




May 2024

Exploring the Relationships Between Grade, Gender, and Immigration Status on Reading Motivation Among Multilingual Elementary Students

Bong Gee Jang
Syracuse University, bojang@syr.edu

Selena Protacio
Western Michigan University, selena.protacio@wmich.edu

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.buffalostate.edu/lls>

 Part of the [Bilingual, Multilingual, and Multicultural Education Commons](#), [Elementary Education Commons](#), and the [Language and Literacy Education Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Jang, Bong Gee and Protacio, Selena (2024) "Exploring the Relationships Between Grade, Gender, and Immigration Status on Reading Motivation Among Multilingual Elementary Students," *The Language and Literacy Spectrum*: Vol. 34: Iss. 1, Article 3.

Available at: <https://digitalcommons.buffalostate.edu/lls/vol34/iss1/3>

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Elementary Education and Reading at Digital Commons at Buffalo State. It has been accepted for inclusion in The Language and Literacy Spectrum by an authorized editor of Digital Commons at Buffalo State. For more information, please contact digitalcommons@buffalostate.edu.

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2022), there are over 5 million multilingual learners (MLs) in the United States, comprising 10.3% of all students in K-12 schools. While the classification of MLs vary by state, typically they are students whose native language is not English, who grow up in homes where English is not the primary language spoken, and could include both U.S. and foreign-born students. On the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) conducted in 2022, MLs lag behind their native-English speaking peers in fourth grade by 32 points, but by eighth grade the gap increases to 39 points. In addition to grade level decline, researchers have also found significant gender gaps among ML subgroups with female students' (especially those from low-SES families) with wide achievement gaps than their male peers in middle school (e.g., Robinson & Lubienski, 2011; The Brown Center on Education Policy, 2015). Researchers have argued that MLs' academic challenges are in part due to lower levels of motivation and high levels of disengagement because the assets they bring to the classroom are overlooked or disregarded (Goldenberg, 2011; Li, 2011).

While there is a large body of research on reading motivation and engagement targeting native English speakers (e.g., Guthrie et al., 2013; Ives et al., 2020; Marinak et al., 2015; McKenna et al., 2013; Neugebauer, 2014), there have been substantially fewer studies conducted on MLs' reading motivation despite this being a field which could facilitate MLs' reading development in English (e.g., Proctor et al., 2014; Taboada Barber et al., 2020). This is particularly important given that studies with native-English speakers have shown that reading motivation is closely related to their reading achievement (e.g., Wolters et al., 2014; Toste et al., 2020).

Within ML reading motivation research, there is a need to further explore the different factors which motivate MLs to read in English. In particular, research needs to be done to understand whether and how individual characteristics such as grade level, gender and immigration status affect MLs' reading motivation. Ushioda (2019) explained that in recent years, "the emphasis has shifted towards viewing motivation as part of a complex dynamic system of learner characteristics that is in constant interaction with contextual-environmental factors" (p. 662). She elaborated that motivation has been of interest since it is associated with why individuals engage in second language learning and how they are successful in acquiring it. In this study, we aim to address this gap by investigating how various individual learner characteristics such as grade level, gender, and immigration status affected upper-elementary school MLs' reading motivation in English.

To achieve the goal, we adopted a three-factor reading motivation model that includes three interrelated constructs (instrumental, integrative, and social motivation) based on factors which have been found to motivate individuals to

learn a second or additional language (Dörnyei, 1994; Gardner, 2010; Protacio, 2012). We did not adopt a more generic model such as the 11-factor model of Motivation to Read Questionnaire (MRQ; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997) or the 2-factor model of the Motivation to Read Profile-Revised (MRP-R; Malloy et al., 2013) because those models were particularly targeting native English-speaking students. In addition, these three constructs were proven to make a unique contribution to developing ML's overall reading motivation (Gardner, 2010). Instrumental motivation in reading is often extrinsic, engineered by the perceived benefits or practical advantages of reading such as gaining high proficiency, better grades, and better jobs. Different from instrumental motivation, integrative motivation speaks to learners' intrinsic desire to learn about the host language culture and be integrated into the culture. Finally, social motivation attends to contextual influences in school and at home (i.e., peer, teacher, and other social influences such as families) on learners' reading motivation. Since the three-factor motivation model was developed based on and widely applied to foreign language learning, we will first test the validity of this model on second language (L2) learning. The study, therefore, was guided by the following research questions:

1. Is the three-factor model (integrative, instrumental, and social motivation) a valid and reliable model that accounts for what motivates upper-elementary MLs to read in English?
2. Are there differences in upper-elementary MLs' motivation to read in English based on grade level, gender, and immigration status?

Understanding MLs' Reading Motivation: Integrative, Instrumental, and Social Factors

Dörnyei (1994) posits that motivation is the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process of language learning; therefore, it is one of the most important factors responsible for achieving language proficiency. As noted earlier, while instrumental motivation is built upon learners' extrinsic motivation and external forces that can bring practical benefits or outcomes such as getting good grades, integrative motivation is intrinsic, relying on learners' desire and interest in learning about the target culture and community. Social motivation addresses the interpersonal influences within learners' contexts.

However, these three constructs in language learning motivation are not static or stable constructs but complex concepts that are highly dependent on different contexts and conditions (i.e., learner attitudes) (Gardner, 2010). The dynamic interactions between learner and context lead to learners' conscious choice with regard to taking action and investing in effort in language learning (Dörnyei, 2001a). As Gardner (2010) argues, "motivation to learn a second

language is influenced by group related, context related attitude, integrativeness and attitudes towards the learning situations respectively” (p. 168).

In the following, we draw upon both the broader motivational field as well as the language learning and foreign language motivational literature to identify potential individual and social factors influencing MLs’ motivation to read in instrumental, integrative, and social manners. For each construct, we provided theoretical underpinnings and conceptual bases for it and what previous research has been conducted regarding its difference in terms of gender, grade level, and immigration status.

Instrumental Motivation for Language Learning

Instrumental motivation in L2 research is operationalized as the motivation to do something because of its perceived benefits or practical advantages (Dörnyei, 2003; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). For example, students want to read in English either because it helps improve their English proficiency (Butler, 2007; Mikami, 2016) or they realize proficiency in reading English will help obtain high scores on college entrance examinations (Takase, 2007) and achieve their future academic and professional plans (Judge, 2011). In literacy research with native English-speaking students, this notion of instrumental motivation is frequently conceptualized and applied as *utility value*, which refers to “how well a task relates to current and future goals, such as career goals” (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002, p. 120).

