotsky, 1978). Scaffolding involves involves carefully selecting tasks that offer a slight challenge, but ones that the student can accomplish with some support before moving on to more challenging tasks. One of the examples observed in class was a "picture-walk." Students were asked to look at the pictures of an upcoming reading story. This strategy is used to help children predict the contents of a story, identify vocabulary words that may be present in the pictures, and help children sequence a story. This is often a strategy used before students begin a new book or story in their reading texts. The participating students, however,

looked at other stories in the reading book, talked to a peer, and played with objects in their desks instead of looking at the pictures. It is unclear as to whether the scaffolding strategy would have been successful due to the children's lack of participation.

Teachers may recognize that these strategies are rooted in theory and are working with other students in the classroom and may believe it is the student's lack of trying that prevents the strategies from working with them. However, the strategies may be ineffective for these particular students and not well-matched to their abilities and learning styles. This idea will be explored further in the next section.

Coding and Emergent Themes

After the data were synthesized, each line of data was uploaded to *NVivo* (QSR, 2010), read, and coded with action and process statements. Memos were also created during the coding to serve as placeholders for emerging themes and ideas. *NVivo* (QSR, 2010) was used to generate a report of the initial nodes and their frequencies. The report is located in Appendix J.

The next step of coding is referred to as focused coding. Focused codes are "more directed, selective, and conceptual than word-by-word, line-by-line, and incident-by-incident" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 57). Focused coding allows the researcher to synthesize data and find meaning and themes from the initial coding. To begin the process of focused coding, the researcher ran a word frequency query on the initial coding nodes. The query identified several recurring words that were then used in the focused coding process. A word cloud was generated to visually depict these words (See Figure 15).

The following words were identified as high frequency words according to the word frequency generator: avoided, anxiety, embarrassed, hides, face, feels, enjoys, leaves, nervous, anxiety, and bathroom. The list was then filtered by identifying words that related to emotions or

behaviors that indicated emotional reactions. These words were avoided, embarrassed, and anxiety. The initial nodes were assigned a parent node that fit the more focused codes generated by the word cloud.

Figure 15. Word cloud of frequently used nodes in the initial coding phase. Words that appeared more frequently in the coding appear larger in the word cloud.

The following parent nodes were created: Anxiety and Avoidance. These new nodes became the subject of the focused coding. The data were revisited and reanalyzed. The data demonstrated behavioral evidence, indicated in the anecdotal observations, and conversational evidence, indicated in the student interviews, that fit the new focused codes of anxiety and avoidance.

Anxiety

Data coded as anxiety consisted of observed behaviors noted during the five-day observation period that demonstrated feelings of anxiety and nervousness. Some of the physical behaviors noted in the anecdotal records included covering the head and face with hands and/or hair, swinging and tapping legs, rigid body language, pale face, widened eyes, biting fingernails, obsessive rubbing of hands, arms, or thighs, pulling out eyebrows and/or eyelashes, and staring blankly during tasks involving reading out loud and reading directions to self. For example, one student was asked to read an answer on her reading worksheet aloud to the class. She stared

blankly at her paper and her face turned pale until another student volunteered an answer. She pulled out some of her eyelashes and played with her hair. This student was observed several times pulling out her eyelashes and eyebrows when faced with stressful reading tasks. Most of the other students in the study frequently covered their head with their hands and/or hair when engaging in stressful reading tasks that involved reading out loud in front of peers or reading directions to self. During the interviews, these children reported feeling embarrassed when reading out loud in front of their peers.

Jalongo and Hirsh (2010) acknowledged six learning obstacles identified by psychologists that relate to anxiety:

1. Anxiety is a negative emotion that impairs learning.
2. Whereas fear is a response to present or imminent threats, anxiety is a fear response to imagined or distant threats.
3. Anxiety is a feeling of helplessness focused on future threats or threats to self-esteem.
4. Anxiety disorders are not only among the most common during childhood but also the earliest to emerge.
5. When anxiety becomes intense it undermines children's ability to pay attention.
6. The term phobia generally is reserved for more intense and generalized responses to imagined threats. (p. 433)

Anxiety interferes with attention, memory, self-efficacy, and motivation. Anxiety is detrimental to the learning process itself and creates a cycle of anxiety and avoidance. This cycle can affect the child's progress in learning to read. Anxiety can cause students to withdraw from the practice and support they need to become better readers.

Avoidance

Data coded as avoidance included student behaviors that demonstrated the child's willingness to avoid the reading task. Avoidance was demonstrated by asking to leave the room during reading activities, engaging in off-task and distracting behaviors, sharing responses unrelated to the reading tasks, and having peers read for them in group reading activities. On several occasions, students asked to use the restroom moments before the student was expected to read an answer out loud in class or when the student was supposed to be reading silently. One student was observed breaking her pencil point multiple times during two class periods. She would break the pencil when students were taking turns reading directions in class. She would get up slowly and walk to the back of the room to sharpen her pencil each time. This action caused her to either miss her turn reading aloud directions or sharing an answer. Two teachers reported that these students often ask to be sent to the nurse or ask to use the bathroom during reading class. The observed students engaged in a variety of distracting and off topic behaviors that took place during the time that was designated for reading tasks. Several students played with materials in their desks, tapped their pencils on their desks to a drum beat, drew pictures on reading worksheets, talked to a student next to them in class, or covered their heads with their reading books or their faces with their hair. For example, during a silent reading activity, one student wrapped a piece of string around his highlighter and dragged the string across his book; then played with the string in his lap. Another student took off his flannel shirt and wrapped it around his head during silent reading. When these students were asked to read responses from worksheets or asked a question about a story they read silently, they would react in a variety of unique ways. Occasionally a few students would stare blankly, but most of the time they would give some kind of response. These students would eagerly raise their hands, but when they were

called on, their response was simply “I forget” or “That was easy.” Most of the time, these students would engage the teacher in conversation about something else or share a related story rather than give or read an answer. During the individual interviews with the students, they were asked to share their thoughts about the pictures they drew of themselves reading. Some of the students shared stories about recess or games played at home.

These children had developed a repertoire of coping strategies when reading or with other literary tasks that were too difficult and seemed very adept at relying on their peers to complete tasks that involved reading during group work. When these students were expected to work in groups on reading worksheets, they would wait until their partner began and then copy the answers as their partner wrote them. Often times, these students would play with objects in their desks or draw on the border of their paper while their classmates read directions on a worksheet. After the directions were given, these students would raise their hands and ask for the teacher to give them directions privately or they would ask a classmate to read the directions to them. During partner tasks, these students were more likely to ask their partner to read the question and the student would give an answer. During the interviews, many of these students stated they did not like to read out loud in front of their peers.

The students engaged in the following avoidance behaviors outlined by Damico et al. (2008):

1. Interjection of off-topic comments or behaviors when the invitation to read was anticipated or when it was issued.
2. Picture description or a reasonable extension of the story segment just read to him rather than reading the text.
3. Interjection of on-topic comments about the story rather than attempt reading.

4. Direct refusal to read by verbal or nonverbal means. (p. 287)

Students were often observed interjecting off-topic comments when a reading response or activity was expected. Socially, they knew there was an expectation for a response and responded with verbal discourse. As Damico et al. (2008) explains “these strategies may present evidence that even when one cannot perform a specific meaning-making task like reading, there is still the recognition by the individual that he/she has interactional obligations within the social contexts that must be fulfilled” (p. 284). In addition to the off-topic comments, students were frequently observed extending a part of a story instead of reading it. For example, in one observation, students were reading a story about a lemonade stand in their reading books. When one of the participating students was asked to read, he began to talk about a lemonade stand he and a friend had made during the summer. After he was finished with his story, the teacher called on another child to read the text. Another student was asked to read a sentence she wrote about the Statue of Liberty during a noun/verb sentence activity. Instead of reading her sentence, the student talked about her visit to New York and to the Statue of Liberty. These students also engaged in many nonverbal refusals to read. They would stare at their text when asked to read and say nothing until another student was called on to read.

The most striking observation noticed in the classroom is the time these students spent off-task. Godwin et al. (2013) explained that “student inattentiveness (i.e., engagement in off-task behavior during instructional time) is the biggest factor that accounts for loss of instructional time” spending” between 10% and 50% of their time off-task in regular education classrooms” (p. 2428). Godwin et al. (2013) concluded that peers, the environment, and the students themselves provided the most common types of distraction in the classroom. The present study suggests that avoidance behaviors may lead to inattentiveness, leading to off-task behavior.

Emotional Distress

In addition to the two major themes of avoidance and anxiety that emerged from the data, indicators of Zambo and Brem's (2004) Checklist for Emotional Distress Related to Reading were noted. According to the checklist, Zambo and Brem (2004) indicated two general automatic reactions to reading that may indicate emotional distress: fear and threat. In addition, children may demonstrate flight reactions, fight reactions, or general moods and self-schemas that indicate low self-efficacy, dark mood, and learned helplessness. The data coded with avoidance seem to coincide with the flight and cognition, mood, and self-schema categories on Zambo and Brem's (2004) checklist. The data coded as anxiety coincided with the general reaction category on the checklist. The coded data were then used to complete the checklist (See Table 3).

Second and third-grade children struggling with reading demonstrated general reactions of fear and threat, behavior indicating a flight response, and evidence of learned helplessness. After these focused codes were analyzed, a new question was formed. Why are second and third-grade children experiencing reading anxiety and avoiding the task of reading? To find explanations, the data were reanalyzed for possible reasons and recoded.

Teachers reported that these children were unmotivated, had a low frustration tolerance, and would give up very easily. The avoidance behaviors were often perceived as the child not caring about his/her reading success. Parents reported that they felt their children did not read as well as other children and they were uncomfortable reading in front of peers. For example, one parent stated, "He says he is stupid and the other students laugh at him." Another student's parent stated, "She loves to read but does not want to do it in class because her friends are a lot better than she is." Half of the children in the study indicated that they would rather read in their special reading class (Title I support class), presumably because the group size is smaller and

less likely to criticize. Their parents indicated this preference as well. One parent had asked his/her child if he would like to be taken out of the special class and the student responded that "it would not be a good thing."

Table 3

Characteristics of Zambo and Brem's (2004) Checklist of Emotional Distress Discovered in the Anecdotal Records and Interviews With the Participating Students

Automatic Reactions	Observed Behaviors	Child's Quotations
General Reaction Reading evokes a fear reaction and when asked to read, the child's higher-level thinking shuts down. The child perceives reading as a threat. This reaction is automatic, fast, and without measured thought.	• Anxious • Anxious reading in school • Appeared nervous • Compares himself with other classmates • Doesn't want peers to see him mess up • Embarrassed by peers to read aloud • Embarrassed that she struggles • Embarrassed by another student calling out her inability to read • Embarrassed to read aloud in class • Embarrassed to read aloud in class • Embarrassed to read in front of peers • Engaging in physical behaviors that may indicate anxiety or nervousness • Feel better reading at home - relaxing • Feels embarrassed and uncomfortable about reading • Feels inferior to other classmates • Feels uncomfortable • Frustrated • Frustration tolerance is really low • Feels stuck or forced to read • Feels worried • Indicating embarrassment • Less anxiety in special reading	"I don't want to read out loud if I mess up on a word – that kind of sucks, you know?" "I have to read out loud in school, but not every time I want to." "Reading in school makes me feel sad, just in school." "I feel bad about reading. I don't like a lot of words, a lot of hard words. I like to do fun stuff." "I don't like anything about it [reading]." "Yes! Reading is over!" "I can't do it." "I don't know the word, I read it." "I am bad at reading."

	class • Low frustration tolerance • Low perseverance • Prefers to read with special teacher • Received negative feedback from peer • Shared answer, froze when asked to explain it • She can do it but is embarrassed • Worries about reading grades	
The Flight Reaction The child withdraws from reading situations and tries to avoid reading at all costs.	• Hid behind her book • Hid face • Hid from the text • Lied instead of read • Avoidance of lengthy reading tasks • Avoided beginning reading-writing task • Avoided long text reading • Avoided reading by mouthing words during independent reading. • Avoided reading task by negotiation • Avoided talking about reading by telling me a story • Avoided text reading • Avoided the reading task • Avoiding additional work • Avoiding independent reading • Avoids any challenging reading task • Avoids being made fun of • Avoids letting others know he is struggling • Avoids reading • Shares unrelated responses instead of answers • Student avoids the reading task • Distracted herself from the task of reading • Distracting behaviors • Engaging in distracting behavior • Engaging in off task behaviors • Used conversation in place of reading • Verbally distracting • Volunteering but not giving an answer	"You read it to me and I will write the answers." "I forget my answer." "Do I have to finish?" "I broke my pencil again, I have to sharpen it." "I want to be in recess now. What do you want to play?"

