Chapter 10

Assessing Literacy Motivation and Orientation

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The Importance of Motivation to Emergent Literacy

A well-known saying is "Success is 1% inspiration, and 99% perspiration." This adage underscores the contribution of motivation and effort in achieving positive outcomes. Common sense suggests that motivation to read potentially plays an important role in reading development. However, the role of motivation in early literacy development has been much less investigated than other variables.

One reason that motivation has been less well investigated is that it is difficult to define. Motivation is multidimensional and dynamic. To tackle the complexity of this construct, researchers attempt to deconstruct it into its components. In the following section, we present multiple approaches to defining motivation for preschool-age children. As will be seen, these models overlap significantly with each other and we strive to highlight similarities. Because Chang and Burns (2005) present a broad, systemic approach to defining motivation, we first present their model of motivation. Next, we present more specific approaches to defining motivation that also can fit within Chang and Burns' systemic model.

Chang and Burn's Systemic Model: Temperament, Motivation, Attention

Drawing from observations of children placed in challenging situations, Chang and Burns (2005) suggest that engagement includes the interrelated components of (a) temperament, (b) motivation, and (c) attention. In their model, a child's personality is a self-organizing system, and a child's temperament (specifically, self-control) and motivation relates to his or her attention skills. For example, when a child seems to have difficulty maintaining attention during a puzzle task, the problem may not be simply a concentration problem. Instead, the child's lack of engagement could be related to the manner in which the he or she typically approaches new situations, or, in effect, the child's temperament.

Role of Temperament in Motivation

Several theories emphasize on the contribution of a child's temperament or personality to motivation. Multiple researchers (e.g., Lepola, Salonen, & Vauras, 2000; Poskiparta, Niemi, Lepola, Ahtola, & Laine, 2003) draw from the work of Olkinuora, Salonen, and Lehtinen (1984) regarding coping strategies that children use in approaching school-related tasks to focus on. This model has three components: (a) task orientation, (b) ego-defensive orientation, and (c) social dependence orientation. *Task orientation* is similar to intrinsic motivation. Specifically, it describes a child's tendency to explore and master a learning task without an external reward. Students with high task orientation are more likely to persist in a challenging task than students with low task orientation. A high task orientation is beneficial for students' motivation. *Ego-defensive orientation* is a child's ability to reduce negative feelings from a threat of failure. For example, a child with high ego-defensive orientation may avoid a task after failing a similar task or verbally express displeasure at the task. Having low ego-defensive orientation is beneficial for a student's overall motivation. *Social dependence orientation* is a child's propensity to please his or her teacher. Children who frequently seek help and approval from their teacher may have high social dependence. Children with high social dependence are not intrinsically motivated; instead, they are moti-

vated to satisfy their teacher. This type of motivation is not stable over time but rather dependent on the type of student-teacher relationship. All three components are interrelated and contribute to the overall observation of a child's motivation.

In a similar approach, Smiley and Dweck (1994) divide temperament into two patterns of reaction when a child is confronted with a challenging task: helpless or mastery. These patterns result from the influences of emotion, cognition, and behavior/performance. A *helpless child* exhibits negative emotions to the task, makes negative attributions of his or her ability, and ultimately decreases on-task performance. In contrast, a *mastery child* exhibits positive emotions to a challenge, makes self-instructing and self-motivating statements, and persists longer in the task by focusing his or her efforts on seeking an effective strategy. Although there have been assumptions that preschool-age children do not follow these patterns of *helpless* and *mastery* because young children are typically more optimistic about their efficacy (even in the face of conflicting information), Smiley and Dweck have found evidence that such patterns of behavior can exist for younger children.

Moving now from the role of temperament in motivation, in the next section, we consider the work of Guthrie and Knowles, to present an explicit definition of motivation.

Considering Motivation Defined

Guthrie and Knowles (2001) depict motivation as being part intrinsic and part extrinsic. *Intrinsic motivation* comes from a person's desire to be engaged in the task or process without caring about an external reward (Guthrie & Wigfield, 1997). In contrast, *extrinsic motivation* comes from a person's desire to engage in a task for the purpose of gaining an external reward (e.g., teacher approval). They suggest that educators should work to facilitate intrinsic motivation because it is more persistent and is more likely to continue across situations; by contrast extrinsic motivation depends on the situation and may likely disappear with the removal of the reward.

To foster intrinsic motivation, Guthrie and Knowles consider two types of interest—personal interest and situational interest. In the context of reading, *personal interest* stems from a person's attraction to the topic. For example, if a child loves trains, he or she

may have a personal interest in reading *The Little Engine That Could*. S*ituational interest* exists in the shorter term than personal interest and is a positive emotional state resulting from a particular context. For example, a student who typically does not enjoy the activity of name writing may develop a situational interest if he is writing his name using scented markers rather than a pencil. However, as this interest is situational, the following day, without the availability of scented markers, he may again be resistant to the name-writing task.

Additionally, Guthrie and Knowles (2001) cite *attitude* as contributing to motivation. Their use of the term attitude is similar to other researcher's description of temperament, such as task orientation. According to their definition, reading attitude is a continuum of possible positive and negative feelings. A learner's place on this continuum contributes to whether the learner approaches or avoids a reading situation (Alexander & Filler, 1976).

Contribution of Attention to Motivation and Engagement

Returning to Chang and Burn's systemic perspective of motivation, we also consider the contribution of attention to motivation and engagement. Attention typically is the most observable component of motivation and an important component in learning to read. For example, a child learns phonological awareness by focusing attention away from the meaning of the word and directing attention instead to the letters and sounds of a word (Poskiparta et al., 2003). Weitzman and Greenberg (2002) consider engagement to comprise three components: (a) attention, (b) participation, and (c) interaction. *Attention* focuses on how a child demonstrates interest in an activity and the way in which the child attends to and reacts to the teacher and other members of the class. *Participation* describes how the child participates in the activity, for example, how he or she handles materials. *Interaction* considers the extent to which the child initiates and responds to the teacher and other children. The combination of all three factors contributes to the single concept of engagement. Sipe's work (2002) indicates that literacy engagement includes both expressive and performative types of participation. Clearly, attention is not a binary concept, but rather a complex concept that exists on a continuum.

In summary, motivation is defined as a multidimensional concept with influences from internal sources, such as a child's temperament, as well as external sources, such as the situation. To measure motivation, we can consider indicators such as attention. Next, we consider the importance of exploring and measuring motivation for young children with regard to reading development.