For MLs, instrumental motivation is of paramount importance (Protacio, 2012, 2017; Sturtevant & Kim, 2009). Sturtevant and Kim (2009) investigated the literacy motivation of middle school MLs through the use of a survey and interviews. They found significant differences in instrumental reading motivation between the beginner, intermediate, and advanced groups in the ESL classes. Specifically, the beginners placed a higher value on reading (that reading can help them improve their proficiency and hence their grades) compared to the other two groups. These findings suggest that MLs’ instrumental motivation in reading may decline as learners become more proficient in the language. In a case study of middle school MLs, Protacio (2017) found that MLs were more engaged when they were instrumentally motivated. For instance, one of the focal participants who was originally from Afghanistan said she was more motivated to read because she recognized that it made her a better writer, which was one of her interests.

Gender

Researchers have reported mixed findings regarding gender differences in instrumental value that learners place on reading. For instance, Marinak and Gambrell (2010) examined gender differences of 288 third-grade L1 students in

the US regarding their self-concept as readers and value placed on reading. While there was no statistically significant gender difference for self-concept, the authors found that girls placed more value on reading than boys. Pitcher et al. (2007) and Kelley and Decker (2009) also found significant gender differences among adolescent L1 learners. In both studies, female adolescents value reading more highly than male students. More recently, Griffin et al. (2020) examined the reading motivation of multilingual Latinx adolescents using an adapted and translated version of the Adolescent Motivation to Read Profile (AMRP, Pitcher et al., 2007). In their study, they reported that female students demonstrated higher scores on items related to the value of reading compared to male students. In contrast, Sturtevant and Kim (2009) examined the differences between male and female middle school MLs on valuing reading and found no statistical difference.

Grade Level

In terms of grade differences in instrumental motivation, there are also mixed findings reported with research on native English-speaking students. Kelley and Decker (2009) reported that students' value for reading decreased as students progressed through middle school. Meanwhile, Pitcher et al. (2007) found that female adolescents' value of reading increased as they became older but the value male students placed on reading decreased.

Immigration Background

There is paucity of educational research regarding how ML's immigrant backgrounds are related to their reading motivation (e.g., Castillo, 2020; Villiger et al., 2014). Generally, immigration backgrounds indicate where students and their parents were born (place of birth). When both parents and students were born outside of the United States, then students are categorized as first-generation. When the parents were born outside of the U.S., but the students were born in the U.S., then the students are labeled as second-generation (Karthick-Ramakrishnan, 2004). Castillo (2020) analyzed the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study Kindergarten Class (ECLS-K) dataset and reported there was no significant difference for reading motivation among students with different immigrant backgrounds. Although reading motivation was measured with eight items as a single construct, and therefore, it was unclear how values of reading accounted for the reading motivation construct, she explained the finding might be partially due to immigrant parents' tendency to emphasize non-cognitive aspects of learning including motivation and social skills.

In sum, instrumental motivation is a construct which has been found to be significant to reading, both in monolingual and language learning contexts. While those who recognized the practical advantages of reading in English were more

likely to be motivated to read English texts, other factors such as learners' proficiency (sometimes indicated by grade level), gender, and immigration status can influence learners' instrumental motivation. Given the varied influences, we anticipate that 1) older MLs have less instrumental motivation than younger MLs; 2) girls have higher instrumental motivation than boys; and 3) MLs harbor as strong of instrumental motivation as native English-speaking students.

Integrative Motivation

In contrast to instrumental motivation, individuals who are integratively motivated (1) want to learn about the culture or group who speak the target language; and (2) want to assimilate themselves with those who are part of the target language culture (Dörnyei, 2003; Gardner, 2019; Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Integrative motivation, thus, can range from simply respect for the cultural group who speaks the target language to a complete willingness and desire to identify oneself with the new target culture. If applied to reading motivation, MLs who are integratively motivated may want to read in English to learn more about their new culture or because it would be a way for them to interact and assimilate with their native English-speaking peers.

Research has found that integrative motivation is highly context dependent. In English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts where learners sometimes have no interaction with native English speakers, integrative motivation may be insignificant for reading (Mori, 2002). For instance, Mori (2002) found that integrative motivation does not affect the reading motivation of Japanese students because they did not have a chance or a reason to integrate themselves with English speakers or with the English-speaking culture. Similarly, Mikami (2016) found that Japanese college students cited more instrumental reasons for reading in English rather than integrative reasons.

Immigration Background

Different from the EFL context, English learners in the ESL context such as the U.S. have the constant need to interact with native English speakers inside and outside school. At school, MLs have the opportunity to collaborate with or engage in conversations around texts with their native speaking peers (Protacio, 2012, 2019). Integrative motivation such as becoming acculturated into the mainstream culture outside school and wanting to “fit in” to their new school and with their classmates can also be a main factor in motivating MLs to read more in English (Protacio, 2019; Protacio & Jang, 2016). While intuitively MLs who were born in the United States may not need integrative motivation, studies have revealed that many U.S.-born MLs are socially and linguistically isolated in school and home due to increased segregation in U.S. society (Berry et al., 2006; McCarthy, 1998). Therefore, integrative motivation may still be an important factor in their

motivation to read despite their being born in the country.

Grade Level

Also, it is assumed that the longer the MLs are in the country, they become more integrated with the host society, and therefore, their integrative motivation will likely decrease over time as they move to higher grades. However, previous research has revealed very divergent paths of immigrant youth adaptation and integration into the host society (e.g., Berry et al., 2006). According to Berry et al. (2006), immigrant youth largely develop four distinct profiles of adaptation: (1) those who show a clear orientation toward their own ethnic group, with high ethnic identity, ethnic language proficiency and usage, and ethnic peer contacts; (2) those who show a strong orientation toward the society in which they were living; (3) those who indicate relatively high involvement in both their ethnic and national cultures; and (4) those who have high proficiency in, and usage of, the ethnic language, but low ethnic identity, coupled with low proficiency in the target language, and low national identity and national peer contacts. These different adaptation profiles suggest that learners' integrative motivation in reading may or may not be related to their immigration status but the profile of adaptation they are developing.

Gender

Further, research has indicated gendered patterns of acculturation among immigrant boys and girls (Lee, 2010). A study of Asian families' social integration revealed that while immigrant boys are encouraged to become more integrated into the host society and culture, girls are also encouraged to maintain close association with their ethnic culture (Li, 2008).