	• When it's their choice, they will avoid reading • Wouldn't pick reading as a free choice	
When asked to read, the child displays somatic symptoms (e.g., headaches, stomachaches).	• Avoid reading by going to the bathroom or nurse • Avoiding reading by going to the bathroom • Avoiding reading by going to the nurse • mouthed answers instead of reading them	"I am done talking and want to go to recess." "Can I use the bathroom?" "I have a stomach ache."
The child displays learned helplessness—he/she has given up and holds little hope for himself/herself in reading.	• Asked for teacher to read direction to her • Asked teacher for help • Avoided reading task by having partner do it • Used peer observation • Uses peer assistance • Uses peer assistance to complete task • Student won't try • Changes to work to have correct answer • Copies from partner • Copies from teacher • Correcting work so it was right • Covered work from others	"You read the words and I will write the answers." "She can't read, but I will help her so she can read it to the class." "You write the answers and I will copy them."

The students were observed manipulating peers to complete the reading part of group work. Students were also observed asking to use the restroom before reading in front of the class. These behaviors suggest that peer opinion plays a strong role in the emotions these children are experiencing. They are afraid of appearing inferior in reading competence in front of their peers. According to Erikson (1993), children between the ages of six and 11 are going through an identity crisis referred to as industry vs. inferiority. School and the child's peers are significant factors influencing this internal crisis. Industry refers to a sense of competence or mastery. Inferiority is the extreme opposite. In non-literate cultures, children in this age range would be

learning the adults' roles and tools of society through engaging in mentoring programs. In literate cultures, children in this age range are working on reading competence. Children who are not able to demonstrate competency in independent reading skills develop a great sense of inferiority in relation to their peers (Erikson, 1993). The feeling of incompetence could trigger the fear response which manifests as behavioral signs of anxiety.

Emergent Theory

Charmaz (2006) described theory as a "practice . . . . It entails the practical activity of engaging the world and of constructing abstract understandings about and within it" (p. 128). As data are coded and analyzed in grounded theory research, theory begins to emerge. The theory emerges from the data and takes shape with analysis and reanalysis of data. In this research, an interesting theory emerged. The data suggest that children experiencing challenges in reading often respond with a neurological response of fear. This response manifests itself as emotional distress as indicated by behavioral signs of anxiety. The data suggested that a reason for the anxiety and avoidance could be fear and/or embarrassment of peer ridicule and opinion. To avoid the feelings of fear, anxiety, and embarrassment, these students often avoid tasks involving reading. Teachers frequently misinterpret the avoidance as a negative attitude toward reading, low motivation, and a poor work ethic (See Figure 16).

Teachers' perceptions of challenges are especially important. They perceived these children as expecting to fail and then living up to that expectation. The teachers, themselves, may have expected these children to fail and felt their support efforts were useless. However, from a neurological perspective, these students may be experiencing a fear response in the brain when confronted with reading tasks and deal with the feelings of fear by engaging in flight behaviors that take the form of avoidance.

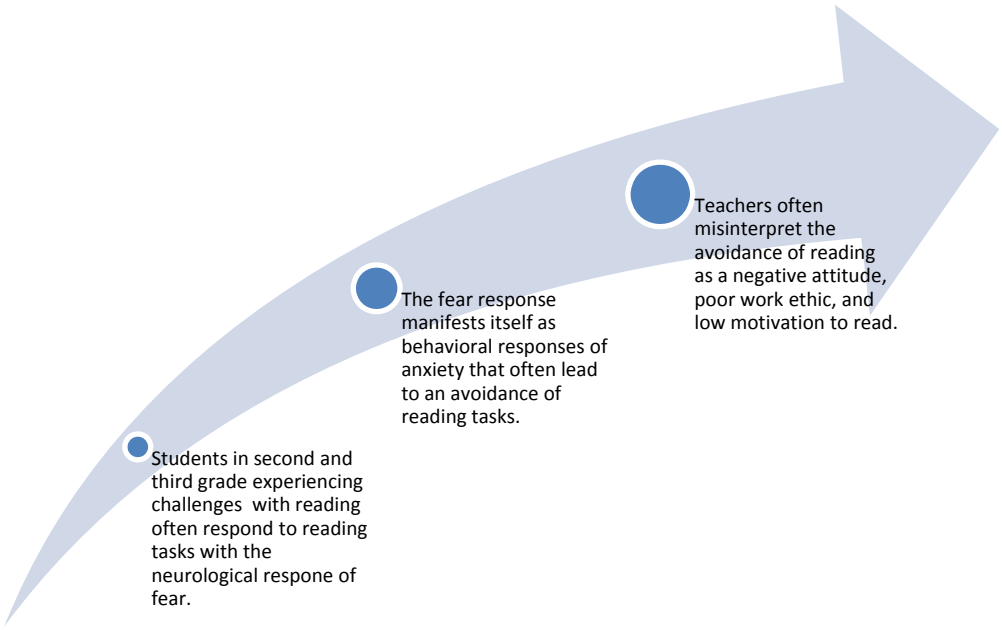

Figure 16. Emergent theory. This figure demonstrates major points of the emergent theory developed in this research.

Zambo and Brem (2004) explained that once the fear response is felt, "our bodies know the response so well, it is nearly impossible to stop it from happening in the face of a perceived threat" (p. 193). This reaction can develop into reading anxiety that can eventually turn into a reading phobia (Jalongo & Hirsh, 2010). Second and third-grade children in this study, reacted to the fear they felt reading primarily with a flight response that led to avoidance behaviors and strategies. In the literature review, it was noted that older children can become aggressive, defiant, hyper-vigilant, and disruptive in response to reading challenges (Zambo & Brem, 2004). These types of responses to fear indicate a fight response instead of the flight response noticed in the second and third-grade children participating in this study.

This could be due to that fact that young children still have a sense that they need to "be nice" in the classroom, especially toward their teachers. Parents caution their children to listen to

their teachers and to “be nice” to adults and peers. However, for a young child who struggles with reading, this could create an internal struggle. The child’s teacher has inadvertently set up a stressful environment that invites peer ridicule and embarrasses the reader who struggles. The child develops anxiety in response to the fear he/she feels in this environment. The child reacts with subtle avoidance behaviors that still give the appearance of “being nice.” As these children become older, a strong fight response develops as the child no longer feels the need to “be nice” and reacts more aggressively and defiantly (Zambo & Brem, 2004).

Summary

The emergent theory presented in Chapter Four has strong implications for the classroom as it can create an unhealthy cycle of emotional and behavioral responses that can manifest into more significant behaviors as the reader who struggles becomes older. Chapter Five provides a discussion of the research findings along with implications of this emergent theory.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

In a culture that values literacy for education and work, proficient readers have a greater chance for financial stability, lower prison rates, better health, lower family stress, and even higher life expectancy (Kirsch et al., 1993; Roman, 2004). The advantages of becoming a competent reader add significantly to one's quality of life. Schools spend tremendous resources and time educating public school children; the average per pupil expenditure reported in the United States is $11,184.00 (United States Department of Education, 2013). When children are first identified as struggling readers, they are usually recommended for a reading assistance program such as Title I. These programs often begin when children are expected to master independent reading, usually by second-grade (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2011; Fox & Alexander, 2011; Wanzek & Roberts, 2008). Most research studies involving reading examine specific approaches or strategies (D'Agostine & Murphy, 2004). The goal of this study was to examine the feelings and dispositions of second and third-grade students identified as experiencing difficulties with reading. The research examined this issue from multiple perspectives including the viewpoints of students, parents, and teachers.

In Chapter Two, reading was defined as a "moving target" (Leu, 1997, p. 62). Leu (1997) explained that:

> What it means to be literate has become a moving target, one we can never completely define because information and communication technologies continually change. As the meaning of literacy changes, our role as literacy educators is also being fundamentally altered. (p. 62)

This definition provides great insight into the constantly changing role of teachers and parents as they help children to become literate. Teachers need to address dispositions and

emotional competence in their definitions of literacy. As Jalongo and Hirsh (2010) cautioned, "unless they [teachers] consider the affective realm, children's progress in reading—most especially the progress of children with reading anxiety—will remain stalled" (p. 434).

Chapter Two provided a theoretical foundation to begin the study. Greenspan and Shanker's (2004) developmental evolutionary model of symbolic thought, the dichotomous role of emotions and cognition (Masten & Chichetti, 2010), expectancy-value theory (Applegate & Applegate, 2010), and theories of reading development (Clay, 1966; Healy, 1999; Piaget & Inhelder, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978) supported the theoretical context for pursing a study into emotions and reading challenges. These theories offered valuable insight and provided a starting point for the development of the emergent theories presented in Chapter Four.

In Chapter Three, the methodology was presented. This study employed a grounded theory methodology that involved synthesizing and coding data from students, parents, and teachers and analyzing the data for emerging theoretical perspectives. The methodology followed Charmaz's (2006) recommendations for coding and uncovering an emergent theory.

In Chapter Four, the data were analyzed and presented from multiple perspectives. Individual participants' data were reported, followed by a comparison of the three different perspectives (students, teachers, and parents). A detailed process for coding data was explained and the focused codes of anxiety and avoidance were identified. Chapter Four concluded with an emergent theory. Implications of this theory are reported in Chapter Five.

Chapter Five provides a general summary, a discussion of the findings, and presents implications of the emergent grounded theories. The chapter concludes with recommendations for future research and a reflection on the dissertation.

General Summary

The reading theories presented in the literature review included: (1) The Theory of Literacy Development (Holdaway, 1979), (2) Maturation Theory (Healy, 1999; Piaget & Inhelder, 2000), (3) Stage Theory (Chall, 1983; Ehri, 1991; Gunning, 2005), (4) Emergent Literacy Theory (Clay, 1966; Snow, Burns & Griffin, 1998; Teale & Sulzby, 1991), (5) Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1986; Vygtosky, 1978), and (6) Cognitive Processing Theory (Gough, 1972; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; Rumelhart, 1994; Stanovich, 1984). Maturation and stage theory focued on a developmental model of reading, while the others focued on techniques such as read-alouds, shared reading, book buddies, context clues, and word families; all of these strategies were used in the participating students' classrooms (Healy, 1999; Piaget & Inhelder, 2000). Even though these strategies were rooted in reading theory, the social context of the learning environment did not provide the social support needed for success. In fact, often times, the social context of the classroom provided a source of anxiety and stress that were counterproductive to reading development. Social learning theory recognized the importance of social context and could offer insight into facilitating a classroom environment that supports reading development through scaffolding and careful attention and crafting of peer interactions, facilitating the development of a safe and accepting community of learners (Vygotsky, 1978).