Significance of Motivation for Reading Development

Reading is a socially mediated skill, invented by people and continually inspired by our need to communicate with others. Naturally, the development of such a complex, socially derived skill depends on both cognitive ability and motivation (Lepola et al., 2000).

The Teacher's Perspective

Motivation is a primary concern for many teachers. Teachers report that motivation is a core problem in many students' learning challenges and can result in subsequent behavioral problems when students lose motivation and become frustrated (Edmunds & Bauserman, 2006). Kindergarten teachers report that the most important indication of children's readiness for school is their social-emotional competencies, including aspects of motivation (Rimm-Kaufman, Pianta, & Cox, 2000).

Quality of Learning

Having a personal interest in an academic task affects the quality of learning from the task, with greater personal interest predicting deeper understanding and higher overall quality of learning (Sweet, Guthrie, & Ng, 1998). The presence of motivation frequently predicts when learning will be superficial and temporary, as compared to when learning will be permanent and internalized (Edmunds & Bauserman, 2006). Clearly the goal of school is long-term learning rather than superficial understanding; to reach that goal, motivation may need to be facilitated.

Motivation With Time on Task

Time on task is a powerful contributor to learning. Both personal interest (interest in a subject matter) and situational interest (positive affect from the learning environment) can contribute to increases in reading achievement, primarily due to increased time on the task of reading. Motivated students simply read more and seek out situations involving literacy (Guthrie & Knowles, 2002). Subsequently, motivation can be considered as a mediator of reading development; that is, even if students receive the same quality of literacy instruction, students with higher motivation seemingly benefit more from the instruction than students with lower motivation because of additional self-selected practice (Lepola et al., 2000). Increases in the amount of time that children are engaged in literacy tasks can be viewed as an indicator of instructional efficacy (Russ, Chiang, Rylance, & Bongers, 2001).

Interdependent Development of Reading and Motivation

Longitudinal studies, or studies in which a group of learners is tracked over an extended period of time, provide some of the best indicators of the long-term consequences of motivation on reading development. Longitudinal studies (e.g., Jorm, Share, Matthews, & Maclean, 1986; Whyte, 1993) describe a reciprocal relationship between reading progress and behaviors that are related to motivation (e.g., prosocial behavior). Unfortunately, research also indicates that overall attitudes toward reading decrease as children progress through elementary school (McKenna, Kear, & Ellsworth, 1995).

As mentioned earlier, Guthrie and colleagues (1996) explain the interdependence of motivation and reading with older students through the concept of intrinsic motivation. Increasing students' literacy engagement yields more student reading, which is tied to increases in intrinsic motivation. A recursive cycle involving motivation and amount of reading is created. Evidence indicates that students with higher internal motivation perform better on reading comprehension measures than students with higher external motivation. For example, in a cross-sectional design, Schultz and Switzky (1993) studied the internal motivation and external motivation of elementary and middle-school students with varying lev-

els of academic achievement. When the researchers controlled for students' mental ability (i.e., IQ scores), age, and sex, the students with high internal motivation performed better on measures of reading comprehension than students with high external motivation.

Although the work cited above was conducted with elementary school-age children, Lepola et al. (2000) also found that the interaction of learning skills and motivational tendencies create differing reading careers beginning in preschool. Although the researchers did not observe clear differences in motivation at the preschool level, they did observe how different motivational patterns in preschool could predict levels of success in later reading careers. Specifically children who have high ego-defensiveness (i.e., may avoid difficult tasks) and social dependency (i.e., are reliant on teacher praise) and have lower task orientation (i.e., are motivated to complete a task rather than reach understanding) are likely to have more difficulty learning to read than their peers who do not exhibit these tendencies. In contrast, students with low ego-defensiveness, low social dependency, and high task orientation are likely to have successful reading careers (as measured through the second grade).

Smiley and Dweck (1994) observed similar patterns of interaction between learning skills and motivational tendencies in preschool-age children. They found that performance-oriented children (i.e., those who are motivated to complete a task rather than enjoy the process of learning) may succeed in tasks when they are confident and mirror the performance of learning-oriented children (i.e., those who are motivated to discover new things). However, performance-oriented children struggle when they are not confident in a task, perhaps because they have failed the task before. Learning-oriented children consistently exhibit a mastery pattern, regardless of their task confidence. One crucial implication of these differing approaches to challenges is that, by seeking out challenges, children who are learning-oriented goals may construct a richer learning environment than performance-oriented children. For example, during center-time, a learning-oriented child may select a challenging three-dimensional puzzle and gain more knowledge about spatial arrangement than the performance-oriented child who may select the same puzzle that he or she completed yesterday. Although Smiley and Dweck did not relate their theory directly to literacy, the pattern can be easily generalized into situations where children select texts to read.

Measures for Assessing Motivation and Orientation

Measures of motivation and orientation for young children are currently limited in availability. Of the measures that exist, few measure motivation and orientation specific to literacy activities. Although some measures exist for children in elementary through high school (e.g., *Title Recognition Test,* Cunningham & Stanovich, 1991; *Motivation to Read Profile,* Gambrell, Palmer, Cooling, & Mazzoni, 1996; *Reading Activity Inventory,* Guthrie, McGough, & Wigfield, 1994; *Reader Self-Perception Scale,* Henk & Melnick, 1995; *Elementary Reading Attitude Survey,* McKenna & Kear, 1990, as cited in McKenna & Stahl, 2003), few of these are appropriate for children who are kindergarten age or younger. In this chapter, we review measures currently available, including several noncommercial measures that have been designed for young children or may be easily modified for use with young children 3 to 6 years of age. The following three constructs were identified: (1) motivation and orientation to literacy activities, (2) general motivation to learning, and (3) factors contributing to motivation. We describe each of these constructs and tasks to measure these constructs in the subsequent sections of this chapter.

Measuring Motivation and Orientation to Literacy Activities

The first goal in developing this chapter was to identify measures that are specific to children's motivation and orientation to literacy-related tasks. The first two measures discussed here, the Kaderavek and Sulzby Rating of Orientation to Literacy (Kaderavek & Sulzby, 2006) and Sipe's (2002) Expressive Engagement Typology, evaluate children's participation during interactive read-alouds. Both tasks require observation of children by an adult not participating in the read-aloud. The third literacy-related measure, the Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children (Harter & Pike, 1983) and a modified version of this measure, the Interest in Literacy Task (Frijiters, Barron, & Brunello, 2000), evaluates children's self-reported feelings about literacy-related activities.