In sum, the literature on integrative motivation in relation to reading is ripe for exploration in the U.S. Given the findings on the different profiles of immigrant children's adaptation, integrative motivation has the potential to be a factor which educators can draw upon to motivate MLs to read in English; however, more empirical evidence is needed to explore whether or not this is a relevant motivational construct to MLs' overall reading motivation.

Social Motivation

Peer or others' social influence has been cited as one of most important factors that affect children's reading practices (Ivey & Johnston, 2013). The general idea around social motivation in reading is that individuals will be more motivated to read because of other individuals in their contexts. These individuals can range from peers (Ivey & Johnston, 2013; Protacio, 2019), to family members (Klauda, 2009; Sturtevant & Kim, 2009), to teachers (De Naeghel et al., 2014), and even adult pen pals (Gambrell et al., 2011).

Numerous studies on native English-speaking students' reading motivation have found peer discussions to be significant in motivating them to read. For instance, in a study of 71 eighth graders, Ivey and Johnston (2013) found these students became highly engaged readers in their English classroom when they were given choice and allowed to participate in discussions around self-selected texts. Many students reported becoming avid readers when they interacted with their peers reading these interesting texts. Ivey and Johnston (2015) then described how four eighth-grade teachers created communities of engaged readers in their classrooms in which students helped each other pick out books, discussed the books they read, and provided book recommendations to one another. Their study suggested, "that engaged reading is an agentive transformative practice in which individuals are fully engaged with others, both characters in books and those with whom they interact around those books" (Ivey & Johnston, 2015, p. 321).

In addition to peer influences, studies have shown that for MLs, family members play an important role in encouraging them to read in English (Arzubiaga et al., 2002; Protacio, 2012; Rueda et al., 2001; Sturtevant & Kim, 2009). For instance, middle school MLs who were interviewed in Sturtevant and Kim's (2009) study stated they were explicitly encouraged by family members to study well and to read. Families could also influence MLs' motivation by engaging in cultural and literacy activities in the home, regardless of the language that is being used. Students whose families engaged in home literacy activities placed a higher value on reading compared to those whose families did not (Arzubiaga et al., 2002; Rueda et al., 2002). As another example, Loera and his colleagues (2011) found through survey research that parental involvement in reading (e.g. listening to children read, reading to children, giving children choices about reading materials) was linked to higher reading motivation for MLs.

Gender, Grade Level, and Immigration Background

One of the more frequently utilized reading motivation instruments, the Motivation to Read Questionnaire (MRQ, Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997), theorized social motivation as one of the 11 sub-scales of reading motivation and empirically validated the factor structure. Later, when Watkins and Coffey (2004) tested the factor structure with a larger and more diverse sample, social motivation factor was proved valid as one of the reduced eight factors of MRQ. Some studies used social motivation as part of MRQ and reported correlations between the social motivation scale and gender and grade. For example, Wang and Guthrie (2004) reported positive correlation between gender and social motivation for Chinese and U.S. children. Their study found that both Chinese and American girls have stronger social motivation than boys. Unrau and Schlackman (2006) also found a significant positive effect of gender on social

motivation for Spanish-speaking adolescents, which indicates that Spanish-speaking girls are more social than boys. However, their study did not reveal any significant influence of grade level on social motivation. Furthermore, no direct correlation between gender or grade level and social motivation was observed among the Asian adolescent group in their research (Unrau & Schlackman, 2006).

Given that female and male MLs have different acculturation and socialization patterns, it is not clear how these gendered differences are reflected in their motivation to read in English. It is also not clear whether their social motivation changes as MLs move to higher grades and with increased English proficiency. Similarly, it is not clear whether social motivation differs between MLs born within the United States compared to those born outside of the country. This study addresses these gaps in research.

Additional Factors Influencing ML's Reading Motivation: Beyond Gender, Grade, and Immigrant Status

While our study primarily focused on gender, grade, and immigrant status as key influencers of ML's reading motivation, it is important to recognize that other factors, such as English proficiency, volume of reading, vocabulary acquisition, and parental support, may also play significant roles. English proficiency, for instance, is often considered a significant factor that both contributes to and results from students' reading motivation. Lin, Wong, and McBride-Chang (2012) highlighted a noteworthy correlation between instrumental motivation and the ability to comprehend readings among second language learners. On the other hand, Han (2021) reported an absence of a significant relationship between instrumental motivation and English proficiency, a finding echoed by Takase (2007), where a similar lack of significance was observed. These discrepancies suggest a complex relationship between reading motivation and language proficiency, indicating the need for further investigation into the various elements that influence reading motivation in multilingual learners.

Methods

Participants

The sample for this research included 132 MLs in fourth-to-sixth grades from six schools in a Midwestern state. Because the survey was conducted in a state with a low density of MLs, multiple schools were contacted to administer the survey. Of these schools where permission was granted to administer the survey, five were public schools while one was a parochial school. The five public schools were in suburban settings while the parochial school was in an urban setting. Of the five public schools, three of them had a free and reduced lunch population of less than 30% while one of the schools had a population of 38% and the other, 66%.

Purposive sampling was utilized in this study. Fourth, fifth, and sixth-

grade MLs were chosen because these grades are especially crucial points in which students' motivation to read have been documented to decline sharply (e.g. McKenna et al., 1995; Parsons et al., 2018). In terms of demographics, 45% of the sample was male. Forty-three percent were in the fourth grade, 44% in fifth grade, and 13% in sixth grade (see Table 1). Thirty-eight percent of the students were foreign-born, first-generation immigrants while the remaining 62% were U.S. – born second generation immigrants. In terms of students' native languages, 39.3% of the students spoke Arabic/Chaldean, 20% of students spoke Spanish, and another 20% spoke Japanese. Ten other languages (e.g., Urdu, Mandarin, Russian) were also represented.