In addition to the examination of teaching practices rooted in reading theory, the study also implied the need for differentiation in teaching. Differentiated instruction is "a method of teaching that asks teachers to know their students so well that they can respond to individual needs and provide tasks and learning experiences that move each student forward" (Robb, 2013, p. 14). Different students require different methods of instruction. The teaching methods used in these classrooms, while rooted in reading theory, were not effective and needed to address the

student's academic and emotional needs. Over the five-day observation period, it was noted that all students read the same text selections, regardless of their reading abilities. These selections were often too difficult for the participating students. Texts can be varied based on student interest and reading level. Robb (2013) suggests that teachers can use similar methods of discussing varied texts that help all children become part of the conversation, but responding to their particular text selection. For example, Robb (2013) suggests teachers can facilitate small group discussions about "text structure, themes and central ideas, author's purposes, character's or person's goal, obstacle faced, personality traits, significance of information presented, and literary elements" (p. 20). Tomlinson (2001) cautions that differentiated instruction "is not simply giving a 'normal' assignment to most students and 'different' assignments to students who are struggling or advanced. That approach usually creates a 'pecking order' among students, which then tends to cause other troubles" (p.14). Rather, there are "multiple avenues to learning for varied needs, rather than in terms of normal and different" (p. 15). This is an important distinction. Dispelling the classroom hierarchy of those who are normal and those who are different would help to create a more positive emotional state in the classroom. Differentiation in teaching is important, however, it does not seem to be enough to support these children's emotional needs. One of the greatest needs these children demonstrated was the need for an environment that facilitated positive emotional states for learning.

Jensen (2005) identified two emotional states that are detrimental to learning, fear/threat, and sadness/disappointment. These negative states increase cortisol and can damage to the hippocampus which impairs short term to long term memory storage (Jensen, 2005). The behaviors observed during the five-day observation period of data collection indicated that some of these children were in a state of fear or threat. Others were skilled enough with coping

strategies to avoid reading tasks or to deal with some of the anxiety they were experiencing in second and third-grade. However, as reading becomes more demanding in higher grade-levels, avoidance will become more difficult and their inability to read will become more significant and noticed in the classroom. When children struggle with reading in later grade-levels, they are reported to have more difficulty relating to peers, paying attention in class, are more likely to react aggressively, become anxious, and suffer from depression (Arnold et al., 2005; Carroll et al., 2005; Kempe et al., 2011; Morgan, Farkas, & Wu, 2012; Trzesniewski et al., 2006). Zambo and Brem (2004) reported that older children are also more likely react to fear and threat with a fight response. Zambo and Brem (2004) found that middle school children display a fight reaction by becoming "defiant, cautious, hypervigilant, and react negatively without thinking about the consequences" (p. 191). It is imperative to change the classroom environment to encourage positive emotional states to improve school performance and prevent classroom circumstances that compromise emotional health. (Croizet & Dutrevis, 2004; Feldman, 2007; Gygax et al., 2007; Jensen, 2005; Osborne, 2007).

Implications

The emergent themes identified in Chapter Four are significant. The data suggested that children experiencing challenges in reading often respond with a neurological response of fear. This response manifested itself as emotional distress as indicated by behavioral signs of anxiety. The data suggested that a reason for the anxiety and avoidance could be fear and/or embarrassment of peer ridicule and opinion. To avoid the feelings of fear, anxiety, and embarrassment, these students often avoided tasks involving reading. Teachers often misinterpreted the avoidance as a negative attitude toward reading, low motivation, and a poor work ethic.

The participating children struggling in this study with reading manifested their emotional distress primarily through behavior symptoms of anxiety and avoidance. Most often these symptoms of emotional distress were a result of embarrassment in front of their peers. Erikson (1993) explained that children of this age are going through an internal crisis of industry versus inferiority. They are trying to develop a sense of competence and accomplishment. School and peers are major influences during this crisis. Teachers frequently misinterpreted the avoidance behaviors as an unwillingness to try. Typically, programs designed to help second and third-grade children struggling with reading focus on intervention, retention, and/or remediation (Ziolkowska, 2007). All of these approaches focus on the five pillars of reading: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension" (National Institute of Literacy, 2008, n.p.). While these are important literacy skills, these approaches focus on a task-and-skills model of literacy development and neglect the anxiety suggested in this study. There seems to be a mismatch between the child's abilities and learning styles and the instructional program. As a result, these children are often "miseducated" by the pendulum swing toward specific skills. Elkind (1983) refers to these children as "curriculum disabled" and stated that "Children who fall into these categories are those who have learning styles or strategies that conflict with those demanded by the school program or who are bored or confused with the materials being used" (p.71).

There have been some programs designed to match the child's needs more closely such as Response to Intervention (RtI) and Success for All (U.S. Department of Education, 2007). The Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act, (2004) mandated that school districts could no longer wait until parents expressed concerns over children's academic achievement. The school had to actively monitor and assess children to identify those who might have

challenges as early as possible. IDEA mandated data-driven methodologies of assessment and monitoring, which led to the creation of a tiered system of intervention known as Response to Intervention (RtI). RtI is typically used in public schools. Children are monitored consistently for their reading progress and when a problem is identified, children receive different levels of intervention. If the child is still not successful after the most aggressive level of intervention has been reached, the child is referred for special education testing and help. Success for All (U.S. Department of Education, 2007) refers to a standards-based school reform effort created by researchers at John Hopkins University that groups students by reading level and provides 90 minutes daily blocks of reading instruction. Parents are strongly encouraged to be involved in decisions regarding group placements and to decrease absenteeism. The method uses a faculty and family support team along with cooperative learning strategies. Despite the intentions of these reform programs, they have been highly criticized by education activists such as Jonothan Kozol for their standard-driven emphasis and for creating learning environments that are racially segregated (Kozol, 2005).

Programs for struggling readers need to incorporate strategies for recognizing and responding to emotional distress in the classroom. A call for three distinct approaches is in order. (1) Social and emotional standards need to be a priority in the classroom. (2) Teachers need training and support to recognize emotional distress and to be able to respond to it appropriately. (3) Intervention programs need to address efficacy, resiliency, and peer relationships. Teachers need to be trained to recognize symptoms of anxiety and avoidance to help children deal with reading anxiety. They also need to be equipped with strategies to help children cope with anxiety. An intervention curriculum needs to respond to the emotional needs of these children along with their academic needs.

Social Emotional Standards

Emotional goals and competencies should be tied to literacy goals. According to Masten and Chichetti (2010), development occurs in "cascades" rather than in isolation. Emotions and reading develop in response to one another and rely on the brain processes and chemicals of each other to continually evolve and grow. If reading skills are compromised and children begin developing feelings of distress, this could become a threat not only to emotional development, but to literacy achievement. These areas of development will continue to impact each other throughout the child's schooling. It is important to recognize that emotions are responsible for building academic constructs in the brain (Greenspan, 1997; Greenspan & Shanker, 2004; Jensen, 2005).

Educational reform needs to broaden its focus to include emotional standards. In contemporary educational policy, many states have adopted the new Common Core State Standards (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2011). These standards focus on mathematics, language arts, and literacy skills as they apply to science, history, social studies, and technical studies. Upon review of the language arts standards for kindergarten through third-grade, it is noticed that there is no reference to emotional goals, motivation, dispositions or feelings toward reading. This research study suggests that these are critical goals toward helping children develop reading competence. Public policy should support the role emotions play in cognition and literacy. As Elkind (1983) states "in order to effectively serve the curriculum-disabled children, educators and mental health care professionals must relinquish the clinical bifurcation between the cognitive and affective domains and instead view the total child" (p. 71).

Emotional goals are important for future academic, familial, and social success (Della Mattera, 2010; Galinsky, 2010). Galinsky (2010) proposed seven emotional goals that are critical

to future academic success. Those goals include: "(1) focus and self-control, (2) perspective taking, (3) communicating, (4) making connections, (5) critical thinking, (6) taking on challenges, and (7) self-directed/engaged learning" (Galinsky, 2010, p. 4). These goals need to be taken into consideration when creating standards for children.

Focus and self-control develop in an environment that foster positive emotional states to help children develop attention and provides children opportunities to develop self-regulation. Self-regulation is a critical emotional skill that involves not only body control, but emotional control (Greenspan, 1997). Children learn to regulate their emotional responses to various stimuli in the environment. Healthy development of emotional regulation helps children react appropriately to stress, anxiety, and other strong feelings (Galinsky, 2010; Greenspan 1997).

Galinsky (2010) defined the ability to see various points of view as perspective taking. Piaget and Inhelder (2000) suggested that children are not able to cognitively take another's point of view into consideration until they have developed concrete operational thinking. However, in studies of young children, Gopnik, Meltzoff, and Kuhl (2004) found that even young toddlers are able to read the emotional cues of others and respond appropriately. Gopnik, Meltzoff, and Kuhl (2004) studied young toddlers who were offered two bowls of food. One bowl contained broccoli and one contained goldfish crackers. The toddlers preferred the goldfish crackers. The toddler watched as an adult ate from each of the bowls. If the adult demonstrated a strong dislike for the goldfish crackers and a strong preference for the broccoli, the toddler would offer the adult the broccoli. If the adult demonstrated a strong dislike for broccoli and a strong preference for crackers, the toddler would offer the adult the crackers. This analogy can apply to reading. If adults or peers react negatively to reading and the child's reading efforts, the child may not want to read in front of those adults and peers. As a result, they miss important

opportunities for reading growth as they avoid instruction designed to work on specific reading skills. Perspective taking is also important for peers. More capable peers need to develop empathy toward peers who struggle with tasks such as reading and create an accepting and supporting environment.

Communicating extends perspective taking (Galinsky, 2010). Children need to feel comfortable verbally expressing their feelings and points of view. Tomasello and Farrar (1986) theorized that early communication and language develop as mothers follow their child's lead, as opposed to directing their child's attention. This pattern of interaction needs supported in the classroom Teachers need to create opportunities to follow their students' leads and encourage initiative. Greenspan (1997) explained that emotional thinking (giving specific reasons for feelings) was an important skill in academic and emotional development. Students need to be able not only to state how they feel, but be able to give reasons. Many of the participating children in this study demonstrated behaviors that indicated anxiety and stress in relation to reading out loud in front of peers. Only a few of the participating students talked about the stress they felt reading. None of the teachers verbally acknowledged the stress and anxiety these students were feeling in the classroom. Both teachers and students should be encouraged to talk about the emotional reservations children may have in the classroom. The children's anxiety needs to be recognized and validated by an empathetic teacher that can skillfully help the child deal with these emotions as they move forward with reading progress.

Often times, reading programs focus on isolated skills including phonics, comprehension, and vocabulary. In isolation, these skills have little meaning. However, when students can connect these skills to meaningful experiences, a stronger and more positive emotional connection can be made that helps facilitate the acquisition of these skills. Galinsky (2010) refers

to this as making connections. In this research study, students were most attentive and participatory when they felt connected to a story or content in some way. The ability to make connections across disciplines is a highly prized skill in contemporary society; as Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (2013) explained “a chemist who adopts quantum mechanics from physics and applies it to molecular bonds can make a more substantive contribution to chemistry than one who stays exclusively within the bounds of chemistry” (p. 9). The ability to make connections is often a skill demonstrated by highly creative individuals (Csikszentmihalyi, 2013).

Galinsky (2010) describes critical thinking as the ability to think deeply about the reliability and validity of information. Reading support programs often approach reading from a task and skills perspective. As a result, these children are not encouraged to think critically about content and do not develop more sophisticated analysis skills. These skills would not only help them to think critically, but would help them pick and choose appropriate reading strategies that would be helpful to them in various reading situations.

The most challenging aspect noted in this research study were the participating children’s difficulty taking risks with reading. Risk taking allows children to be resilient when faced with stress or disappointment (Galinsky, 2010). Risk taking can be compromised when children are in negative emotional states (Jensen, 2005) and have developed characteristics of learned helplessness (Zambo & Brem, 2004). Goodman (1976) referred to reading as a “psycholinguistic guessing game” (p. 2). He described reading as:

> An interaction between thought and language. Efficient reading does not result from precise perception and identification of all elements, but from skill in selecting the fewest, most productive cues necessary to produce guesses which are right the first time.