These two measures are presented together, because the only difference between the two are the specific activities children are asked to report.

Kaderavek and Sulzby Rating of Orientation to Book Reading (Kaderavek & Sulzby, 2006)

Introduction. Developed for a research study, the Rating of Orientation to Book Reading (ROB) is designed to monitor levels of children's engagement and attention during book reading interactions with adults. Children's behaviors are rated on a 4-point scale, with scores of 1 and 2 indicating overall low orientation to literacy and scores of 3 and 4 indicating high orientation to literacy. This rating scale is presented in Figure 10–1.

Specific Uses of the Measure. The ROB may be used to identify individual children's level of engagement during read-alouds.

Ways in Which Outcomes of the Measure Are Interpreted and Used for Various Purposes. Information gathered from this rating scale may be used by teachers to identify children who are engaged during read-alouds as well as children who are less engaged or not at all engaged during read-alouds. Children receiving a rating of 1 or 2 on this scale could be identified as needing assistance in participating and engaging during read-alouds. This measure does not provide information regarding how to improve orientation to book reading.

Time to Administer. This rating can be applied to any interactive read-aloud situation. Information needed to complete the rating is obtained in the time it takes to complete the reading of a storybook. However, as it requires active observations throughout the activity, ideally it is administered by a second observer as the reader could not complete both tasks simultaneously. Alternatively, the read-aloud could be video-taped and then rated by the teacher conducting the read-aloud.

Ages for Which the Measure is Appropriate. Kaderavek and Sulzby designed this rating scale for use with children ages 2 to 4 years. It has been used to rate the behaviors of both typically

Rating of Orientation to Book Reading (ROB) Scale

1	2	3	4
(A) Child refuses to participate.	(A) Child demonstrates mild/moderate reluctance to participate and once engaged is only minimally interested during the storybook interaction.	(A) Child is willing to participate in the storybook reading and demonstrates mild/moderate interest in the book.	(A) Child consistently is eager to read the book and is readily engaged in the story.
OR	OR	OR	
(B) Child participates but does not become engaged at any time during bookreading.	(B) Child is only interested in reading a book if it happens to be something he/she is very interested in. Most/many books are not interesting to this child.	(B) Child initially shows some mild resistance but eventually becomes very interested in the storybook.	
	OR	OR	
	(C) Child shows interest but frequently gets up from reading session and the adult has to reengage the child as a participant.	(C) Child generally shows high interest but occasionally gets up from reading session and adult has to reengage the child as a participant.	

Figure 10–1. This figure presents the Rating of Orientation to Book Reading Scale in its entirety. (Copyright by Joan Kaderavek and Elizabeth Sulzby. Reprinted with permission.)

developing children and children with specific language impairment (SLI).

How Administered. Use of this rating scale requires careful observation of individual children. Although it could be used during a read-aloud involving several children, it is recommended that only one child be rated at a time. The observer may choose one child at a time to rate during a read-aloud, or may videotape the read-aloud and watch the video once for each child rated, focusing on a specific child during each viewing.

Languages Permitted for Administration. This measure has been used with English-speaking children. This scale could also be used with speakers of other languages if the observer is familiar enough with that language to determine whether or not verbal contributions from children indicate on-task participation. This scale also takes into account nonverbal behaviors, which can be observed in speakers of any language.

Possible Score Types. The observer assigns a single rating on a scale from 1 to 4; 1 indicates refusal to participate or lack of engagement, 2 indicates mild/moderate reluctance or engagement only with high interest books, 3 indicates willingness to participate with occasional reengagement by an adult, and 4 indicates consistent interest and engagement in a story.

Qualifications Required for Administration. No specific training is necessary for administration. The rating scale provides descriptions of children's behaviors during read-alouds that can be used to identify the child's level of orientation. The observer should be familiar with expected language levels of the children to be rated.

Expressive Engagement Typology (Sipe, 2002)

Introduction. Sipe presents an informal rating system measuring expressive engagement during an interactive read-aloud. Sipe defines *expressive engagement* as a type of oral response inspired by a literacy activity. This typology spans a 5-point range, beginning with the lowest level of engagement (defined as *dramatizing)*; and

moving toward the highest level on the continuum (*taking over*). At the lower ranges of engagement, the text highly shapes the listener's response, such as silently acting out part of the text. At the higher range of engagement, the text becomes a launching point for a child's creative performance/reaction, such as telling one's own story inspired by the text. See Table 10–1 for a summary of Sipe's levels of expressive engagement.

Specific Uses of the Measure. Teachers can use this tool to assess overall engagement of children in a class during read-alouds. Although this scale is qualitative in nature, the teacher can tally the overall mean response levels within each of the five categories. Alternatively, the typology can be used to assess an individual student's engagement with a particular text.

Ways in Which Outcomes of the Measure Are Interpreted and Used for Various Purposes. This typology can serve as an informal measure for teachers working to improve levels of engagement. Teachers can use this as a tool to critique their own style of read-alouds and then adjust their instruction accordingly to encourage different styles/levels of engagement within the class. For this purpose, Sipe (2006) gives specific instructional recommendations to promote each type of engagement. For example, to encourage critiquing, the teacher can ask direct questions which place the child in the story, such as "What would you do in that situation?"

Additionally, this measure can quantify an individual student's response to a text. The teacher could use such information to guide instruction during interactive read-alouds in order to assess a particular student's level of expressed engagement and scaffold the student to reach higher levels of engagement. To find books that are of high interest for reluctant listeners, the teacher could also track students' expressive engagement within a range of text genres and formats.

Time to Administer. This typology can be applied to any interactive read-aloud situation and would not take additional time. However, as it requires active observations throughout the activity, it would need to be administered by a second observer as the

Table 10–1. Descriptions of Sipe's Levels of Expressive Engagement

Typology	Behavioral Description	Example	Instruction to Facilitate This Level of Engagement
1 Dramatizing	Children engage in nonverbal dramatic reenactment.	A child waves her arms to mimic the waves in the story	Teachers can provide suggestions on how to act out the story.
2 Talking back	Children verbally respond to the story.	A child shouts out, "You better watch out, Red Riding Hood!"	Teachers can model verbal responses and value student responses when they occur
3 Critiquing/ Controlling	Children suggest alternatives in plots, characters, or settings.	Children decide to change Goldilock's age to their own age.	Teachers can pose questions that encourage the children to take the point-of-view—"What would you say?"
4 Inserting	Children insert themselves (or others) into the story.	After viewing an illustration of Goldilocks with a missing tooth, a child decides that a classmate actually took the tooth	When reading a book with a pattern, the teacher can reread the book and encourage students to engage in the dialogue.
5 Taking over	Children take over the text and manipulate it for their own purposes.	A child performes an independent song inspired by Chicken Little.	The teacher can encourage high levels of interactions and read texts that facilitate interaction between the author and reader (e.g., Scieszka's *The Stinky Cheese Man*).