Table 1
Participant Demographic Information

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Grade levels		
Fourth	57	43.2
Fifth	58	43.9
Sixth	17	12.9
Gender		
Female	72	54.5
Male	60	45.5
Languages spoken		
Arabic/Chaldean	52	39.3
Spanish	27	20.5
Japanese	27	20.5
Indian	4	3
Vietnamese	3	2.3
Other (e.g., Albanian, Urdu, Mandarin, Russian)	19	14.4
Birthplace		
Born in US	82	62.1
Born in outside of US	50	37.9
English oral proficiency		
Very fluent	86	65.2
Somewhat fluent	31	23.5
Not so fluent	15	11.4

When asked to rate their proficiency to speak in English, 65% indicated they were very fluent, 24% indicated they were somewhat fluent, and 11% indicated they were not so fluent. Meanwhile, 58% indicated they were very fluent in their ability to speak their native language while 24% and 18% indicated they were somewhat and not so fluent in speaking their native language. Eighty-two percent of non-US born MLs could read in their native language compared to only 54% of MLs born in the U.S.

Design and Instrument

The survey instrument included two parts: 1) demographic questions about the students as well as self-evaluation questions on students' abilities to read and speak in their native language and English, and 2) a reading motivation survey using Likert scale questions. The reading motivation survey reflecting the three-factor model was developed by drawing on several established motivation instruments such as the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997) and the Motivation to Read Profile-Revised (Malloy et al., 2013), particularly for the items addressing social motivation. Items pertaining to integrative and instrumental motivation were created by the first author and underwent expert review.

There were a total of 17 items for this survey (see Table 2). A total of 11 items addressed instrumental (five items) and integrative motivation (six items). An example of an integrative motivation item is "I like to read in English in order to better understand American culture." An example of an instrumental item is "I like to read in English so I can understand the concepts my teacher discusses." An additional six items addressed social motivation (3 addressed family influence; 2 focused on peers' influence; 1 addressed teacher influenced). An example of an item focused on social motivation is "I talk to my friends about what I am reading." The instrument used a five-point Likert scale which provided statements with which students indicated their level of agreement, ranging from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5).

Table 2
Items by Source and Construct

Target Construct	Items	Source	Items Retained
Integrative	1. I want to read in English because it will help me become more American.		O
	2. I like to read in English so that I can learn to be more American.		O

	3. I can learn about American culture through reading.	O
	4. I started to like reading only when I came to the United States.	X
	5. I like to read so that I can relate to my American classmates.	O
	6. Being a good reader is important in my culture.	O
Instrumental	7. I read to learn new information about topics that interest me.	O
	8. I read so that I can get higher grades.	O
	9. I like to read so I am able to easier understand concepts that my teacher discusses	O
	10. I want to be a better reader in English so I can be a better student.	O
	11. I like to read about new things so that I can learn more.	O
Social	12. My parents ask me about my grades.	X
	13. I visit the library often with my family.	O
	14. My friends and I like to trade books and other materials.	O
	15. I talk to my friends about what I am reading.	O
	16. If the teacher discusses something interesting, I might read more about it.	O
	17. I like to tell my family about what I am reading.	O

Data Analysis

Descriptive Analyses

The quantitative data were analyzed using multiple statistical methods. Prior to the data analysis, frequencies for all the items were run to ensure that no data-entry errors occurred. The missing data were identified as missing at random and dealt with by Expectation-Maximization imputation. A measure of internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) was computed to determine the reliability of each subscale and of the overall survey. The descriptive analysis also helped understand the status of the MLs' overall reading motivation.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using the Mplus program (Ver 7.0, Muthen & Muthen, 2010). CFA was conducted to examine whether the three-factor model fits into the 16 reading motivation items. The three-factor

hypothesized model based on the language learning literature (Dörnyei, 2003; Gardner, 2019; Gardner & Lambert, 1972) assumed the motivation items were influenced by each of the three underlying factors: social, instrumental, and integrative motivation. We evaluated the three-factor model based on three main indices: root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), and standardized root mean residual (SRMR). We adopted the evaluation criteria for accepting a model recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999): 1) CFI is greater than .90, 2) SRMR is less than or equal to .10, or 3) RMSEA is less than or equal to .06.

Multivariate Analysis

After the three-factor model was confirmed, multivariate analyses were conducted to understand the dynamic interaction between the individual characteristics of gender, immigration status, and grade level and the three primary dependent variables of interest in this study (instrumental, integrative, and social motivation). An independent t-test was conducted using composite scores of the three motivation factors to conduct a group comparison across grade levels, between the two gender groups, and between first and second generation MLs.

Results

Based on descriptive statistics, the majority of the MLs in the study are motivated to read in English. Sixty-eight percent of the sample indicated they liked to read in English while six percent indicated they did not. The remaining 26% said they “sometimes” enjoyed reading in English. In contrast, only 32% indicated they enjoyed reading in their native language while 39% indicated they did not. Meanwhile, 29% indicated they “sometimes” liked to read in their native language.

We computed descriptive statistics for all three subscales of reading motivation and provided the results in Table 3. Paired samples t-tests showed the mean of instrumental motivation ($M=3.91$, $SD=.86$) was significantly higher than social motivation ($M=3.36$, $SD=.88$; $t=8.61$, $p<.001$) and integrative motivation ($M=3.26$, $SD=.99$; $t=8.77$, $p<.001$).

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics

Constructs	Grade Level	Gender	Immigrant Status	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Integrative	4	Male	Born in US	16.00	4.02	14
			Not born in US	21.00	3.38	8
			Total	17.82	4.46	22
		Female	Born in US	17.54	4.12	28
			Not born in US	19.57	3.41	7
			Total	17.95	4.03	35

		Total	Born in US	17.03	4.10	42
			Not born in US	20.33	3.35	15
			Total	17.90	4.16	57
	5	Male	Born in US	17.40	5.05	15
			Not born in US	18.67	5.31	15
			Total	18.03	5.14	30
		Female	Born in US	13.14	4.82	21
			Not born in US	18.57	4.39	7
			Total	14.50	5.22	28
		Total	Born in US	14.92	5.29	36
			Not born in US	18.64	4.93	22
			Total	16.33	5.43	58
	6	Male	Not born in US	17.75	4.53	8
			Total	17.75	4.53	8
		Female	Born in US	13.07	4.04	4
			Not born in US	14.80	6.53	5
			Total	14.03	5.32	9
		Total	Born in US	13.07	4.04	4
			Not born in US	16.62	5.33	13
			Total	15.78	5.17	17
	Total	Male	Born in US	16.72	4.56	29
			Not born in US	19.03	4.71	31
			Total	17.92	4.74	60
		Female	Born in US	15.46	4.86	53
			Not born in US	17.95	4.87	19
			Total	16.12	4.95	72
		Total	Born in US	15.91	4.77	82
			Not born in US	18.62	4.75	50
			Total	16.93	4.92	132
Instrumental	4	Male	Born in US	18.64	3.37	14
			Not born in US	22.00	2.45	8
			Total	19.86	3.43	22
		Female	Born in US	19.80	4.11	28
			Not born in US	20.43	2.99	7
			Total	19.92	3.88	35
		Total	Born in US	19.41	3.88	42
			Not born in US	21.27	2.74	15
			Total	19.90	3.68	57
	5	Male	Born in US	18.47	4.63	15
			Not born in US	19.62	4.87	15
			Total	19.04	4.71	30
		Female	Born in US	19.52	4.34	21
			Not born in US	20.29	3.90	7
			Total	19.71	4.18	28
		Total	Born in US	19.08	4.43	36
			Not born in US	19.83	4.50	22