> The ability to anticipate that which has not been seen, of course, is vital in reading, just as the ability to anticipate what has not yet been heard is vital in listening. (p. 2)

This game is complex and requires quick interactions between cognition and language. Goodman's (1976) game is described in Figure 17.

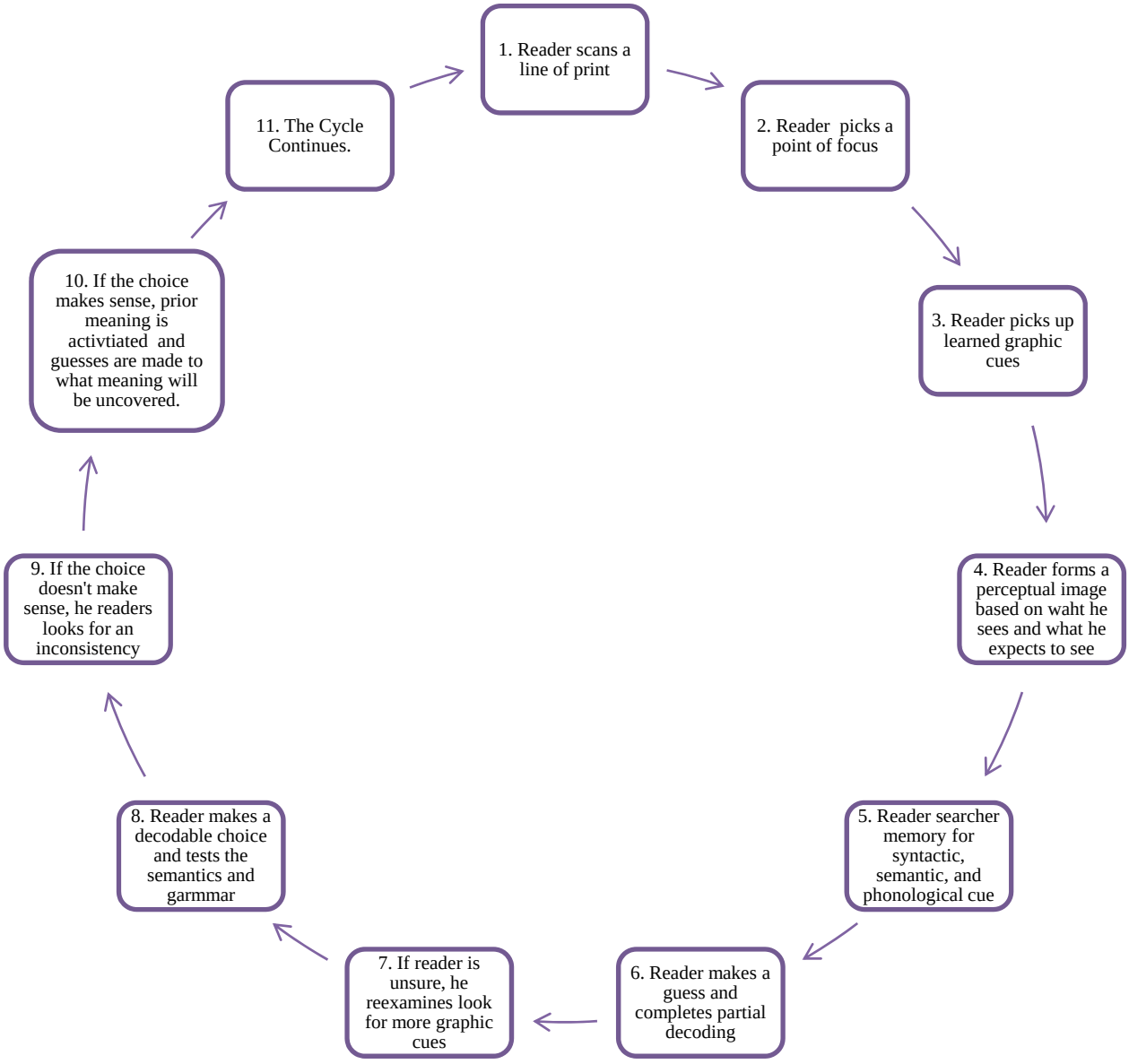

Figure 17. Goodman's (1976) psycholinguistic guessing game. This figure shows the cycle of reading identified by Goodman (1976) as children read.

Children struggling with reading have developed a dislike for the game. An environment needs to be created where children can try to read and fail without the ridicule of peers or a teacher and where they feel supported and confident in playing the game. As with most games, there is a winner and a loser. Children struggling with reading often feel they are the loser. The constant feeling of losing may prevent them from wanting to play and may contribute to some of the avoidance behaviors observed in the study. Most students reported feeling more comfortable reading out loud in their Title I reading classes. This smaller environment most likely offered a safer place to take risks in front of children who had similar challenges and similar fears of failure.

Galinksky's (2010) final goal is self-directed and engaged learning. In an environment that supports self-directed and engaged learning, children are encouraged to explore and develop their own interests, have meaningful choices in learning materials and objectives, form their own theories, and test their own hypotheses. In the classrooms observed in this study, teacher-directed experiences dominated the classroom. Allowing children to have more choices in reading material, experiences, and activities may help children become more self-directed and engaged in reading. In contemporary classrooms, much of the school day is dedicated to language arts and math due to the emphasis of these skills on mandatory state competency tests. Little attention is given to developing other areas of competence. This makes it difficult for children to develop a sense of competence and industry in other areas besides these skills. Children need time and opportunity to explore skills where they may discover an interest or strength to experience success and to develop a healthy sense of industry (Erikson, 1993, Gardner, 1993). Many students reported liking to read or listening to stories of their choosing. Parents reported that these students still like to visit the library and choose books. Giving students opportunities to

make these choices in the classroom could help create a more positive emotional state and lessen some of the anxiety these children feel.

These children need to experience success in order develop a feeling of competence in other domains so they do not feel inferior to their peers who may be competent readers. Csikszentmihalyi (2013) explained that children need time to explore their interests and strengths to attain the optimal experience of "flow" (p. 100). Flow was described as "an automatic, effortless, yet highly focused state of consciousness" (Csikszentmihalyi, 2013, p. 10); in this state of consciousness, children can focus intently on a goal, take risks, are not aware of time, and aren't afraid to fail.

Emotional goals could be evaluated using an anecdotal record keeping system. Teachers could track students' progress with each goal as they track the progress of academic goals. However, the evaluation of these goals would not result in a letter grade or similar rating system. Teachers would use them to gauge the students' developing dispositions toward reading and change instruction, environment, and interactions based on the anecdotal observations. The disposition assessments could be used as important points of conversation during parent conferences and meetings with Title I reading teachers.

Teacher Preparation Programs

Teacher training programs typically emphasize content areas such as reading and math. For example, Pennsylvania's Department of Education (PDE) Pre-K to 4 Professional Core (2009) identified six areas that teaching candidates need to develop competence in that include: "(1) development, cognition and learning, (2) subject matter content and pedagogy, (3) assessment, (4) family and community collaboration partnerships, (5) professionalism, and (6) adaptations and accommodations for diverse students in an inclusive setting and meeting the

needs of English language learners" (p. 6). In PDE's course recommendations for teacher certification programs, the emphasis is on courses that address content areas such as reading and math. Multiple competencies revolve around reading development. Social/emotional development is addressed once in the following candidate competency: "Demonstrate an understanding of Social Emotional Development (self-regulation, self-concept, self-awareness, resilience and stress)" (p. 18). There was one general reference to disposition in the appendix: "Design curriculum that includes both planned and spontaneous experiences that are meaningful and challenging for all children that lead to positive learning outcomes and develop positive dispositions toward learning within each content area" (p. 52). This sends a strong message about the emphasis in teacher preparation programs and possibly highlights their biggest weakness. Social/emotional development needs to be taken seriously in classrooms and teacher preparation programs if it is to be implemented in elementary classrooms.

Teachers often mistake a fear/threat neurological response to reading as a negative attitude and low motivation. Teachers reported that these children were unmotivated, had a low frustration tolerance, and would give up very easily. The avoidance behaviors were often perceived as the child not caring about his/her reading success and misinterpreted as the child's unwillingness to try instead of the aftermath of damaged self-esteem as readers. Teachers need (1) training in how to foster healthy social and emotional development in the classroom, (2) training that helps teachers recognize stress and anxiety, and (3) social/emotional intervention strategies. This type of training often involves modeling. Too often, students' emotional needs continue to be ignored throughout elementary, middle, high school, and college. Education college and university professors are often victims to the same standardized-test driven environment that victimizes elementary teachers. Teacher preparation programs have very

specific standards to meet to uphold their accreditation to various state agencies. As a result, college students often face the same emotional neglect in the classroom environment. While the adult student requires a different kind of emotional support than a young child, the adult student can thrive in an environment where his/her emotional needs are met. Perhaps if adults participated in a teacher training program that not only taught the importance of academic needs, but recognized and responded to their emotional needs, prospective teachers might see the benefit and willingly attend to emotional health in the classroom.

Intervention Program Reform

In the literature review, it was noted that most programs address reading challenges through intervention, retention, or remediation. These programs typically focus on strategies that develop the five pillars of reading (National Institute of Literacy, 2008). These programs neglect emotions and dispositions which are critical to reading success. The data obtained in this study suggest that intervention programs need to support efficacy, peer relationships, and resiliency.

In order for children develop a positive sense of self-efficacy, these programs should start with the recognition of emotional cues. Programs for reading readiness should include parent and teacher training focused on affect which would allow the parent and teacher to recognize and respond to emotional cues appropriately (Greenspan, 1997). Greenspan (2001) explained that "family patterns that foster healthy relationships are essential for healthy emotional and intellectual growth" (p. 22). This type of approach would help parents and teachers read and recognize the emotional cues of young children and respond appropriately. Emotions saturate every cognitive process in the brain associated with learning (Feldman, 2007; Greenspan, 1997; Greenspan & Shanker, 2006; Jensen, 2005; Zull, 2006). Learning to respond appropriately to emotional cues may help cognitive structures develop in the brain that support early reading and

have the potential to prevent some reading challenges. Affect synchrony can be developed through an environment that supports mediated learning. Mediation responds to the emotional needs of the child and helps interpret and formulate affective responses into symbolic experiences. This approach may help build a foundation for accurately describing emotional responses to stress and anxiety and help the child develop coping strategies for these feelings. As students learn to identify and respond appropriately to emotions, they will have a more positive outlook on their capabilities and strengths, which will lead a positive sense of self-efficacy.

Intervention programs should involve psychologists and counselors. These individuals have training to support children who are suffering from anxiety and could collaborate with teachers to offer strong support systems for dealing with responses to fear and threat and help instill resiliency in these children. Zambo and Brem (2004) explain that these responses need to be unlearned, as they are neurological responses to fear. Part of the intervention process should focus on creating environments where children feel safe taking risks. The participating children often avoided engaging in strategies designed to foster reading skills, thus depriving them of the very practice they needed. They missed important opportunities for practice and skill development. Avoidance behaviors need to be recognized and teachers need training as to how to respond to them and help the child participate and feel safe doing so. Children in second and third-grade rely on the thoughts and perceptions of their peers (Erikson, 1993). They find it very difficult to reveal their incompetence to their peers and will avoid those types of situations. A sense of resiliency offers a child the motivation and perseverance to work through struggling and frustrating challenges. Teachers need to be aware of peer influence and create a culture of support among classmates through modeling and encouragement

Cultivating a community of learners that is supportive of one another is extremely important. Peers need an environment where they can seek out each other for support, validation, and encouragement. Strengths should be identified and talked about in the classroom in order to create peer support, where each child is recognized for a specific strength.