Source: Adapted with permission from "Talking Back and Taking Over: Young Children's Expressive Engagement During Storybook Read-Alouds," by L. R. Sipe, 2002, *The Reading Teacher, 55*(5), 476–483. Copyright © 2002 by the International Reading Association.

reader could not complete both tasks simultaneously. Alternatively, the read-aloud could be video-taped and then rated by the teacher.

Ages for Which the Measure Is Appropriate. Sipe and colleagues have used this measure in kindergarten through second-grade classrooms; however, it is also appropriate for preschool classrooms because it measures response to a common preschool practice—the read-aloud. The scale assumes that the listeners of the story are verbally expressive.

Languages Permitted for Administration. This typology measures both nonverbal and verbal participation and is appropriate for speakers of different languages.

Possible Score Types. The scale is not a standardized measure and produces a descriptive score of the student's or class's level of engagement.

Qualifications Required for Administration. No training is available in the administration of the instrument. However, Sipe (2002) provides specific examples for each rating.

Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children (Harter & Pike, 1983) and the Interest in Literacy Task (modified version by Frijters, Barron, & Brunello, 2000)

Introduction. The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children (Harter & Pike, 1983, 1984) measures children's self-report of perceived cognitive competence, physical competence, peer acceptance, and maternal acceptance. The cognitive competence subscale contains items related to language and literacy skills.

Frijters et al. (2000) adapted Harter and Pike's scale to create the Interest in Literacy Task. This adaptation contains items specific to children's affective responses to literacy and literacy-related activities. Both the original tool and the adapted version measure children's attitudes about literacy in a picture survey format. Examples of items from each of these measures are presented in Table 10–2.

Specific Uses of the Measure. Teachers may use the Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance to evaluate children's self-reported perceptions of competence and acceptance by others. Items from the Interest in Literacy Task may be used to evaluate children's self-reported perceptions of competence and acceptance related to specific literacy tasks. Both measures could be used by teachers and clinicians to determine how children perceive their own skills and respond to literacy-related activities or to identify which tasks children do or do not enjoy.

Ways in Which Outcomes of the Measure Are Interpreted and Used for Various Purposes. The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children was designed for research purposes to explore the connections between young children's perceived competence in cognitive and physical domains, as well as perceived acceptance by peers and mothers. The Interest in Literacy Task was also designed for research purposes to explore relationships between ratings on this scale and other literacy-related outcome measures.

Table 10–2. Examples from the Cognitive Competence Subscale of the Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children (Harter & Pike, 1983, 1984) and Interest in Literacy Task (Frijters, Baron, & Brunello, 2000)

Measure	Items
Cognitive Competence subscale of the Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children (Harter & Pike, 1983, 1984)	▪ Good at puzzles ▪ Gets stars on paper ▪ Knows names of colors ▪ Good at counting ▪ Knows alphabet ▪ Knows first letter of name
Interest in Literacy Task (Frijters, Barron, & Brunello, 2000)	▪ Looks at books alone ▪ Get books for presents ▪ Goes to the library ▪ Reads

Time to Administer. Each of these measures is designed to be administered individually to children. The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children includes 24 items, and takes about 15 to 20 minutes to complete. The Interest in Literacy Task includes just 4 items, and takes approximately 5 minutes per child.

Ages for Which the Measure Is Appropriate. The original measure created by Harter and Pike was designed for preschool and kindergarten children. The modified literacy tasks were designed for use with kindergarten children; however, these items would also be appropriate for preschool children.

How Administered. Administration procedures for both versions of this measure are the same. The assessor presents two pictures of children engaged in the same activity to the child. One picture shows a child with a happy face and the other a child with a sad face (i.e., pictures are identical except for the face). Pictures match the gender of the child participating in the task (i.e., girls are presented with pictures of girls, boys with pictures of boys). The assessor asks a question of the child about the picture. For example, the assessor shows the child a picture of a girl looking at books alone and says: "This girl likes to look at books by herself. This girl does not like to look at books by herself. Which girl is most like you?" After the child points to the face corresponding to her choice, the assessor asks the follow-up question: "Do you like to look at books alone a lot, or just a little?" The child then points to a large circle to indicate "a lot" or a small circle to indicate "a little."

Names of the Subtests. The Cognitive Competence subscale of the Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children contains items related to language and literacy. See Table 10–2 for a list of these items. The Interest in Literacy Task consists of four items and contains no subtests.

Languages Permitted for Administration. This task could be administered in any language, as long as the person asking the questions speaks the same language as the child.

Possible Score Types. Scores of 1 to 4 points on each item are determined based on the following criteria:

1: child points to sad face, then large circle

2: child points to sad face, then small circle

3: child points to smiling face, then small circle

4: child points to smiling face, then large circle

Qualifications Required for Administration. No specific training is necessary for administration.

Measuring General Motivation to Learn

Due to the current lack of measures available to evaluate motivation of young children to literacy activities, we include here measures that evaluate young children's general motivation to learn. In this section, we describe five measures that evaluate general persistence, interests, and motivation to learn. The puzzle task (Smiley & Dweck, 1994), provides insight into how children respond to difficult tasks, in this case attempting to complete a puzzle with an incorrect piece. The Children's Behavior Questionnaire (CBQ; Rothbart, 1996) is a parent survey that may be used to obtain behavioral information about children. The remaining three tasks, the Children's Attitudes Toward School (CATS; Henry, Mashburn, & Konold, in press), the Motivation Orientation Questionnaire (Perry, Nordby, & VandeCamp, 2003), and the Structured Student Interview (Perry et al., 2003), involve asking children directly how they feel about various learning tasks.