			Total	19.37	4.43	58
	6	Male	Not born in US	17.00	6.93	8
			Total	17.00	6.93	8
		Female	Born in US	21.50	0.58	4
			Not born in US	19.60	5.27	5
			Total	20.44	3.88	9
		Total	Born in US	21.50	0.58	4
			Not born in US	18.00	6.25	13
			Total	18.82	5.63	17
	Total	Male	Born in US	18.55	4.00	29
			Not born in US	19.56	5.20	31
			Total	19.07	4.65	60
		Female	Born in US	19.82	4.04	53
			Not born in US	20.16	3.79	19
			Total	19.91	3.95	72
		Total	Born in US	19.37	4.05	82
			Not born in US	19.79	4.68	50
			Total	19.53	4.28	132
Social	4	Male	Born in US	16.50	3.30	14
			Not born in US	17.50	4.41	8
			Total	16.86	3.67	22
		Female	Born in US	18.02	3.97	28
			Not born in US	18.57	3.51	7
			Total	18.13	3.84	35
		Total	Born in US	17.51	3.79	42
			Not born in US	18.00	3.91	15
			Total	17.64	3.79	57
	5	Male	Born in US	15.07	4.45	15
			Not born in US	15.18	4.76	15
			Total	15.13	4.53	30
		Female	Born in US	17.38	3.68	21
			Not born in US	18.57	5.50	7
			Total	17.68	4.13	28
		Total	Born in US	16.42	4.12	36
			Not born in US	16.26	5.14	22
			Total	16.36	4.49	58
	6	Male	Not born in US	14.63	5.68	8
			Total	14.63	5.68	8
		Female	Born in US	16.50	4.93	4
			Not born in US	16.20	6.38	5
			Total	16.33	5.43	9
		Total	Born in US	16.50	4.93	4
			Not born in US	15.23	5.75	13
			Total	15.53	5.44	17
	Total	Male	Born in US	15.76	3.93	29
			Not born in US	15.64	4.89	31

	Total	15.70	4.42	60
Female	Born in US	17.65	3.87	53
	Not born in US	17.95	4.94	19
	Total	17.73	4.15	72
Total	Born in US	16.98	3.98	82
	Not born in US	16.52	4.99	50
	Total	16.80	4.38	132

Correlation Coefficients

Correlation coefficients among the three resulting subscales (see Table 4) showed that there was a moderate to strong relationship between instrumental and social motivation ($r=.656$). These findings suggest that social aspects of reading motivation play an important role in shaping the value MLs place on reading. Another moderate to strong correlation was identified between integrative and instrumental motivation ($r=.63$).

Table 4
Correlation Coefficients

	1	2	3
1. Integrative		.63**	.50**
2. Instrumental			.65**
3. Social			

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Internal Consistency

Cronbach's alphas were computed and presented in Table 5 as measures of internal consistency of the five motivational factors. Sufficient reliability is evident in the moderate to high coefficients (α 's = .70-81). McDonald ω for the entire instrument was .89.

Table 5
Internal Consistency Coefficients: Cronbach's α s

	<i>Number of Items</i>	<i>Minimum</i>
Integrative Motivation	5	.82

Instrumental Motivation	5	.81
Social Motivation	5	.70
Valid N (listwise)	15	.89

Testing the Three-Factor Model

To further analyze the data, we tested the proposed three-factor model to examine a potential measurement model to assess MLs' reading motivation. The three-factor model was supported both theoretically and empirically by the literature on language learning motivation (e.g., Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010; Gardner, 2019). Chi-square difference tests and all-fit indices indicated the three-factor model (see Figure 2, $\chi^2 = 209.479$, $df = 116$, $p < 0.01$; SRMR = 0.065; RMSEA = 0.078; CFI = 0.880) is a tentatively valid measurement model.

Although both the SRMR and RMSEA estimates were acceptable, the CFI of the three-factor model was still not in acceptable range (greater than .90), which indicated it did not fully fit the data. As a result, a revised and final model was created based on the proposed factor structure with multiple indicators of items. The following two items with factor-loading under .49 were removed in the revised model:

Q4 (integrative): I started to like reading only when I came to the United States.

Q12 (social): My parents ask me about my grades.

All the fit indices were improved as shown in Table 5. To refine the revised model, using the modification indexes, we allowed correlated residuals between Q1 ("I want to read in English because it will help me become more American.") and Q2 ("I like to read in English so that I can learn to be more American."). This adjustment highlights the strong relationship between the two items, reflecting what is often referred to as local dependence (Chen & Thissen, 1997). Rather than eliminating one of the items, we opted to retain both to capture the varied degrees of integrative motivation more effectively. All the fit indices of the final three-factor model indicated it is a valid theoretical model of reading motivation for MLs., CFI > .90 ($\chi^2 = 133.656$, $df = 86$, $p < 0.01$; SRMR = 0.056; RMSEA = 0.065; CFI = 0.931). This information is summarized and presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Model Comparison between the Base Model and the Revised Model

χ^2	df	SRMR Good: $\leq .05$	RMSEA Good: $\leq .06$	CFI Good: $\geq .96$
----------	------	--------------------------	---------------------------	-------------------------

			Acceptable: $\leq .08$	Acceptable: $\leq .08$	Acceptable: $\geq .90$
Base Model	209.479***	116	.065	.078	.880
Revised Model	153.644***	87	.062	.076	.904
Final Model	133.656***	86	.056	.065	.931