Limitations

The most significant limitation of the study was the number of participants. The qualitative grounded theory approach produces an emergent theory relative to the group studied. Nine children participated in the study. The children represented two second-grade classrooms and two third-grade classrooms in one school building located in a suburb of a major city in Pennsylvania. A larger population of students from multiple types of schools would help support, challenge, or expand the emergent theory developed in this study.

The second limitation was the length of time spent observing and creating anecdotal notes. The observations of the participating students occurred over a five-day period and are only representations of observed behaviors for those days. A longer observation period would allow for a more accurate assessment and confirmation of the observed behaviors.

The third limitation of the study was the richness of the qualitative data obtained from the parents. The qualitative data gleaned from the parent participants were not as rich as expected. Most of the parent's narrative responses were short. Providing additional questions and follow up questions might have evoked richer responses from the parents. One of the parents did not return the survey and another did not answer the narrative questions. It would be preferable to have a larger parent population and have the opportunity to speak to the parents one-on-one.

Recommendations for Future Research

This research studied the feelings and dispositions of second- and third-grade children struggling with reading along with their parents' and teachers' perspectives. Future studies and research in this area would add valuable insight into this issue and help inform classroom training programs and teaching practices. The following are recommendations for future research.

Similar grounded theory studies would need to be conducted in other public school classrooms across the country to see if related grounded theories emerge. This study was limited to nine children in four classrooms in one public school. Insight into students', teachers', and parents' perspectives were gleaned for this setting, but multiple classroom settings would provide additional insight and validity into this issue and would determine if other children are who experiencing reading challenges report the same feelings.

The second recommendation for future research is to conduct a longitudinal predictive qualitative study that looks at the emotions second- and third-grade children struggling with reading experience in schools that attend to emotional competencies. First-grade children's literacy skills could be measured with a standardized reading achievement instrument and their predispositions toward anxiety could be measured with an anxiety scale. Regardless of the results of the initial scales, these children would participate in an emotional support program that focuses on emotional competence, resiliency, peer support, and strategies for handling anxiety. These children would be followed for three years. In second and third grades, each child would take a standardized grade-level achievement test in reading and an anxiety scale to compare the results from previous years. It would be beneficial to see if early attention to emotional health

helped children to develop strategies necessary to cope with the anxiety experienced as a result of reading challenges.

The third recommendation for future research is a qualitative research study investigating the emotions second- and third-grade children experience who attend elementary school programs that help children develop a sense of industry through curricular methods that address multiple intelligences, crafts and trades, or the arts and dance. This type of study would help determine if developing competence in other areas of development helps children develop resiliency when dealing with the stress associated with reading difficulties. This type of study would further explore the theoretical perspective that emerged from this research.

The fourth recommendation for future research would be a mixed-method longitudinal study examining the impact of high quality differentiated instruction in reading. The study could follow multiple classrooms in a variety of settings using a similar differentiated instruction philosophy that focuses on individual students and dispels the normal versus different myth to see if this type of environment creates a more positive emotional state for reading growth to occur.

The final recommendation for future research would be a national survey of children, families, and teachers in Title I to determine the feelings and dispositions toward reading on a national scale. This type of study would help to determine the relationship between emotional competence and reading competence with a greater population.

Summary and Reflection

This study addressed the emotions experienced by second and third-grade children in conjunction with learning to read, along with the perspectives of their parents and teachers. The researcher truly valued the time spent interviewing and observing these young children. It was

heartbreaking to observe some of the physical manifestations of anxiety. The students' anxieties inspired the researcher to keep moving with this research and to tell their story. These young children want to be good readers. Unfortunately, they have become adept at relying on avoidance behaviors and tend to miss opportunities for reading growth because of anxiety. It seems these children have more difficulty dealing with what their peers think of their reading abilities than with the fact that they are struggling with reading. These children wanted me to notice some strength they had as they talked about their reading difficulties. They talked about games they played, their use of color in their drawings, and things they liked to do at recess, perhaps as a way to bolster buried self-esteem. I feel compelled to share those strengths.

Student One indicated she had a close relationship with her sister and that she loved the outdoors. She looked forward to recess and was very creative. She had an insight into her own metacognitive thought that could have great implications for the classroom. She recognized she needed a quiet environment to think and read and the outdoors were a source of peace and comfort. Her love of nature, trees, and the outdoors could be used in the classroom to motivate and inspire engagement. Student One also liked to read to her younger sister. Perhaps, having the student practice reading out loud to younger children like her sister would give her the confidence she needs to explore more difficult text selections.

Student Two liked sports and loved recess. He was active and had a sense of humor. His physical abilities and interests could be appropriate ways to engage and motivate the student into taking risks with literacy skills.

Student Three was a great storyteller, had a great sense of humor, was very sociable, had many friends in the classroom, and was very creative. Student Three had the potential for creative storytelling that could be used to inspire creative writing. This was demonstrated in the

stories he told about his drawing and other anecdotes. He also demonstrated leadership abilities. Instead of using peers to help him with less capable reading tasks, it would be beneficial to have Student Three use his strengths to help less capable peers.

Student Four liked sports and frequently talked about recess. This student was seen frequently with Student Two at recess. The physical skills and interests these students have could offer interesting and engaging ways for these students to collaborate on sport-related stories, newspaper articles, and news reports.

Student Five was observant and watchful and had a pretty smile. Student Five's teacher cautioned the researcher that she would most likely not want to participate in the questions, as she rarely participates in class. However, Student Five was enthusiastic to participate. During the observations, it appeared the Student Five was very anxious and nervous about reading. It seemed that giving her a chance to talk about these feelings allowed her to relax a little and finally have a voice. Her teacher might use her observant and watchful nature as a tool for developing vocabulary and comprehension through pictures and the environment.

Student Six was funny, creative, and had a love of clothes and jewelry. Student Six's teacher might use fashion-inspired stories to inspire reading and develop vocabulary, comprehension, and writing skills through fashion critiques and magazine ads.

Student Seven was very social, active, and liked sports. His teacher could take advantage of his active nature and incorporate movement into reading activities. Sport themes could also serve as a source of inspiration for reading and writing.

Student Eight was extremely creative and active. While Student Eight engaged in many behaviors that could be viewed as behavior problems, these behaviors could also be viewed as

creative, kinesthetic activities that could be used to keep his attention, build focus and control, and engage the student in learning.

Student Nine was sweet, kind, and sociable. She enjoyed humorous stories and drew herself reading a book about friendship. These themes could offer a starting point for more motivating literature selections and writing activities.

In addition to the ways their strengths could be used to develop literacy skills, their strengths could also be a source of necessary skills for future success. Creativity, problem solving, and interpersonal skills are critical for success in the adult world. However, it was not evident that these children realized the strengths they possessed.

Each teacher expressed a deep concern for helping these children to read and shared that concern as the motivation for participating in the study. Teachers face many obstacles in helping children who are struggling in school. Time, resources, large class sizes, district expectations, and standardized testing are all hindrances to reaching their teaching goals. Parents indicated confusion about their child's struggles, yet many had some insight into their child's feelings about reading.

This research study inspired a qualitative investigation into the emotional needs of pre-service teachers as they begin student teaching. While teacher preparation programs focus on content and skill development, students do not receive instruction as to how to go about navigating the student teacher – cooperating teacher relationship. The prospective qualitative study involves the education, nursing, and counseling departments. All of these disciplines involve working with mentors in the field. The study will examine the thoughts and feelings of university students and cooperating teachers, nursing preceptors, and counseling mentors and

develop a plan for helping these groups form a positive working relationship that inspires growth, appropriate relationships, and skill development.

In the quest to provide children with the best literacy environments, it is important to think about the child's development as a whole instead of focusing on the one piece of the puzzle that is not working. Attention to other domains of development may allow connections and support that allow the child's cognitive development to flourish. We really need to think about the ultimate learning outcomes we want for our children. Is the outcome simply the ability to read? Or is it the facilitation of a disposition toward lifelong learning and literacy? The first outcome places the emphasis of learning on the material to be learned instead of the student. As observed in this study, pressure to meet content expectations can create environments that are unhealthy and that can be detrimental to both academic and emotional health. The latter outcome invites a curriculum that supports the whole child, recognizes the critical role emotions have in cognitive development, and calls for a much needed change in teaching pedagogy and practice. We are not simply teaching someone to read, but we are educating future citizens to become literate, competent, empathetic, healthy, emotional beings that care for, respect, and recognize the gifts and strengths in others. The goal of lifelong learning is not to regurgitate what has already been discovered, but to instill creativity, ingenuity, and a sense of risk to encourage children to find new ways to communicate, solve problems, and support the unique differences humanity has. The teacher's role in instilling a sense of lifelong learning is not only to create a better classroom environment supportive of learning, but to ultimately facilitate the development of a society that truly cares, respects, and values its members.

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APPENDIX A

Informed Consent

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Department of Professional Studies in Education
Davis Hall, Room 303
570 S. Eleventh Street
Indiana, Pennsylvania 15705-1087

724-357-2400
Internet: *http://www.iup.edu*

Informed Consent, p. 1

Dear _____,

As you know, reading is a crucial academic skill that has far-reaching implications in school and in the world. Your school is invited to participate in a research study to help further the understanding of reading challenges in children who struggle with reading. The principal researcher has been in the educational field for over 20 years and deeply interested in reading development. The following information is provided to help you to make an informed decision whether or not to participate. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to ask. Your school is eligible to participate because you have second- and third-grade children participating in Title I support for reading and/or in special education for reading.

The purpose of this study is to explore young children's thoughts and feelings about reading. The purpose of this letter is to request permission to conduct the research study in your elementary school building. Involvement in the research study would involve the following:

1. Supplying the principal researcher with names and homerooms of eligible students in second- and third-grade classrooms;
2. Supplying the principal researcher with names and homeroom numbers of second- and third-grade teachers, Title I teachers, and learning support teachers;
3. Allowing the principal researcher to make observations in the second- and third-grade classrooms;
4. Surveys completed by teachers; and
5. Surveys completed by parents.

No surveys, interviews, or observations would occur without first obtaining the proper permission from invited teachers, parents, and children.

There are no known risks or discomforts associated with this research. Your school's participation in this study is voluntary. You are free to decide not to participate in this study or to withdraw at any time. You may withdraw your school from the study by filling out the attached

form and mailing or e-mailing it to the researcher directly at the contact information provided in this letter.

If you decide to participate, no identifying information will be shared about you, your school, or the students participating in the study. The information gleaned from this study may be published in educational journals, presented at educational meetings, or shared with the educational professional community. Your identity will be kept strictly confidential. The information obtained from the interviews and surveys will be kept in a locked safe for 3 years following completion of the research project per federal regulations. After that time, the records will be shredded and destroyed.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please sign the statement on the next page and return it in the addressed/stamped envelope.

Thank you kindly for your consideration!!!

Sincerely Yours,

Rae Ann Hirsh

Principal Investigator
Rae Ann Hirsh
Department: Professional Studies in Education
Doctoral Candidate for Curriculum & Instruction
R.A.Hirsh@iup.edu
6501 Coventry Court
Bethel Park, PA 15102
(412) 860 3493

Dr. Mary Jalongo, Professor
Faculty Sponsor
Professional Studies in Education
570 South 11th Street
122 Davis Hall
Indiana, PA 15705
(724) 357-2400 X 2417
mjalongo@iup.edu

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730).

