1	An empirical assessment of how readers value text: an adaption of the willingness-to-
2	wait paradigm
3	
4	Amrita Bains¹
5	Carina Spaulding ²
6	Jessie Ricketts ¹
7	Saloni Krishnan ¹
8	
9	Department of Psychology, Royal Holloway, University of London, Egham Hill, Surrey
10	TW20 0EX, United Kingdom.
11	² The Reading Agency, Free Word Centre, 60 Farringdon Road, London, EC1R 3GA, United
12	Kingdom.
13	
14	
15	
16	Corresponding authors:
17	Amrita Bains <amrita.bains.2020@live.rhul.ac.uk></amrita.bains.2020@live.rhul.ac.uk>
18	Dr. Saloni Krishnan < <u>saloni.krishnan@rhul.ac.uk</u> >
19	
20	

21Abstract

22Print experience is critical for becoming a skilled reader and leisure reading is a major source 23of print experience. Therefore, it is important that we understand what motivates individuals 24to read in their leisure time. Existing questionnaires measuring reading motivation are trait-25based, generally involving self-reported ratings such as, "I enjoy reading." These do not 26capture the dynamic, moment-to-moment changes in motivation that could occur (e.g. due to 27the text, social context). In this study, we used a willingness-to-wait paradigm to quantify the 28subjective value participants assign to books, based on the principle that people only wait for 29items that they find rewarding. We asked 40 adult participants to read book synopses and rate 30how much they enjoyed each synopsis. We then assessed whether participants would wait to 31learn more information about the book, predicting that adults would only wait when they 32rated a book as enjoyable. Our findings supported this prediction, and additionally 33demonstrated that enjoyment ratings were associated with reading comprehension. A 34traditional reading motivation questionnaire was not a good predictor of waiting decisions or 35reading comprehension. This novel paradigm allows us to investigate the decisions people 36make about reading and opens future avenues for investigating the factors affecting their 37choices.

38

40An empirical assessment of how readers value text: an adaption of the willingness-to-41wait paradigm

42

43Reading has a large positive impact on learning and well-being^{1,2} and print experience is 44critical for becoming a skilled reader. Leisure reading is associated with large differences in 45print exposure. For example, the most avid readers (top percentile) read over 3 million words 46more than the least frequent readers (bottom percentile)². Indeed, high intrinsic motivation to 47read has been linked with larger vocabularies and better reading comprehension skills^{3,4,5,6,7,8,9}. 48Consequently, understanding how to motivate someone to read is important to educators and 49policy makers. Our existing measures tend to focus on children's overall motivation for 50reading, rather than trying to quantify the dynamic contextual factors that might influence an 51individual's motivation to read. In the present study, we use a novel experimental method to 52measure dynamic changes in reading enjoyment, demonstrating how this measure links to 53reading motivation and comprehension.

54

55Reading motivation is typically assessed through self-report questionnaires¹⁰. Such 56questionnaires rely heavily on people's memory of events and are prone to biases. An item on 57a popular reading test, the Progress in International Reading Literacy (PIRLs) questionnaire¹¹ 58is, "I enjoy reading". The use of such items means that motivation will be confounded with 59people's reading proficiency (better readers read more^{12,13}), as well as their self-concept of 60their reading proficiency. It is also unclear whether available questionnaires all tap the same 61construct, i.e., reading motivation. For instance, a review of sixteen available reading 62motivation questionnaires showed that different scales used vastly different terminology, and 63the subdivision of items into sub-constructs was not consistent across studies^{10,14}. However, 64and most importantly, these questionnaires only measure enjoyment at the trait level,

65inherently implying that an individual's motivation to read is an invariant construct that 66remains stable over time. This is very unlikely to be true. For instance, someone is more 67likely to read a text about a topic they enjoy, and less likely to do so when the text is 68perceived as dense or boring. They are more likely to read when they have easy access to 69books, and less likely to read if they must travel long distances to obtain them. These 70contextual factors could help us understand how we can improve motivation for reading.

71

72To capture dynamic changes in motivation, we first need to understand and define 73motivation. Berridge and colleagues have suggested that motivation involves at least three 74separable psychological components, "liking", "wanting", and "learning", which typically 75cohere. Liking is at the heart of motivation and refers to the hedonic impact of a 76stimulus^{15,16,17}. For example, the sensation of sweetness typically triggers positive facial 77reactions in human infants, non-human primates and rodents, and is considered likeable¹⁸. 78Liking can also be triggered by higher-order cognitive stimuli such as social stimuli ^{19,20} or 79music^{21,22} or text^{23,24,25}. Asking participants to subjectively rate their enjoyment of different 80stimuli to read could consequently offer a dynamic measure of motivation, as this would 81index the enjoyment or hedonic impact of different texts. In work conducted by Ripollés and 82colleagues, behavioural ratings of enjoyment during a word learning task offered a good 83index of intrinsic reward, showing convergence with activity in reward processing regions of 84the brain, as well as galvanic skin responses^{23,24,25}.