*** $p < .001$

Gender \times Grade \times Immigration Status Comparisons

The multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) test presents the multivariate tests of significance for the main effects of the between-groups variables, gender (male and female) and grade levels (4th, 5th, and 6th grades), and gender/grade interaction. For the gender effect (multivariate Pillai $F(5,124) = 8.178, p < .01$), the observed significance levels for the four multivariate tests were significant. However, both the grade level (multivariate Pillai $F(5,124) = .72, p = .71$) and the gender \times grade interaction (multivariate Pillai $F(5,124) = 1.82, p = .058$) effects were not significant. However, it is notable that the gender \times grade interaction effect was almost significant because the p value (.058) was slightly greater than the critical point (.05)

The univariate F tests showed there was a significant difference between males and females for integrative motivation, $M_{\text{male}} = 13.62, M_{\text{female}} = 12.05, F(1,132) = 3.938, p < .05$; social motivation, $M_{\text{male}} = 15.79, M_{\text{female}} = 17.91, F(1,132) = 7.377, p < .05$; and instrumental motivation, $M_{\text{male}} = 15.20, M_{\text{female}} = 16.01, F(1,132) = 1.784, p < .05$. These results indicate that female MLs may be more motivated because of social motivation and instrumental motivation while male MLs are more likely to be motivated by integrative motivation.

For the immigrant status, the independent t-test results showed a significant group difference for integrative motivation, $M_{\text{US Born}} = 15.38, M_{\text{US Not-Born}} = 17.76, t(130) = -2.74, p < .05$. In other words, first generation students seemed to have stronger integrative motivation to read than their second generation peers. This would make sense given that integrative motivation aims to address interactions with speakers of a target language or learning about a new culture. However, there was no identified effect on the other two motivation constructs (Instrumental: $M_{\text{US Born}} = 19.37, M_{\text{US Not-Born}} = 19.79, t(130) = -.54, p = .59$; Social: $M_{\text{US Born}} = 16.98, M_{\text{US Not-Born}} = 16.52, t(130) = .59, p = .55$).

Discussion

The results of this study suggest there are many factors which educators and researchers must consider when examining MLs' reading motivation, adding more evidence to the idea that reading motivation is multifaceted (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000), particularly with MLs (Komiyama, 2013; Taboada & McElvany,

2009). To our knowledge, this is one of the few studies which have examined MLs' reading motivation specifically. Our study provides data on constructs which may be more relevant to MLs' reading motivation.

The results of this study showed that instrumental motivation had the highest mean based on descriptive statistics. Items for this construct focused on the practical benefits and value of reading in English. These results suggest that MLs are aware of the benefits of reading in English, which aligns with findings from previous research (Castillo, 2020). For those who are unmotivated, perhaps making reading tasks and activities more relevant to their lives would be one way of tapping into students' instrumental motivation in order to increase MLs' motivation to read in English (Gambrell, 2011). In addition, educators working with MLs need to be clearer and more specific about how reading in English can be beneficial for them (Dörnyei, 2001b). It cannot be assumed that MLs will realize the benefits and practical advantages of reading in English. In order to best utilize the potential for instrumental motivation, these benefits must be shared and explicitly stated to MLs.

The findings also suggest that integrative motivation is a construct which can be addressed to motivate first-generation MLs, as evidenced by the results based on students' immigrant status. Thus, our study provides further evidence specifically about integrative motivation, particularly in a U.S. context. Studies have been conducted examining integrative motivation in relation to reading motivation in EFL contexts (e.g., Mori, 2002; Takase, 2007). The results of our study show that even when MLs are immersed in the English-speaking culture, other constructs, such as instrumental motivation, may influence MLs' overall reading motivation more so than integrative motivation. However, we also have to consider that a large part of the sample were MLs born in the U.S. When specifically examining the first-generation MLs, integrative motivation was significant as indicated in previous studies including Berry et al. (2006) and McCarthy (1998).

The results of this study also indicated statistically significant gender differences. Males were more likely to be motivated by integrative motivation while female MLs were more motivated by social and instrumental factors. These findings show that educators need to delve into these three constructs and use different motivational strategies as a way to motivate *all* students.

Finally, our data suggested the proposed three-factor model is a theoretically stable and applicable model. In the motivation research with native English speakers, these sociocultural aspects in reading motivation have been collectively understood as a single construct, social motivation without further distinction. However, this study identified the two different types of sociocultural factors (integrative and social motivation) make a unique contribution to assessing MLs' reading motivation. We believe the role of sociocultural context in ML's

motivation development cannot be understood and should not be represented using a single dimension or construct. Since reading practices involve complex and dynamic processes and contexts, it is necessary to examine MLs' reading motivation using a multifaceted tool which recognizes MLs' linguistic, social networks, and cultural contexts rather than relying on existing reading motivation assessments validated with native-English speakers (Griffin et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2023).

Limitations

The authors acknowledge some limitations to this study. First, the sample size of this study (N=132) is empirically acceptable based on the minimum sample size of 100 proposed by Bollen (1989), but the authors admit it is relatively small according to Nunnally's (1978) recommendation of 1:10 for the item-to-response ratio. Second, a large percentage of the sample were MLs born in the U.S. and thus, the results may vary if the MLs surveyed were those who immigrated to the U.S. Next, there is limited data on the school contexts and participants. Data for this study is based solely on what was collected in the survey. More in-depth analyses could have been conducted if additional participant information had been available, such as English proficiency levels determined by standardized language assessments. Fourth, the survey is based on students' self-reports which are subject to participants' bias (Fulmer & Frijters, 2009). Therefore, we cannot tell if student responses are accurate measures of their reading motivation. Finally, there is a possibility that social desirability influenced student responses consciously or unconsciously.

Conclusion

This study provides additional evidence into the factors which motivate MLs to read in English. The findings indicate that while social motivation, which is prominent in the general reading motivation literature, is pertinent to MLs' reading motivation, other constructs such as integrative motivation and instrumental motivation should be given attention. In fact, instrumental motivation was the construct which seemed to motivate MLs the most out of the constructs included in the survey. The results of this study indicates that educators and researchers cannot rely merely on the constructs in the reading motivation literature on native English-speaking students; other factors need to be considered in order to address and increase MLs' motivation to read English texts.