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Department of Professional Studies in Education
Davis Hall, Room 303
570 S. Eleventh Street
Indiana, Pennsylvania 15705-1087

724-357-2400
Internet: *http://www.iup.edu*

Informed Consent Form (continued) p. 2

VOLUNTARY CONSENT FORM FOR PRINCIPAL'S PERMISSION:

I have read and understand the information on the form and I give consent for my elementary school to participate in this research study. I have received an unsigned copy of this informed Consent Form to keep in my possession.

I give consent for_____ (name of elementary school) to participate in this research study.

Name (PLEASE PRINT) _____

Signature_____

Date_____

Phone number or location where you can be reached_____

Best days and times to reach you_____

I certify that I have explained to the above individual the nature and purpose, the potential benefits, and possible risks associated with participating in this research study, have answered any questions that have been raised, and have witnessed the above signature.

_____ _____

Date Investigator's Signature

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730).

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Department of Professional Studies in Education
Davis Hall, Room 303
570 S. Eleventh Street
Indiana, Pennsylvania 15705-1087

724-357-2400
Internet: *http://www.iup.edu*

Informed Consent (continued) p. 3, Withdrawal Notification

To withdraw from the research study, please fill out the following form and return it to the following address:

Attention: Rae Ann Hirsh
Withdrawal Notification
6501 Coventry Court
Bethel Park, PA 15102

At this time, I am withdrawing consent this elementary school to participate in this research study. I understand that upon receipt of this withdraw notification; none of the responses obtained thus far will be used in the research study.

Print Name _____

Signature _____

Name of Elementary School _____

Date_____

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730.

APPENDIX B

Teacher Informed Consent

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Department of Professional Studies in Education
Davis Hall, Room 303
570 S. Eleventh Street
Indiana, Pennsylvania 15705-1087

724-357-2400
Internet: *http://www.iup.edu*

Teacher Informed Consent Form, p. 1

Dear _____,

As you know, reading is a crucial academic skill that has far-reaching implications in school and in the world. You are invited to participate in a research study to help further the understanding of reading challenges in children who struggle with reading. The principal researcher has been in the educational field for over 20 years and is deeply interested in reading development. The following information is provided to help you to make an informed decision whether or not to participate. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to ask. You are eligible to participate because you teach reading to second- and/or third-grade students in a public elementary school that has a reading assistance program.

The purpose of this study is to explore young children's thoughts and feelings about reading. With your permission and parental permission, participating students in your classroom will be observed during reading classes and will be interviewed using a reading attitude survey. You are also invited to share your insights into the emotions and dispositions of children who struggle with reading by participating in a survey. The survey will be mailed to your home and you will be asked to complete the survey and mail it back to the principal researcher within 3 weeks. If you give consent, you will receive a $25.00 bookstore gift card for use in your classroom.

There are no known risks or discomforts associated with this research. The research study will involve the following (which will be completed by the principal researcher): observation of the participating students over a period of 5 consecutive days in their classrooms, and meeting with participating students individually for approximately 30 minutes. The research study will involve the following from you: completion and return of the survey.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You are free to decide not to participate in this study or to withdraw at any time. You may withdraw yourself from the study by filling out the

attached form and mailing or e-mailing it to the researcher directly at the contact information provided in this letter.

If you decide to participate, no identifying information will be shared about you, your school, or the students participating in the study. The information gleaned from this study may be published in educational journals, presented at educational meetings, or shared with the educational professional community. Your identity will be kept strictly confidential. The information obtained from the surveys will be kept in a locked safe for 3 years following completion of the research project per federal regulations. After that time, the records will be shredded and destroyed.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please sign the statement on the next page and return it in the addressed/stamped envelope.

Thank you kindly for your consideration!!!

Sincerely Yours,

Rae Ann Hirsh

Principal Investigator
Rae Ann Hirsh
Department: Professional Studies in Education
Doctoral Candidate for Curriculum & Instruction
R.A.Hirsh@iup.edu
6501 Coventry Court
Bethel Park, PA 15102
(412) 860 3493

Dr. Mary Jalongo, Professor
Faculty Sponsor
Professional Studies in Education
570 South 11th Street
122 Davis Hall
Indiana, PA 15705
(724) 357-2400 X 2417
mjalongo@iup.edu

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730).

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Department of Professional Studies in Education
Davis Hall, Room 303
570 S. Eleventh Street
Indiana, Pennsylvania 15705-1087

724-357-2400
Internet: *http://www.iup.edu*

Informed Consent Form (continued) p. 2

VOLUNTARY CONSENT FORM FOR TEACHER'S PERMISSION:

I have read and understand the information on the form and I consent to volunteer to be a subject in this study. I also consent to have students in my classroom participate in the study and to have the principal researcher observe and interview students in my classroom (with parent and child permission). I understand that my responses are completely confidential and that I have the right to withdraw myself at any time. I have received an unsigned copy of this Informed Consent Form to keep in my possession.
I give consent to be surveyed about my students' experiences with reading.

Name (PLEASE PRINT) _____

Signature_____

Date_____

Phone number or location where you can be reached_____

Best days and times to reach you_____

I certify that I have explained to the above individual the nature and purpose, the potential benefits, and possible risks associated with participating in this research study, have answered any questions that have been raised, and have witnessed the above signature.

_____ _____

Date Investigator's Signature

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730).

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Department of Professional Studies in Education
Davis Hall, Room 303
570 S. Eleventh Street
Indiana, Pennsylvania 15705-1087

724-357-2400
Internet: *http://www.iup.edu*

Informed Consent (continued) p. 3, Withdrawal Notification

To withdraw from the research study, please fill out the following form and return it to the following address:

Attention: Rae Ann Hirsh
Withdrawal Notification
6501 Coventry Court
Bethel Park, PA 15102

At this time, I am withdrawing consent for myself to participate in this research study. I understand that upon receipt of this withdraw notification, none of the responses obtained thus far will be used in the research study.

Print Name _____

Signature _____

Date_____

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730).

APPENDIX C

Parent Informed Consent

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Department of Professional Studies in Education
Davis Hall, Room 303
570 S. Eleventh Street
Indiana, Pennsylvania 15705-1087

724-357-2400
Internet: *http://www.iup.edu*

Informed Consent Form: Parents

Dear _____,

As you know, learning to read is a valuable skill. The more educators understand the processes involved in reading, the better the outcome for young readers. You and your child are invited to participate in a research study that will help future educators to better understand children's thoughts and feelings associated with reading. The principal researcher has been in the educational field for over 20 years and is deeply interested in reading development. The principal researcher will initially spend 5 consecutive days observing in your child's classroom so your child does not view the researcher as a stranger. During the same 5-day observation period, the researcher will also observe your child during reading classes and will complete a checklist related to reading behaviors.

After the 5-day observation period is completed, the principal researcher will interview your child individually at the school. The principal researcher will ask your child questions related to his/her feelings about reading. The principal researcher will also ask your child to draw a picture about reading. The interview will take approximately 30 minutes. The interview will be recorded to ensure accuracy. If you and your child give consent, your child will receive a $10.00 gift card for a bookstore, will help future educators to understand the thoughts and feelings children have about reading, and will have access to an executive summary of the research report results.

You, as the child's parent, will also be invited to participate in a survey about your child's feelings concerning reading in school. The survey will be mailed to your home and you will be asked to complete the survey and mail it back to the principal researcher within 3 weeks. You and your child may find the interview and survey process enjoyable and it will give you both an opportunity to share your thoughts and feelings about reading. There are no known risks or discomforts associated with this research. Participation in this study for you and your child is voluntary. You are free to decide not to participate in this study or to withdraw at any time. You

may withdraw yourself and/or your child from the study by filling out the attached form and mailing it to the researcher directly or by e-mailing a request to withdraw at R.A.Hirsh@iup.edu.

If you and your child participate, your responses will remain confidential. The information gleaned from this study may be published in educational journals, presented at educational meetings, or shared with the educational professional community, but your and your child's identity will be kept strictly confidential. The information obtained from the interviews and surveys will be kept in a locked safe in the principal investigator's home for 3 years following completion of the research project per federal regulations. After that time, the records will be shredded and destroyed.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please sign the statement on the next page and return it in the addressed/stamped envelope. Thank you so kindly for your consideration! I look forward to the opportunity to speak with you and your child!

Sincerely Yours,

Rae Ann Hirsh

Principal Investigator
Rae Ann Hirsh
Department: Professional Studies in Education
Doctoral Candidate for Curriculum & Instruction
R.A.Hirsh@iup.edu
6501 Coventry Court
Bethel Park, PA 15102
(412) 860 3493

Dr. Mary Jalongo, Professor
Faculty Sponsor
Professional Studies in Education
570 South 11th Street, 122 Davis Hall
Indiana, PA 15705
(724) 357-2400 X 2417
mjalongo@iup.edu

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Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Department of Professional Studies in Education
Davis Hall, Room 303
570 S. Eleventh Street
Indiana, Pennsylvania 15705-1087

724-357-2400
Internet: *http://www.iup.edu*

Informed Consent Form (continued) p. 2

VOLUNTARY CONSENT FORM FOR CHILD'S PERMISSION:

I have read and understand the information on the form and I consent to have my child participate in this research study. I understand that my child's responses are completely confidential and that I have the right to withdraw my child at any time. I have received an unsigned copy of this Informed Consent Form to keep in my possession.

I give consent for my child _____ (child's full legal name) to participate in this research study. I understand my child will be observed in his/her classroom and will be interviewed about his/her feelings on reading.

Name (PLEASE PRINT) _____

Signature_____

Date_____

Phone number or location where you can be reached_____

Best days and times to reach you_____

I certify that I have explained to the above individual the nature and purpose, the potential benefits, and possible risks associated with participating in this research study, have answered any questions that have been raised, and have witnessed the above signature.

_____ _____

Date Investigator's Signature

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730).

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Department of Professional Studies in Education
Davis Hall, Room 303
570 S. Eleventh Street
Indiana, Pennsylvania 15705-1087

724-357-2400
Internet: *http://www.iup.edu*

Informed Consent Form (continued) p. 3

VOLUNTARY CONSENT FORM FOR PARENT/GUARDIAN PERMISSION:

I have read and understand the information on the form and I consent to volunteer to be a subject in this study. I understand that my responses are completely confidential and that I have the right to withdraw myself at any time. I have received an unsigned copy of this informed Consent Form to keep in my possession.

I give consent to be surveyed about my child's experiences with reading.

Name (PLEASE PRINT) _____

Signature_____

Date_____

Phone number or location where you can be reached_____

Best days and times to reach you_____

I certify that I have explained to the above individual the nature and purpose, the potential benefits, and possible risks associated with participating in this research study, have answered any questions that have been raised, and have witnessed the above signature.

_____ _____

Date Investigator's Signature

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730).

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Department of Professional Studies in Education
Davis Hall, Room 303
570 S. Eleventh Street
Indiana, Pennsylvania 15705-1087

724-357-2400
Internet: *http://www.iup.edu*

Informed Consent (continued) p. 4, Withdrawal Notification

To withdraw from the research study, please fill out the following form and return it to the following address:

Attention: Rae Ann Hirsh
Withdrawal Notification
6501 Coventry Court
Bethel Park, PA 15102

At this time, I am withdrawing consent for myself to participate in this research study. I understand that upon receipt of this withdraw notification; none of the responses obtained thus far will be used in the research study.

Print Name _____

Signature _____

Date_____

At this time, I am withdrawing consent for my child to participate in this research study. I understand that upon receipt of this withdraw notification; none of the responses obtained thus far will be used in the research study.

Child's Name _____

Print Name _____

Signature _____

Date_____

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730).

APPENDIX D

Child Assent Form

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Department of Professional Studies in Education
Davis Hall, Room 303
570 S. Eleventh Street
Indiana, Pennsylvania 15705-1087

724-357-2400
Internet: *http://www.iup.edu*

Child Assent Form

Dear _____,

You are invited to participate in a research study about reading because you are in second or third grade! You will be able to help future teachers understand reading better!