Puzzle Task (Smiley & Dweck, 1994)

Introduction. Smiley and Dweck (1994) proposed that performance-oriented children are more likely to give up on completing a difficult task than learning-oriented children. Additionally, they hypothesized that confidence in a task can interact with task completion, as children with high task confidence will be more likely to persist on a task. To test this model, they created a puzzle

task. Although this task does not directly assess literacy motivation, it may assess intrinsic personality factors that contribute to motivation (including persistence toward difficult literacy tasks).

Specific Uses of the Measure. The puzzle task is an informal measure that teachers can use to better understand situations in which their students would persist or give up on a difficult task. Teachers can use this type of task could be used near the beginning of the year to determine which children may need more coaching to become learning/mastery oriented. To administer this task, students are confronted with impossible tasks, in the form of insolvable puzzles, and the teacher observes how the students cope with the situation. Later, the students self-rate their emotions while working on the insolvable puzzle using an array of five faces, ranging from sad to happy. Finally, the students are given a choice as to which puzzle task they would like to do again. This assesses whether they seek out easier or more challenging tasks.

Ways in Which Outcomes of the Measure Are Interpreted and Used for Various Purposes. This task provides qualitative evidence regarding students' motivation and confidence in various challenging circumstances (e.g., when faced with impossible tasks). Students who are likely to quit a difficult task can be identified. A lack of persistence may affect all areas of their learning.

Time to Administer. The puzzle task requires two sessions. In session 1, children rate their puzzle-solving ability and assemble an age-appropriate puzzle. In session 2, the children complete a series of puzzles: three insolvable puzzles and one solvable puzzle. Then, the students give self-ratings on various dimensions (e.g., their emotions during the puzzle tasks).

Ages for Which the Measure Is Appropriate. This protocol has been used with preschool and kindergarten students.

How Administered. Although the author did not indicate how the tasks were administered, to prevent interference by potential competition between students, the tasks should be administered

individually. The tasks require considerable materials. To complete the puzzle tasks, the experimenter needs five age-appropriate wooden puzzles: two of which are intact, and three of which are altered to appear solvable but are actually insolvable. To create the insolvable puzzles, the experimenters would replace five or six pieces from a similar looking puzzle (e.g., using two different Cookie Monster© puzzles and mixing up the pieces). For the self-ratings, the experimenter uses a face rating scale with five illustrations representing: (a) very sad; (b) a little sad, (c) in the middle, (d) a little happy, and (e) very happy.

Languages Permitted for Administration. The assessment relies on nonlinguistic observations. However, in order for the students to self-rate their experience, the assessor would need to be able to communicate in the same language as the students.

Possible Score Types. This assessment yields qualitative data.

Qualifications Required for Administration. No training is required to administer this assessment.

Children's Behavior Questionnaire (Rothbart, 1996)

Introduction. The Children's Behavior Questionnaire (CBQ) is a parent survey containing 195 items that provide information about children's behaviors on 15 subscales: Activity Level, Anger/Frustration, Approach, Attentional Focusing, Discomfort, Falling Reactivity and Soothability, Fear, High Intensity Pleasure, Impulsivity, Inhibitory Control, Low Intensity Pleasure, Perceptual Sensitivity, Sadness, Shyness, and Smiling and Laughter. An additional subscale, Attentional Shifting was added more recently. Two subtests, Attentional Focusing and Attentional Shifting, measure constructs related to motivation. An example of selected items from the CBQ appropriate for 4½-year-old children is available from the NICHD Study of Early Child Care and Youth Development Web site at http://secc.rti.org/display.cfm?t=f&i=55A

Specific Uses of the Measure. This measure, designed to assess dimensions of temperament, is appropriate for use at the

beginning of a school year for teachers to obtain behavioral information about children from parents or caregivers.

Ways in Which Outcomes of the Measure Are Interpreted and Used for Various Purposes. This information may help teachers increase their awareness of individual behavioral and learning needs of children in the classroom. Teachers then can use this information to guide instruction.

Time to Administer. The full CBQ consists of 195 items, and may take approximately 45 minutes to 1 hour to complete. Completion of the two subtests related to motivation requires responding to just 26 items, and would take much less time (approximately 5 to 10 minutes).

Ages for Which the Measure Is Appropriate. The CBQ was designed to evaluate young children ages 3 to 8 years. Only questions that apply to the child's behavior within the previous 6 months should be answered. Any items that do not apply because of the child's age should be marked N/A.

How Administered. A parent or caregiver completes the questionnaire, rating each item as it applies to his or her child's behavior within the previous 6 months. For example, one item states: "When picking up toys or other jobs, usually keeps at the task until it's done." The caregiver provides a rating concerning how "true" this statement is in consideration of the child's behaviors during the last 6 months.

Names of the Subtests. The Attentional Focusing subscale evaluates a child's tendency to maintain focus on a given task. Items describe behaviors demonstrating focus, such as remaining on task until a task is finished, showing strong concentration, and staying on task for a long period of time. Additional items describe behaviors that indicate lack of focus, such as being easily distracted, moving from one task to another without completing a task, or shifting rapidly from one activity to another.

The Attentional Shifting subscale evaluates a child's ability to move from one task to another. Items describe behaviors that demonstrate the ability to move from one task to another, such as easily leaving a project when asked and shifting easily from one activity to another. Additional items describe behaviors that indicate difficulty with shifting attention, such as not seeming to hear instructions when working on a task and having trouble stopping an activity when asked to do something else.

Languages Permitted for Administration. The questionnaire is available only in English; thus, the person completing the questionnaire must read and understand English. Children who speak languages other than English may be evaluated using this scale, as it measures behaviors that are applicable across languages. However, assessors should be aware of cultural differences that may influence children's behaviors.

Possible Score Types. Each item is rated on a scale ranging from 1 to 7, and is assigned one of the following descriptors: 1—extremely untrue, 2—quite untrue, 3—slightly untrue, 4—neither true nor untrue, 5—slightly true, 6—quite true, or 7—extremely true. Assessors may also rate any item not applicable (NA). Some of the items are worded so that 7 is the most positive response (e.g., "When drawing or coloring in a book, shows strong concentration") and other items are worded so that 1 is the most positive response (e.g., "When practicing an activity, has a hard time keeping her/his mind on it"). The purpose of wording items in different ways is to encourage the person completing the survey to consider each item carefully before selecting a response. Items worded so that 1 is the most positive response are marked with an "R" for scoring purposes to alert the scorer that these items need to be reverse scored (i.e., 7 becomes 1, 6 becomes 2, and so forth).