References

- Arzubiaga, A., Rueda, R., & Monzo, L. (2002). *Family matters related to the reading engagement of Latina/o children*. CIERA Report #1-015. Ann Arbor, MI: Center for the Improvement of Early Reading Achievement.
- Becker, M., McElvany, N., & Kortembruck, M. (2010). Intrinsic and extrinsic reading motivation as predictors of reading literacy: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 102*, 773–785.
- Berry, J.W., Phinney, J.S., Sam, D.L., & Vedder, P. (2006). Immigrant youth: Acculturation, identity, and adaptation. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 55*, 303-332.
- Bollen, K. A. (1989). *Structural equations with latent variables*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Butler, Y. G. (2007). Children's reading attitudes in L1 and F1. *Academic Exchange 11*(1), 183–187.
- Castillo, W. (2020). Do elementary students reading motivation levels differ by racial/ethnic and/or immigrant background? *Journal of Latinos and Education, 1-12*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15348431.2020.1805615>
- Chen, W. H., & Thissen, D. (1997). Local dependence indexes for item pairs using item response theory. *Journal of Educational and Behavioral Statistics, 22*(3), 265-289.
- De Naeghel, J., Valcke, M., De Meyer, I., Warlop, N., Van Braak, J., & Van Keer, H. (2014). The role of teacher behavior in adolescents' intrinsic reading motivation. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal, 27*(9), 1547-1565.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Understanding L2 motivation: On with the challenge. *Modern Language Journal, 78*, 515–523.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001). New themes and approaches in L2 motivation research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 21*, 43-59.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Introduction. *Language Learning, 53*(1), 1–2.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation* (2nd ed.). Harlow, UK: Longman.
- Eccles, J. S., & Wigfield, A. (2002). Motivational beliefs, values, and goals. *Annual Review of Psychology, 53*(1), 109–132.
- Eskey, D. E. (2005). Reading in a second language. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 563-579). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Flores, N., Kleyn, T., & Menken, K. (2015). Looking holistically in a climate of partiality: Identities of students labeled long-term English language

- learners. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, 14(2), 113–132.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2015.1019787>
- Fulmer, S.M., & Fritjers, J.C. (2009). A review of self-report and alternative approaches in the measurement of student motivation. *Educational Psychology Review*, 21(3), 219-246. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-009-9107-x>
- Gambrell, L. B. (1996). Creating classroom cultures that foster reading motivation. *The Reading Teacher*, 48, 662–673.
- Gambrell, L. B., Hughes, E., Calvert, W. L., Malloy, J. A., and Igo, B. (2011). The role of authentic tasks in elementary students' literacy motivation and critical thinking. *Elementary School Journal*, 112(2), 234-258.
- Gardner, R. C. (2010). *Motivation and second language acquisition: The socio-educational model*. New York, NY: Peter Long Publishing, Inc.
- Gardner, R. C. (2019). The socio-educational model of second language acquisition. In M. Lamb, K. Csizér, A. Henry, & S. Ryan (Eds.), *Palgrave Macmillan handbook of motivation for language learning* (pp. 21–38). Cham, Switzerland: Palgrave.
- Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Goldenberg, C. (2011). Reading instruction for English language learners. In Kamil M. L., Pearson P. D., Moje E. B., & Afflerbach P. P. (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. IV, pp. 684–710). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.
- Griffin, R. A., Farran, L. K., & Mindrila, D. (2020). Reading motivation in bi/multilingual Latinx adolescents: An exploratory structural equation model. *Reading Psychology*, 41(8), 856-892.
- Guthrie, J. T., Klauda, S. L., & Ho, A. N. (2013). Modeling the relationships among reading instruction, motivation, engagement, and achievement for adolescents. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 48, 9–26.
<http://doi.org/10.1002/rrq.035>
- Guthrie, J. T., & Wigfield, A. (2000). Engagement and motivation in reading. In M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Ed.), *Handbook of reading research, vol. III* (pp. 403-422). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Han, F. (2021). The relations between motivation, strategy use, frequency, and proficiency in foreign language reading: An investigation with university English language learners in China. *Sage Open*, 11(2), 21582440211008423.
- Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives, *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6(1), 1-55.

- Ivey, G., & Johnston, P. H. (2013). Engagement with young adult literature: Outcomes and processes. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 48(3), 255-275.
- Ivey, G., & Johnston, P. H. (2015). Engaged reading as a collaborative transformative practice. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 47(3), 297-327.
- Ives, S.T., Parsons, S.A., Parsons, A.W., Robertson, D.W., Daoud, N., Young, C., & Polk, L. (2020). Elementary students' motivation to read and genre preferences. *Reading Psychology*, 41, 660-679. <http://doi.org/10.1080/02702711.2020.1783143>
- Judge, P. B. (2011). Driven to read: Enthusiastic readers in Japanese high school's extensive reading program. *Reading in a Foreign Journal*, 23(2), 161-186.
- Karthick-Ramakrishnan, S. (2004). Second-generation immigrants? The "2.5 Generation" in the United States. *Social Science Quarterly*, 85(2), 380-399.
- Kelley, M. J., & Decker, E. O. (2009). The current state of motivation to read among middle school students. *Reading Psychology*, 30, 466-485. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02702710902733535>
- Klauda, S. L. (2009). The role of parents in adolescents' reading motivation and activity. *Educational Psychology Review*, 21, 325-363. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-009-9112-0>
- Komiyama, R. (2013). Factors underlying second language reading motivation of adult EAP students. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 25(2), 151-169.
- Li, G. (2011). The role of culture in literacy, learning, and teaching. In M.L. Kamil, P.D. Pearson, E.B. Moje, and P.P. Afflerbach (Eds.), *Handbook of Reading Research, Volume IV* (pp. 541-564). Routledge.
- Lin, D., Wong, K. K., & McBride-Chang, C. (2012). Reading motivation and reading comprehension in Chinese and English among bilingual students. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 25, 717-737.
- Loera, G., Rueda, R., & Nakamoto, J. (2011). The association between parental involvement in reading and schooling and children's reading engagement in Latino families. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 50, 133-155. <http://doi.org/10.1080/19388071003731554>
- Malloy, J. A., Marinak, B. A., Gambrell, L. B., & Mazzoni, S. A. (2013). Assessing motivation to read: The motivation to read profile - revised. *The Reading Teacher*, 67, 273-282.
- Marinak, B. A., & Gambrell, L. B. (2010). Reading motivation: Exploring the elementary gender gap. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 49, 129-141. <http://doi.org/10.1080/193880709902803795>
- Marinak, B. A., Malloy, J. B., Gambrell, L. B., & Mazzoni, S. A. (2015). Me and my reading profile: A tool for assessing early reading motivation. *The Reading Teacher*, 69, 51-62. <https://doi.org/10.1002/trtr.1362>