If you participate, you receive a $10.00 bookstore gift card as a thank you. Your family knows about the study. No one will make you participate or make you answer any questions that you do not want to. No one at your school or home will read your answers or know what your answers are. Your name won't be on the interview. I only use a special nickname. Your grades won't be affected by the study.

If you agree to help me, you will be asked some questions about how you feel about reading and asked to draw a picture. Please circle either yes or no to indicate whether you would like or not like to participate in the research study.

Please print your full name: _____

Please print the date: _____

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730).

APPENDIX E

Observation Checklist

After observing the child during reading class, check and provide evidence to indicate if the child demonstrated any of the following behaviors.

Automatic Reactions	Check if noted	Child's Words/Behaviors that Indicate This Response
General Reaction Reading evokes a fear reaction and when asked to read, the child's higher-level thinking shuts down.		
The child perceives reading as a threat. This reaction is automatic, fast, and without measured thought.		
The Flight Reaction The child withdraws from reading situations and tries to avoid reading at all costs.		
When asked to read, the child displays somatic symptoms (e.g., headaches, stomachaches).		
The Fight Reaction When asked to read, the child becomes defiant.		
When asked to read, the child becomes cautious and hyper-vigilant.		

When asked to read, the child reacts negatively without thinking of the consequences that may occur.		
The reaction covers the hurt inside.		
Cognition, Mood, and Self-Schemas The child has low self-efficacy and believes that he/she will never be competent in reading.		
The child has a dark mood when it comes to reading and makes pessimistic attributions about him/herself.		
When it comes to reading, the child's thinking seems to play in a negative feedback loop that is highly resistant to change		
The child displays learned helplessness—he/she has given up and holds little hope for himself/herself in reading.		
Because of the child's emotional thinking, he/she is not getting the practice he/she needs to become proficient.		

Note. Adapted from "Emotion and Cognition in Students Who Struggle to Read: New Insights and Ideas," by D. Zambo and S. K. Bren, 2004, *Reading Psychology, 25*, 189-204. Copyright 2004 by Zambo and Bren.

APPENDIX F

Permission to Adapt Checklist

RE: checklist use request
Debby Zambo [Debby.Zambo@asu.edu]
Sent: Saturday, July 28, 2012 12:34 PM
To: Rae A. Hirsh

Hi Rae Ann

Thank you for your kind words. Yes - feel free to use the checklist and I'd love to read your disso when it is completed.

Best

Debby

From: Rae A. Hirsh [rahirsh@carlow.edu]
Sent: Friday, July 27, 2012 4:22 PM
To: Debby Zambo
Subject: checklist use request

Dr. Zambo,

Greetings! I would like to begin by saying that I deeply admire your work connecting emotions to cognition, and specifically reading. I am also fascinated by this subject and have read much of your work and research. I am currently the director of the early childhood department at Carlow University in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania and a doctoal candidate in curriculum and instruction at Indiana University of Pennsylvania. My current dissertation work is the investigation of the parallel nature of emotions and reading. I am planning to interview children, teachers and parents. I would like to request permission to use your checklist of emotional distress related to reading as a guide for my interviews of parents and teachers. Would you please grant me permission to do so? I have found that checklist to be very informative and such a useful tool!

Thank you kindly for your consideration. I look forward to hearing from you!

Rae Ann Hirsh, M.Ed.
Director, Undergraduate ECE
Carlow University
(412) 578-6014
rahirsh@carlow.edu
Frances Warde Hall 204

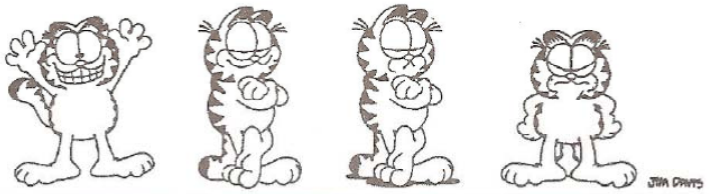
APPENDIX G

Elementary Reading Attitude Survey

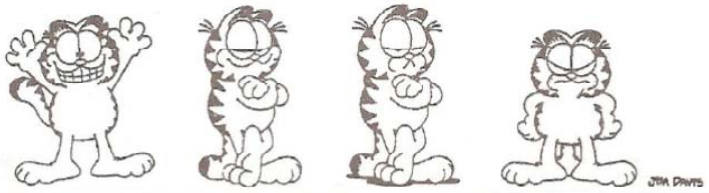
Name _____ School _____ Grade ____

Elementary Reading Attitude Survey

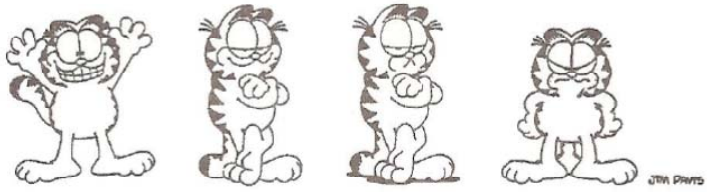
1. How do you feel when you read a book on a rainy Saturday?



2. How do you feel when you read a book in a school during free time?



3. How do you feel about reading for fun at home?

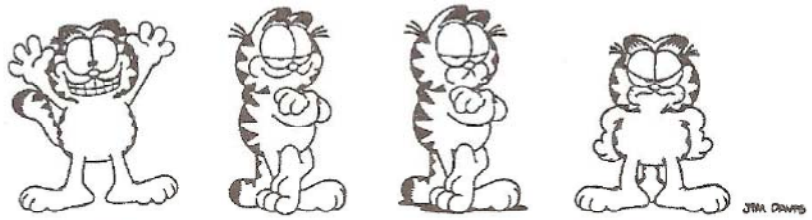


4. How do you feel about getting a book for a present?

2

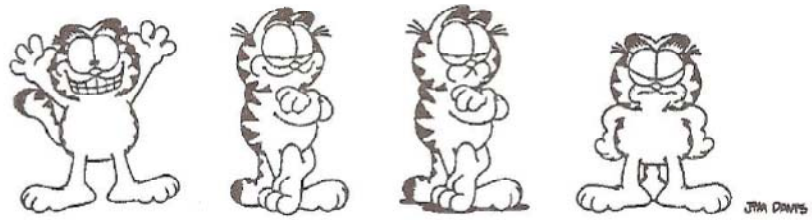
5. How do you feel about spending free time reading?

6. How do you feel about starting a new book?



7. How do you feel about reading during summer?

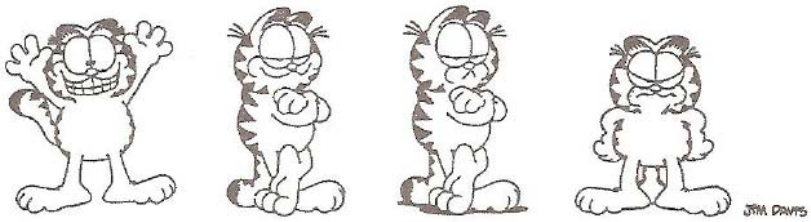
8. How do you feel about reading instead of playing?



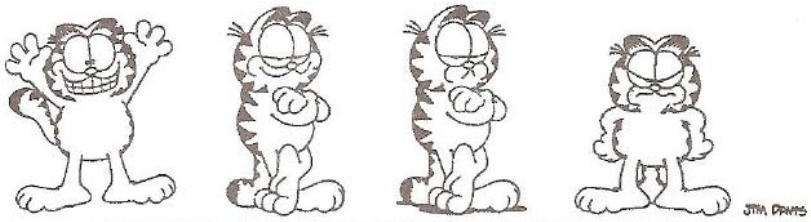
3

GARFIELD: © 1978 United Feature Syndicate, Inc.

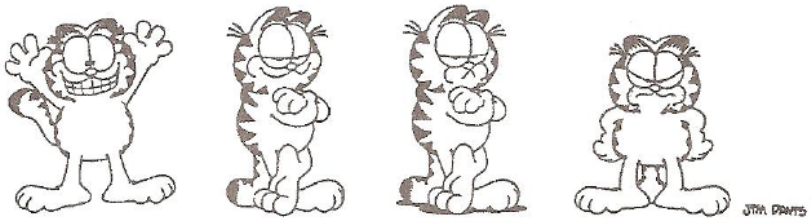
9. How do you feel about going to a bookstore?



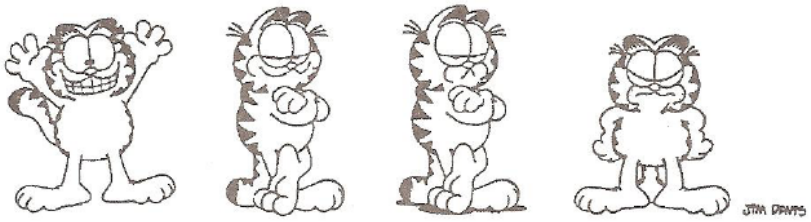
10. How do you feel about reading different kinds of books?



11. How do you feel when the teacher asks you questions about what you read?



12. How do you feel about doing reading workbook pages and worksheets?



4

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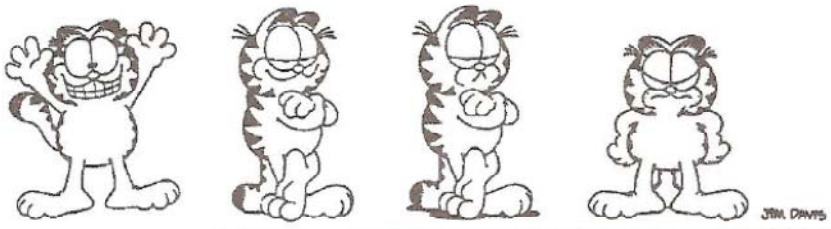
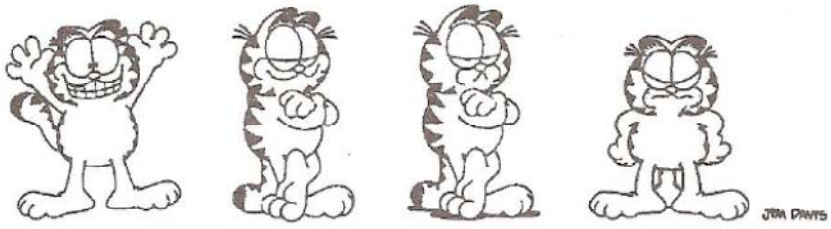
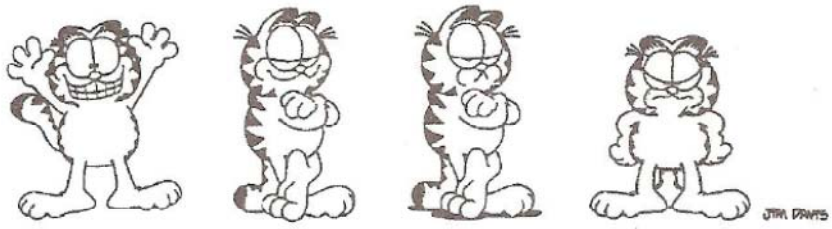
13. How do you feel about reading in school?



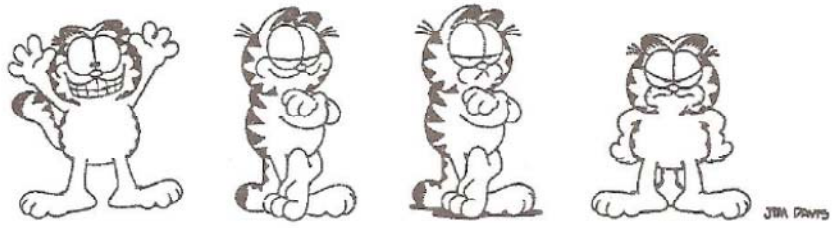
14. How do you feel about reading your school books?