Before summing scores, any item marked with an "R" must be reverse scored. After reverse scoring, the total of each item rating is calculated. The sum is then divided by the total number of items receiving a numerical response (i.e., a rating of 1–7) to obtain a mean scale score.

Qualifications Required for Administration. No specific training is necessary for administration.

Children's Attitudes Toward School (CATS; Henry, Mashburn, & Konold, in press)

Introduction. This measure was developed by Henry et al. (in press; see Table 10–3 and Figure 10–2). These authors identified activities in early childhood classrooms from state curricula, standards of learning, and existing measures of early childhood activities. The measure asks children to report their attitudes toward these activities taking place in their classroom. This measure was tested for reliability and validity on a group of 642 first-grade children. Based on this evaluation, the authors concluded that the CATS "measures children's perceptions of their own attitudes that are independent of children's performance in these skill areas" (p. 29).

Specific Uses of the Measure. Henry et al. (in press) developed this measure with the intent of better understanding young

Table 10–3. List of Items on the Children's Attitudes Toward School

Items on the Children's Attitudes Toward School	
Academics	
Math tests	Homework
Spelling tests	Writing letters and words
Early Literacy	
Writing a story	Reading quietly
Listening to stories	Music activities
Child-Initiated	
Games and doing puzzles	Centers
Playing with building toys	Computers
Recess	

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Children's Attitudes Toward School

Instructions

While you've been at school this year, you've done many activities like reading, writing, math, art, and going outside to play. Some of these activities you may really like, some activities you may think are OK, and some activities you may not like at all.

Look at the four faces on this card.

Present the laminated faces by placing the card flat on the table in front of the child

I am going to say an activity that you do in school, and I want you to point to the face that looks like how you feel when you do this activity.

If I say an activity that you don't like, point to this face with a frown.

Point to this face 🙁

If I say an activity that you think is OK, point to this face.

Point to this face 😐

If I say an activity that you like, point to this face with the smile.

Point to this face 🙂

If I say an activity that you really like, point to this face with the big smile.

Point to this face 😃

This is not a test, and there are no wrong answers. Just point to the face that best describes how you feel when you do this activity in school during this school year.

- -

Notes for Administration:
- Read the instructions that are in **bold**
- Read the items with a neutral tone. Avoid facial expressions or inflections in your voice when reading the items
- Do not offer Don't Know/Not Sure as a response option, but if the child responds in a way that seems the item is not applicable, mark the ? on the score sheet.

Figure 10–2. Complete test instructions for the Children's Attitudes Toward School. (Copyright by Gary T. Henry and Andrew J. Mashburn. Reprinted with permission.)

children's attitudes toward school, and learning in general, and how children's attitudes are affected by the pressures of high-stakes testing. Although this measure does not directly address participation in high-stakes testing, it includes items that address skills that might be affected by high-stakes testing.

The CATS could be used early in a school year to identify a baseline level of children's attitudes toward learning. This information could inform teachers about children's relative levels of interest in various learning tasks. Repeated use of this measure would allow teachers to track changes in attitudes over time.

Ways in Which Outcomes of the Measure Are Interpreted and Used for Various Purposes. The CATS measures children's self-reported attitudes toward school in three areas: (1) Academics, (2) Early Literacy, and (3) Child Initiated Activities. Qualitative information obtained from this measure could be used to identify children's preferences for learning activities.

Time to Administer. Minimal time is necessary to administer the 16 items on this measure. Administration of all items may be completed in one session, or divided into two or more sessions for children with shorter attention spans.

Ages for Which the Measure Is Appropriate. This measure is designed for use with preschool through first-grade children.

How Administered. The assessor administers items to individual children. Each item is introduced with the phrase: "How do you feel about . . . ?" The child responds by pointing to one of four faces labeled with words describing that face. Children choose between four possible responses: 1—I don't like it (sad face), 2—It's OK (face with a straight mouth), 3—I like it (smiling face), and 4—I really like it (open mouth smiling face).

Languages Permitted for Administration. This task could be administered in any language, as long as the person asking the questions speaks the same language as the child.

Possible Score Types. The CATS provides qualitative information about children's attitudes toward learning. The items can be

interpreted individually or evaluated within the three categories of Academics, Early Literacy, and Child Initiated Activities.

Qualifications Required for Administration. No specific training is necessary for administration.

Motivation Orientation Questionnaire (Perry, Nordby, & VandeKamp, 2003)

Introduction. This questionnaire is designed for teachers to assess their students' motivation orientation toward writing, specifically whether the students have a performance- or mastery-oriented approach to literacy.

Specific Uses of the Measure. This questionnaire (if adapted from writing to literacy tasks in general) would be appropriate to use in the beginning of a school year to gather information on how individual children are motivated. For students who are struggling with literacy tasks, such a questionnaire could yield information as to whether the problem includes a component of motivation. Additionally, a questionnaire could be used to track potential change in motivation throughout the year.

Ways in Which Outcomes of the Measure Are Interpreted and Used for Various Purposes. This questionnaire would provide general information to a teacher as to whether a student has a stronger performance- or mastery-oriented motivation. Such information could be useful to motivate students and set appropriate goals. For example, with students who have an orientation toward performance, teachers could give specific feedback which encourages a more mastery-oriented manner. A teacher may emphasize and track with the student what he or she has learned rather than compliment him or her on the completion of a task.

Time to Administer. This questionnaire is completed for students individually and would require approximately 5 minutes per student.

Ages for Which the Measure Is Appropriate. The questionnaire is designed for first-grade students and emphasizes orienta-

tion to writing. However, this scale could be adapted to preschool and kindergarten students by substituting the more general category of "literacy" activities for the specific category of writing.

How Administered. The questionnaire is completed by the teacher for each individual student.

Names of the Subtests. The items are sorted into two scales: Mastery Orientation and Performance Orientation. An example of a *mastery-oriented* item is: "Maintains a positive attitude when faced with difficulty or challenge." In contrast, an example of a *performance-oriented* item is: "Writes only when in a group or when instructed to do so."

Languages Permitted for Administration. This is an observational measure completed by a teacher and could be used to evaluate a child who speaks any language, as long as the teacher understands the child's language.

Possible Score Types. The scores are not standardized and it would be most useful to compare the two scales on a relative basis (mastery vs. performance). Additionally, this scale could be used to track changes in individual students.

Qualifications Required for Administration. No specific training is necessary to complete this questionnaire.