85

86Wanting indexes the process where reward cues become attractive enough to trigger goal-87directed actions to obtain the reward in question. To our knowledge, wanting has not been 88studied in the reading literature. However, it is only when someone "wants" a book that they 89would decide to buy it, or make the effort to go to the library to borrow it. To assess 90"wanting", we need to go beyond measuring simple "liking" of a stimulus and assess a 91participant's willingness to take on a cost to obtain it¹⁷. This allows us to understand if stimuli 92are not just liked, but desirable. In humans, monetary, temporal, or physical effort costs are 93typically used to assess the desirability or value of a presented stimulus^{16,26,27,28}, as rewards are 94discounted by the costs needed to obtain them. Kang and colleagues observed that when 95participants were in states of high intrinsic motivation (such as curiosity about an answer to a 96trivia question), they were more likely to spend one of their limited number of tokens to 97obtain the answer to the question²⁹. Participants are also more likely to wait for information 98when they are curious^{30,31}. These studies demonstrate that people are willing to take on a cost 99when they find information intrinsically rewarding. Willingness-to-wait designs work with 100children, as well as participants with poor reading ability^{25,32}. Here, we plan to assess if 101people are willing to take on temporal costs for reading, as this will provide us with an 102empirical index of wanting.

103

105and later learning, as postulated by Berridge^{15,16,17}. Kang and colleagues demonstrated that 106participants were more likely to remember answers to questions they were curious about, 107even 1-2 weeks post-test. This finding has been consistently replicated^{30,31,32}. Extrinsic reward 108is known to be associated with enhancements in long-term memory, as reward primes 109memory networks leading to improvements in long-term memory through dopamine release 110in the hippocampus^{18,42}. This work has suggested that intrinsic states of reward could have the 111same effect. In this vein, Ripolles and colleagues found words assigned high enjoyment 112ratings were remembered better than those with lower ratings and demonstrated that this was 113due to a strengthening of reward-memory links at the neural level^{23,24}. This link is important, 114as it suggests a close mechanistic link between motivation and reading, which would occur at

115the state level rather than the trait level. For instance, we might expect that information that is 116enjoyed would be remembered or comprehended better than information that is less 117enjoyable.

118

119In the present study, we used a willingness-to-wait design to validate whether participants' 120enjoyment ratings for a text were a good index of subjective value, and also assess if 121enjoyment was linked to comprehension of a text. In our task, participants encountered a 122variety of book synopses, sampled from multiple genres. We assessed if participants found 123items intrinsically valuable by investigating if they would wait for more information about 124the book (specifically, the book cover). This design allowed us to assess how enjoyment was 125associated with participants' decisions to take on temporal costs in an ecologically valid way. 126We then examined if enjoyment was associated with participant's comprehension of a text, 127predicting that book extracts that were enjoyable would be more likely to be remembered. 128We expected that higher enjoyment ratings would be associated with: (1) a greater likelihood 129of waiting for more information about a book; and (2) higher comprehension scores.

130

131Results

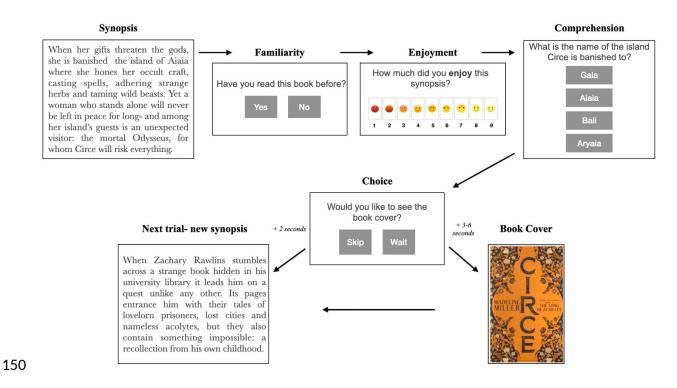
132Over the course of this experiment, 40 native English speakers aged 18-40 encountered forty 133book synopses to read. Once participants had read a synopsis, they were asked how much 134they enjoyed it, and had to answer two questions that assessed their comprehension of the 135synopsis. Finally, they were presented with a choice to see more about the book – they had to 136wait for an unspecified period of time if they wanted this information. If they waited, we 137showed participants the book's cover, which gave them much more detail (book title, author, 138genre) and would allow them to purchase the book at a later date. A wait time of between 3-6 139seconds was imposed on choosing 'yes', such that seeking this information about the book

140was associated with a temporal cost (see Figure 1 for a schematic of willingness-to-wait 141task). The financial compensation associated with taking part in the experiment was fixed, so 142we expected that participants would only choose to wait if they wanted to seek further 143information about the book – they obtained no financial reward from waiting.

144

145We excluded data from three participants who chose to wait for all the synopses, as we did 146not know if this reflected a misunderstanding of task instructions. We consequently retained 147data from 37 participants. We constructed linear mixed effects models to address the two key 148hypotheses.