- Masgoret, A. M., & Gardner, R. C. (2003). Attitudes, motivation, and second language learning: A meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. *Language Learning*, 53(1), 167-210.
- McCarthy, K. (1998). Adaptation of immigrant children to the United States: A review of the literature. *Center for Research on Child Wellbeing: Working Paper*, 98(03), 1-61.
- McInerney, D. M., Walker, R. A., Liem, G. A. D. (2011). *Sociocultural theories of learning and motivation: Looking back, looking forward*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age.
- McKenna, M.C., Conradi, K., Lawrence, C., Jang, B.G., & Meyer, P. (2012). Reading attitudes of middle school students: Results of a U.S. survey. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 47, 283-306.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/rrq.021>
- McKenna, M. C., Kear, D. J., & Ellsworth, R. A. (1995). Children's attitudes toward reading: A national survey. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 30, 934-956.
- Mikami, A. (2017). Students' attitudes toward extensive reading in the Japanese EFL context. *TESOL Journal*, 8(2), 471-488.
- Mori, S. (2002). Redefining motivation to read in a foreign language. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 14(2), 91-110.
- Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. O. (2010). *Mplus: Statistical analysis with latent variables user's guide* (Version 6). Los Angeles, CA: Authors.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2022). *English Learners in Public Schools. Condition of Education*. U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from <https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator/cgf>.
- Neugebauer, S. R. (2014). Context-specific motivations to read for adolescent struggling readers: Does the motivation for reading questionnaire tell the full story? *Reading Psychology*, 35(2), 160–194.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02702711.2012.679171>
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Olsen, L. (2010). *Reparable harm: Fulfilling the unkempt promise of educational opportunities for California's long-term English learners*. Californians Together. Retrieved from <http://www.californianstogether.org/>
- Parsons, A. W., Parsons, S. A., Malloy, J. A., Gambrell, L. B., Marinak, B. A., Reutzell, D. R., ... & Fawson, P. C. (2018). Upper elementary students' motivation to read fiction and nonfiction. *The Elementary School Journal*, 118(3), 505-523.

- Pitcher, S. M., Albright, L. K., Delaney, C. J., Walker, N. T., Seunariningsingh, K., Mogge, S., ... Dunston, P. J. (2007). Assessing adolescents' motivation to read. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 50(5), 378–396.
- Proctor, C. P., Daley, S., Louick, R., Leider, C. M., & Gardner, G. L. (2014). How motivation and engagement predict reading comprehension among native English-speaking and English-learning middle school students with disabilities in a remedial reading curriculum. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 36, 76-83.
- Protacio, M. S. (2012). Reading motivation: A focus on English Learners. *The Reading Teacher*, 66, 69-77. doi: 10.1002/TRTR.01092
- Protacio, M.S. (2017). A case study exploring the reading engagement of middle grades English learners. *Research in Middle Level Education Online*, 40(3), 1-17, doi: 10.1080/19404476.2017.1280586
- Protacio, M.S. (2019). How positioning affects English learners' social interactions around reading. *Theory into Practice*, 58(3), 217-225.
- Protacio, M.S., & Jang, B.G. (2016). Teachers' perceptions about English learners' reading motivation. *Literacy Research: Theory, Method, and Practice*, 65(1), 166-181, doi: 10.1177/2381336916661532
- Robinson, J. P., & Lubienski, S. T. (2011). The development of gender achievement gaps in mathematics and reading during elementary and middle school: Examining direct cognitive assessments and teacher ratings. *American Educational Research Journal*, 48(2), 268-302.
- Rueda, R., MacGillivray, L., Monzo, L., & Arzubiaaga, A. (2001). *Engaged reading: A multilevel approach to considering sociocultural factors with diverse learners*. Ann Arbor, MI.
- Smith, S. A., Hadley, E., & García Plaza, E. (2023). What Motivates Multilingual Children and Youth to Read? A Systematic Review of the Research. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 1-20.
- Sturtevant, E. G., & Kim, G. S. (2009). Literacy motivation and school/non-school literacies among students enrolled in a middle-school ESOL program. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 49, 68–85. <http://doi.org/10.1080/19388070802716907>
- Taboada, A., & McElvany, N. (2009). Between the skill and will of extensive reading: L2 learners as engaged readers. In A. Cirocki (Ed.), *Extensive reading in English language teaching* (pp. 179–202). Warsaw, Poland: Polish Scientific Publishers.
- Takase, A. (2007). Japanese high school students' motivation for extensive L2 reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 19(1), 1–18.
- The Brown Center on Education Policy (2015). The Brown Center on Education Policy. (2015). The 2015 Brown Center report on American education: How well are American students learning? With sections on the gender

- gap in reading, effects of the common core, and student engagement. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Toste, J. R., Didion, L., Peng, P., Filderman, M. J., & McClelland, A. M. (2020). A meta-analytic review of the relations between motivation and reading achievement for K–12 students. *Review of Educational Research, 90*(3), 420-456.
- Unrau, N., & Schlackman, J. (2006). Motivation and its relationship with reading achievement in an urban middle school. *Journal of Educational Research, 100*, 81-101.
- Ushioda, E. (2019). Researching L2 motivation: Past, present, and future. In M. Lamb, K. Csizer, A. Henry, and S. Ryan's (Eds.), *The Palgrave Handbook of Motivation for Language Learning* (pp. 661-682). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Villiger, C., Wandeler, C., & Niggli, A. (2014). Explaining differences in reading motivation between immigrant and native students: The role of parental involvement. *International Journal of Educational Research, 64*, 12–25. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2013.10.004>
- Wang, J. H., & Guthrie, J.T. (2004). Modeling the effects of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, amount of reading, and past reading achievement on text comprehension between U.S. and Chinese students. *Reading Research Quarterly, 39*, 162–86, <https://doi.org/10.1598/RRQ.39.2.2>.
- Watkins, M. W., & Coffey, D. Y. (2004). Reading motivation: Multidimensional and interdeterminate. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 96*(1), 110–118.
- Wigfield, A., & Guthrie, J. T. (1997). Relations of children's motivation for reading to the amount and breadth of their reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 89*, 420-423.
- Wolters, C. A., Denton, C. A., York, M. J., & Francis, D. J. (2014). Adolescents' motivation for reading: Group differences and relation to standardized achievement. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal, 27*(3), 503-533.