Structured Student Interview (Perry, Nordby, & VanDeKamp, 2003)

Introduction. This student interview includes a combination format of pictorial self-rating (by the children) and open-ended questions. The interview targets motivation for writing activities. Interviews occur in the classroom while students are engaged in writing tasks, so that the questions can refer to the tasks on which the students are currently working.

Specific Uses of the Measure. Similar to the Motivation Orientation Questionnaire, this structured interview procedure would

be appropriate to use in the beginning of a school year to gather information on how individual children are motivated. For students who are struggling with literacy tasks, such an interview could yield information as to whether the problem includes a component of motivation. Additionally, this student questionnaire could be used to track potential changes in motivation throughout the year.

Ways in Which Outcomes of the Measure Are Interpreted and Used for Various Purposes. This is an informal measure that yields qualitative information regarding a student's feelings about his or her efficacy as a writer, reactions to teacher critique, and expectations for future success.

Time to Administer. This interview requires a significant amount of time per child. Prior to interviewing the student, the students are taught how to answer using a Likert-type scale (with a range of pictures of happy/sad faces). The interview would occur within the writing/literacy portion of the day.

Ages for Which the Measure Is Appropriate. This interview is designed for first-grade students. However, with appropriate modifications, it could be used with preschool students. For example, instead of using a range of five happy sad faces, for preschool children, it may be more appropriate to use three faces to provide fewer response options.

How Administered. The interview is administered individually. It cannot be administered by the teacher because it requires the student to be actively engaged in a writing lesson. The interview could be administered by a teacher's aide or classroom volunteer. Perry et al. (2003) describe the procedures and general interview topics (e.g., ask students to identify a good writer in their class, and describe why that student is a good writer).

Names of the Subtests. There are no specific subtests within the interview. Interview requires that the student react to a hypothetical situation regarding a new student's literacy performance in class. Then, students share their general beliefs about writing, self-rate their ability, respond to teacher feedback about their writing, and give their beliefs regarding future success in writing.

Languages Permitted for Administration. The interview format requires that the interviewer and interviewee both speak the same language.

Possible Score Types. The interview yields qualitative information concerning student's feelings about approaches to writing.

Qualifications Required for Administration. No specific training is required for administration.

Factors Contributing to Children's Motivation

The measures presented in the previous sections provide toos that may be used to assess children's motivation to participate in literacy-related tasks as well as their motivation to learn in general. A third area worthy of consideration is the influence of the child's environment on his or her motivation. Pianta (1999) states that "Motivation, or the 'desire' to change, is derived from the *co-action of systems*: both of the child and of context" (p. 38). This claim is supported theoretically by *systems theory*, which describes learning environments as contexts that are dynamic and fluid; that is, children are influenced by the environment, and the environment is influenced by the children. Motivation, as defined by Pianta, is the "propensity to change"; this is an integral part of the classroom system, and is particularly important for learning skills such as reading that are not naturally acquired, but instead are learned through external input from adults.

In this section, we address environmental influences that may contribute to children's motivation to learn and/or participate in activities that promote reading development. Specifically, we consider children's exposure to storybooks and adult-child interactions with storybooks.

Exposure to Storybooks

"Each incidence of reading is predicted to have a small but real effect on attitudes" (McKenna, 2001). Young children who are not yet independent readers depend on the adults in their world to provide them with reading experiences. Thus, it is important to consider the amount and quality of children's exposure to books

when evaluating motivation and orientation to literacy. Not only does exposure matter, but parent teaching accounts for variance in children's emergent literacy, and these emergent literacy skills in turn account for variance in reading skills at the end of first grade (Sénéchal & LeFevre, 2002). This is important because attitudes toward reading in the later grades are related to children's reading skills (i.e., poor readers' attitudes toward reading decrease more rapidly than good readers' attitudes) (McKenna, 2001). For these reasons, it is important to consider the types of literacy experiences that children encounter in the home environment as an influence on their motivation to participate in literacy-related activities. Chapter 3 of this book describes several measures of home supports for literacy; we encourage readers to consider one or more of these measures when evaluating factors that may contribute to a child's level of motivation and orientation towards reading.

Adult-Child Interactions Around Storybooks

Another factor that may be related to children's motivation and orientation to storybooks is the interactions that occur with adults around books. Although the direction of this relationship is uncertain, evidence indicates that adults tend to do more to involve children who are already responsive and engaged during activities than children who are not engaged and responsive, (Schneider & Hecht, 1995). There is also some evidence that a nurturing environment may contribute to positive changes in children's motivation to achieve (Ames, 1990, cited in Smiley & Dweck, 1994). With consistent reading experiences, children begin to anticipate what interactions around storybooks will be like. A child who has pleasurable past experiences with storybooks will expect more positive experiences; alternatively, a child who has tedious past experiences will expect future negative interactions with storybooks (McKenna, 2001). Features of these interactions and environments are observable, and thus may be measured when considering effects on literacy learning. Chapter 5 of this book describes measures of the quality of shared storybook reading. As there is evidence supporting quality of interactions and environments as a contributing factor to motivation and orientation, we encourage readers to consider using one of these measures in their work with young children.

Special Considerations for Assessing Motivation and Orientation

Previously, we outlined how internal child characteristics influence a child's motivation to read and write. Internal characteristics include temperament, attention, task orientation, ego-defensive orientation, and level of social dependence. Other essential factors also influence a child's learning process and literacy motivation. Learners who face additional challenges potentially impacting literacy motivation include children with learning disabilities, second language learners, children with language impairment (LI), and children reared in disadvantaged homes.

Wells (1985) reported that approximately 11% of children developing typically do not like being read to. Learners who are at risk are likely to experience low reading motivation even more frequently. For example, Kaderavek and Sulzby (1998a) reported that 40% of preschoolers with LI demonstrated low literacy interest during parent-child book reading. The literacy interest of the children with LI was compared to a control group of preschool children developing typically. All of the children developing typically demonstrated high literacy interest, whereas some of the children with LI demonstrated low literacy interest. A comparison parent-child toy-play interaction context also was included. Both children with LI and those who were developing typically demonstrated high engagement during parent-child toy play. Reduced literacy engagement during parent-child book reading also has been documented in preschool children with significant levels of hearing loss (Kaderavek & Pakulski, in press). It has been hypothesized that low interest during parent-child book reading is a factor of (a) the linguistic challenges of book reading (Kaderavek & Justice, 2005) and (b) the fact that book reading is typically adult-directed resulting in more frequent child performance requests (i.e., adult questions, requests to repeat words). Heightened linguistic demands during adult-child interactions often produce reduced child participation and verbal output (Girolametto, Weitzman, van Lieshout, & Duff, 2000). Consequently, children who need more reading exposure may be less willing to participate in reading activities (Lyon, 1999). The findings reported above underscore the importance of assessing literacy motivation in children at risk for reading difficulties.