15. How do you feel about learning from a book?



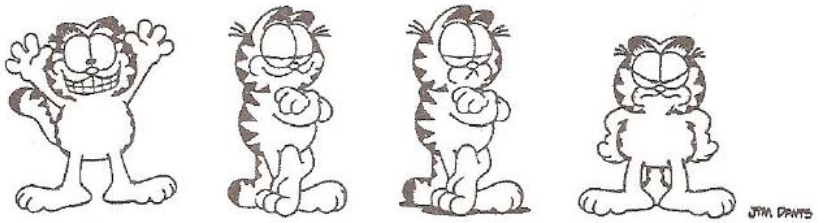
16. How do you feel when it's time for reading in class?



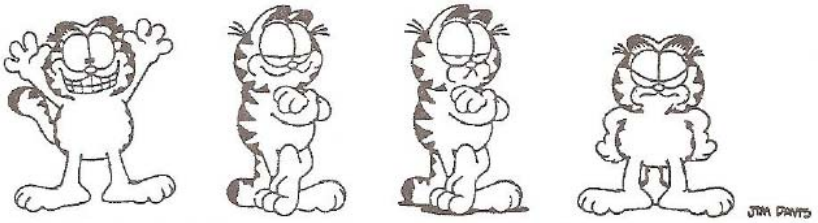
5

GARFIELD: © 1978 United Feature Syndicate, Inc.

17. How do you feel about the stories you read in reading class?

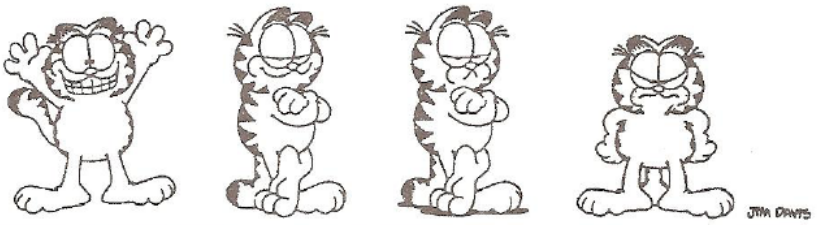


18. How do you feel when you read out loud in class?



19. How do you feel about using a dictionary?

20. How do you feel about taking a reading test?



Elementary Reading Attitude Survey

Michael C. McKenna and Dennis J. Kear

Scoring and Interpretation

1. To score the survey, count four points for each leftmost (happiest) Garfield circled, three for each slightly smiling Garfield, two for each mildly upset Garfield, and one point for each very upset (rightmost) Garfield. Three scores for each student can be obtained: the total for the first 10 items, the total for the second 10, and a composite total. The first half of the survey relates to attitude toward recreational reading; the second half relates to attitude toward academic aspects of reading.
2. You can interpret scores in two ways. One is to note informally where the score falls in regard to the four points on the scale. A total score of 50, for example, would fall about midway on the scale, between the slightly happy and slightly upset figures, therefore indicating a relatively indifferent overall attitude toward reading. The other approach is more formal. It involves converting the raw scores into percentile ranks by means of Table 1. Be sure to use the norms for the right grade level and to note the column headings (Rec = recreational reading, Aca = academic reading, Tot = total score). If you wish to determine the average percentile rank for your class, average the raw scores first; then use the table to locate the percentile rank corresponding to the raw score mean. Percentile ranks cannot be averaged directly.

Norms for the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey

To create norms for the interpretation of the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey scores, a large-scale study was conducted in late January 1989, at which time the survey was administered to 18,138 students in Grades 1–6. Several steps were taken to achieve a sample that was sufficiently stratified (that is, reflective of the American population) to allow confident generalizations. Children were drawn from 95 school districts in 38 states. The number of girls exceeded by only 5 the number of boys. Ethnic distribution of the sample was also close to that of the U.S. population in 1989. The proportion of Blacks (9.5%) was within 3% of the national proportion, whereas the proportion of Hispanics (6.2%) was within 2%.

Percentile ranks at each grade for both subscales and the full scale are presented in Table 1. These data can be used to compare individual students' scores with the national sample and they can be interpreted like achievement-test percentile ranks.

McKenna, M.C., & Kear, D.J. (1990). Measuring attitude toward reading: A new tool for teachers. *The Reading Teacher, 43,* 626–639. Reprinted with permission of Michael C. McKenna and the International Reading Association.

APPENDIX H

Parent Reading Attitude Survey

Please circle the response that indicates how you think your child feels about the following aspects of reading. If you are not sure, please circle the "Not Sure" category.

1. How do you think your child feels when he/she reads a book on a rainy Saturday?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

2. How does your child feel when he/she reads a book in school during free time?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

3. How does your child feel about reading for fun at home?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

4. How does your child feel about getting a book for a present?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

5. How does your child feel about spending free time reading?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

6. How does your child feel about starting a new book?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

7. How does your child feel about reading during the summer?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

8. How does your child feel about reading instead of playing?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

9. How does your child feel about going to a bookstore?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

10. How does your child feel about reading different kinds of books?
    Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

11. How does your child feel when the teacher asks him/her questions about what he/she read?
    Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

12. How does your child feel about doing reading workbook pages and worksheets?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

13. How does your child feel about reading in school?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

14. How does your child feel about reading other school books in school?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

15. How does your child feel about learning from a book?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

16. How does your child feel when it's time for reading in class?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

17. How does your child feel about the stories he/she reads in class?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

18. How does your child feel when he/she reads out loud in class?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

19. How does your child feel about using a dictionary?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

20. How does your child feel about taking a reading test?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

Please respond in writing to the questions below:

21. How does your child react when he/she is asked to read in class?
22. How does your child describe his/her ability to read?
23. How does your child describe his/her motivation to read?

Note. Adapted from Checklist of Emotional Distress Related to Reading in "Emotion and Cognition in Students Who Struggle to Read: New Insights and Ideas," by D. Zambo and S. K. Bren, 2004, *Reading Psychology, 25,* 189-204. Copyright 2004 by Zambo and Bren and from the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey in "Measuring Attitude Toward Reading: A New Tool for Teachers" by M. C. McKenna and D. J. Kear, 1990, *Reading Teacher, 43*, 626-639. Copyright 1990 by the International Reading Association.

APPENDIX I

Teacher Reading Attitude Survey

Please circle the response that indicates how you think the children who struggle with reading in your class feel about the following aspects of reading. If you are not sure, please circle the "Not Sure" category.

1. How do you think these children feel when they read a book on a rainy Saturday?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

2. How do you think these children feel when they read a book in school during free time?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

3. How do you think these children feel about reading for fun at home?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

4. How do you think these children feel about getting a book for a present?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

5. How do you think these children feel about spending free time reading?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

6. How do you think these children feel about starting a new book?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

7. How do you think these children feel about reading during the summer?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

8. How do you think these children feel about reading instead of playing?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

9. How do you think these children feel about going to a bookstore?
   Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

10. How do you think these children feel about reading different kinds of books?
    Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

11. How do you think these children feel when the teacher asks them questions about what they read?
    Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

12. How do you think these children feel about doing reading workbook pages and worksheets?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

13. How do you think these children feel about reading in school?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

14. How do you think these children feel about reading other school books in school?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

15. How do you think these children feel about learning from a book?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

16. How do you think these children feel when it's time for reading in class?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

17. How do you think these children feel about the stories they read in class?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

18. How do you think these children feel when they read aloud in class?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

19. How do you think these children feel about using a dictionary?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

20. How do you think these children feel about taking a reading test?
Very Happy Happy Indifferent Mildly Upset Very Upset Not Sure

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24. How do these children react when they are asked to read in class?
25. How do these children describe their ability to read?
26. How do these children describe their motivation to read?

Note. Adapted from Checklist of Emotional Distress Related to Reading in "Emotion and Cognition in Students Who Struggle to Read: New Insights and Ideas," by D. Zambo and S. K. Bren, 2004, *Reading Psychology*, *25*, 189-204. Copyright 2004 by Zambo and Bren and from the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey in "Measuring Attitude Toward Reading: A New Tool for Teachers" by M. C. McKenna and D. J. Kear, 1990, *Reading Teacher*, *43*, 626-639. Copyright 1990 by the International Reading Association.

APPENDIX J

Code Referencing

1/26/2014 9:09 PM

Name/Number Of Coding References

Anticipating the next part of a story 1

anxious 1

anxious reading in school 1

Appeared nervous 1

appearing disinterested 1

Asked for teacher to read direction to her 1

asked teacher for help 2

attempts to read environmental print 1

avoid 5

Avoid 6

avoid reading by going to the bathroom or nurse 1

avoidance 1

Avoidance 29

avoidance of lengthy reading tasks 1

Avoided beginning reading-writing task 1

Avoided long text reading 2

Avoided reading by mouthing words during independent reading 1

Avoided reading task by having partner do it. 2

Avoided reading task by negotiation 1

avoided talking about reading but telling me a story 2

Avoided text reading 2

Avoided the reading task 5

avoiding additional work 1

Avoiding independent reading 1

Avoiding reading by going to the bathroom 5

avoiding reading by going to the nurse 1

avoids any challenging reading task 1

Avoids being made fun of 1

Avoids letting others know he is struggling 1

avoids reading 1

blame the student's attitude 1

blaming bad behaviors on inability to read 1

changes to work to have correct answer 1

communicating that he is really good at some other things 1

compares himself with other classmates 1

copies from partner 3

Copies from teacher 1

correcting work so it was right 2

Covered work from others 1

Created a plan for knowing the next answer 1

describing students as nervous - not behavior problems 1

Distracted herself from the task of reading 1

Distracting behaviors 7

don't want peers to see him mess up 1

embarrassed by peers to read aloud 2

embarrassed that she struggles 1

Embarrassed by another student calling out her inability to read 1

embarrassed to read aloud in class 1

embarrassed to read aloud in class 1

embarrassed to read in front of peers 1

Engaging in distracting behavior 1

Engaging in off task behaviors 2

engaging in physical behaviors that may indicate anxiety or nervousness 18

enjoys recreational reading 1

enjoys recreational reading dislikes academic reading 1

even though hates reading, still likes books about his favorite topic 1

expressing denial that child has a problem 1

feel better reading at home - relaxing 1

feels embarrassed and uncomfortable about reading 1

feels inferior to other classmates 1

feels uncomfortable 1

fights about reading at home 1

fright 1

frustrated 1

frustration tolerance is really low 1

he doesn't like it but can do it 1

he expresses confidence when he can retell 1

he feels stuck or forced to read 1

he feels worried 1

hid behind her book 1

Hid face 4

Hid from the text 2

indicating embarrassment 1

Interested in other's work 2

it is fun for her to read at home 1

knows what conditions she reads best in - not school - quiet outside place where she can think 1

less anxiety in special reading class 1

Lied instead of read 1

listening and attending to the story read 1

loved being read to 1

low frustration tolerance 2

low perseverance 1

memorized instead of reading 2

mouthed answers instead of reading them 1

participating in class discussion appropriately 1

prefers to be read to 1

prefers to read with special teacher 2

reads to younger sister - feels confident about that 1

Received negative feedback from peer 1

recognizing that attitude is a factor 1

scaffolds reading at home 1

shared answer, froze when asked to explain it 1

Shares unrelated responses instead of answers 1

she can do it but is embarrassed 1

stated answer she did know 1

Student avoids the reading task 0

student won't try 1

thinks negative attitude is a part of the problem 1

thinks negative attitude is part of problem 1

used conversation in place of reading 1

Used peer observation 1

Uses peer assistance 2

Uses peer assistance to complete task (Nodes) 2

verbally distracting 1

volunteering but not giving an answer 1

when it's their choice, they will avoid reading 1

worried of daughter's nervousness 1

worries about reading grades 1

wouldn't pick reading as a free choice 1