Assessment of children's motivation should consider children's previous exposure to books and book reading. Morrow (1983), in a comparison of kindergarten children with high and low interest in literature and reading, reported that high-interest children had been read to more frequently and had more books in the home. Kaderavek and Pakulski (in press) reported that assessing a child's literacy interest during a one-time-only book reading was not equivalent to documentation of literacy engagement after repeated exposure. Other researchers also have documented that children's responsiveness to book reading increases with repeated exposure. (Goodsitt, Raitan, & Perlmutter, 1988; Martinez & Roser, 1985; Yaden, 1988).

The *saturation* effect should be considered when monitoring a child's level of engagement during shared book reading. Saturation occurs when additional data do not reveal any new information (Brinton & Fujiki, 2003). At present, it is not known precisely how many book exposures are required for saturation; individual differences in temperament and learning style likely affect saturation levels. But, at a minimum, most children require two to three book exposures before their level of literacy engagement can be reliably gauged.

Motivation assessment protocols should also consider the impact of family perceptions of reading development on children's level of literacy motivation and engagement. Baker and Scher (2002) surveyed 65 families to determine correlations between a family's reported purpose for home reading and children's level of motivation. The first grade children completed the Motivation for Reading scale. Significant negative correlations were found between frequent use of basic skill or ABC-type "workbooks" and child literacy motivation. Specifically, frequent use of basic skill books resulted in reduced levels of children's literacy interest and motivation. This study did not identify the direction of the cause-effect relationship of this finding. It is unclear if parents use skill-type books with less skilled or less motivated early readers, or if the use of basic skill workbooks is less pleasurable to children and results in lower child motivation. In either case, it is important to consider parents' reasons for reading (i.e., do parents read to their child for pleasure and recreation or to "teach the child to read"?) and to investigate the book types most frequently used during home book reading.

Interpreting the Results of Assessments of Motivation and Orientation

It is important to alert early childhood and literacy educators of the potential impact of literacy motivation and orientation on children's reading development. Children's level of literacy engagement can influence the effectiveness of literacy interventions. For example, Justice, Chow, Capellini, Flanigan, and Colton (2003) evaluated literacy orientation pre- and postintervention in 18 4-year-old Head Start preschoolers. Children's orientation to literacy contributed 11.2% of the variance predicting literacy ability following the 12-week intervention. In this study, low orientation appeared to influence the children's responsiveness to the intervention protocol.

A first step to sensitizing oneself to motivation and engagement variables is to carefully observe adults and children during shared book reading. Kaderavek and Sulzby (1998b) outlined an observational protocol that can be used for this purpose. Both adult and child behaviors should be noted during dyadic reading interactions. The observer can note the adult's ability to flexibly adapt the book's text to the child's language level. A highly flexible reader modifies the syntax level and simplifies the vocabulary as needed to enhance children's comprehension and attention. The observer can also note whether the adult asks frequent questions, asks the child to repeat words, and/or attempts to make connections between the book and the child's experiences. Varying levels of scaffolding and the intensity of linguistic demand during the shared book reading provides insight into home variables potentially influencing children's literacy motivation levels.

Observation of adult-child book reading also offers an opportunity to document child behaviors. Relevant child variables include positive and negative aspects of the social interaction and the child's verbal and nonverbal participation. The observer can note whether the child pays attention to illustrations versus the text, demonstrates increased or decreased level of interest and engagement in response to parent questions, and if the child sustains attention throughout the storybook reading. Subtle factors, such as the ones described here, provide insight into modifications in interaction style that could be incorporated to enhance children's literacy

motivation. Videotapes of the book reading interactions can be shared with parents and discussed. This process can sensitize parents to subtle variations in their child's performance and literacy interest.

The assessments described in this chapter can assist educators in identifying children who may have decreased motivation and interest in reading. For children who exhibit lowered motivation and interest, teachers should be aware of the linkages between a child's prevailing feelings about reading, the internal emotional states and satisfaction levels derived during literacy interactions, and the likelihood that the child will choose to engage in future literacy interactions. The linkages between feelings about reading, affective response during reading, and feelings stimulated by reading create a dynamic and cyclic motivation model. Mathewson (2004) described this model in detail and outlined several instructional implications, which are presented below in an adapted form.

First, teachers should foster children's sense of exploration and self-direction. This concept should be developed through one-on-one interactions during child-directed activities, shared book reading and writing, and other investigative activities. An "exploration" mindset is a facilitative concept that encourages reading.

Second, children should be exposed to a wide variety of book genres with different content and authors. Teachers should model how different literacy domains (magazines, books, computers) provide opportunities to explore and research interesting topics. An openness to a wide variety of reading and writing activities encourages children to read books, magazines, and newspapers.

Third classroom settings should encourage reading and writing in many different formats and venues. To the extent possible, children should be encouraged to use personal preferences to direct how and when they interact with books and participate in literacy activities. Keeping literacy opportunities "open" versus "closed" makes it more likely that literacy use will be synchronous with a child's temperament, activity level, and social-emotional style. Young children are more likely to choose to interact with literacy during dramatic play if their environment includes many appealing literacy-related objects (Neuman & Roskos, 1992).

Fourth, teachers should minimize the use of external incentives to motivate children to read. External rewards make it more likely that a child will believe that he should read because the "teacher wants him to" in contrast to reading for him- or herself.

Fifth, teachers and parents should encourage and promote positive feelings during book reading and literacy activities. Children who experience many positive emotions during literacy activities are likely to seek out more literacy activities in the future. An emphasis on "skill activities" can decrease children's enjoyment and propagate a negative cycle of lower motivation and decreased attempts to engage with literacy. Parents should be encouraged to take a "reading for recreation" mindset with young children so that early literacy experiences are associated with positive affect.

In summary, children's level of motivation and interest in literacy is an important domain that should be considered within an emergent literacy assessment protocol. Once assessed, teachers can modify literacy instruction to facilitate the development of motivated and engaged emergent readers.

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