149

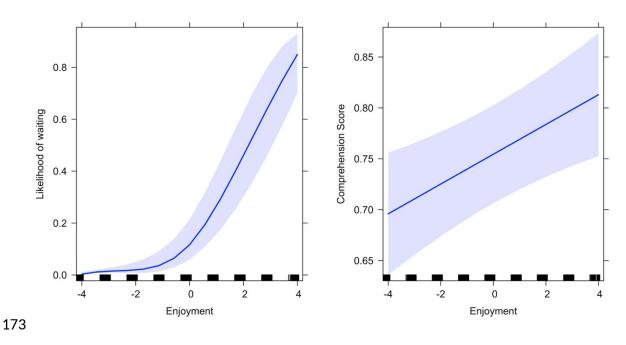


151*Figure 1.* The experimental paradigm. Participants encounter a synopsis. They are asked **152**whether they previously read the book and then to rate how much they enjoyed reading each **153**synopsis. Following this, they answered two comprehension questions about the text. Finally, **154**they were asked whether they would be willing to wait to see the associated book cover a **155**text. If they choose "*skip*" they would wait 2 seconds before starting the next trial. If they **156**choose "*wait*", they would wait between 3-6 seconds before seeing the book cover and **157**beginning the next trial.

159Hypothesis 1: Higher enjoyment ratings are associated with greater likelihood to wait 160We first assessed correlations between the number of decisions to wait across the experiment 161and: a) reading motivation scores from the Adult Reading Motivation Questionnaire, r=-.09, 162p = .6, b) accuracy scores from the sentence verification task; r=-0.06, p=.72, and c) the 163reading engagement questionnaire; r=.015, p=.72, to assess whether these needed to be 164accounted for in the main model. As these scores did not significantly correlate with the 165decision to wait, they were not included in the final model.

166

167A logistic mixed effects model was conducted with decision to wait as the dependent 168variable, enjoyment was modelled as a fixed and random effect (see Methods for further 169details about model construction). As predicted, participants were more likely to wait to learn 170more information about a book if they reported higher enjoyment ratings when reading the 171corresponding synopsis, β = 0.94, SE= 0.11, z= 8.73, p<0.001 (see Figure 2a).



174Figure 2. Participants were more likely to wait to see the book cover when they reported 175higher enjoyment, with the solid blue line indicates the influence of enjoyment on the 176probability of the decision to wait (a). Enjoyment was positively associated with

177comprehension accuracy. The solid blue line indicates the influence of enjoyment on the 178probability of having high accuracy on the comprehension questions (b). The shaded area 179around the solid line shows the 95% confidence interval. The black boxes on the x-axis 180indicate the number of observations at each level of the factor of enjoyment.

182Hypothesis 2: Enjoyment ratings are positively associated with comprehension scores.

183As before, we assessed the relationship between our key dependent variable, comprehension, 184and scores on the Adult Reading Motivation Questionnaire, sentence verification accuracy, 185and time spent reading, to assess if these needed to be included as factors in our models. 186Correlations between comprehension and Adult Reading Motivation Questionnaire (r = -1870.062, p = 0.72) and the reading engagement questionnaire (r = -0.17, p = 0.32) were not 188significant. As we anticipated, sentence verification scores and comprehension scores were 189significantly correlated (r = 0.36, p = 0.028). We therefore included reading proficiency 190(scores from the sentence verification task) as a fixed factor in our models, to account for 191individual participant-level differences in reading comprehension.

192

193We then conducted a linear mixed effects model with comprehension scores as the dependent 194variable, and enjoyment ratings and reading ability as fixed effects (see Methods for further 195details about model construction). We included random effects of item and participant. 196Comprehension was positively associated with enjoyment ratings, β = .015, SE= .005, t= 3.19, 197p=.001 (see Figure 2b), but not with reading ability (β = .003, SE= .002, t= 1.79, p =.08). 198Comparison of the full model with enjoyment and reading ability as fixed effects to a reduced 199model where enjoyment was removed found that the full model was a better fit to the data 200(X²(1)=10.11, p =0.001). This indicated that the association between comprehension scores 201and enjoyment ratings was significant even when accounting for reading ability.

202

205Discussion

206Previous studies have investigated reading motivation in children and adults using trait-based 207measures such as questionnaires^{10,11,14}. Our aim was to measure dynamic changes in 208enjoyment during reading, that is, exploring states of high intrinsic reward. To do so, we used 209a willingness-to-wait design allowing us to assess enjoyment or the hedonic impact of 40 210different texts. We also assessed how hedonism was related to "wanting", i.e., whether people 211would be willing to take on a temporal cost to receive further information, and whether it was 212related to learning from the text. We found that higher enjoyment scores were associated with 213the desire to learn more information about the associated book. We also observed a positive 214relationship between enjoyment and comprehension, which remained even when controlling 215for reading ability. This indicates we can measure dynamic changes in enjoyment, and that 216these dynamic changes appear to be indexed to meaningful aspects of reading. Somewhat 217surprisingly, we found that a trait-based measure of reading motivation did not have strong 218links to waiting decisions or comprehension. We discuss each of these issues in further detail 219below.

220

221Enjoyment predicts the likelihood of waiting for information

223likelihood of waiting for more information, demonstrating a link between "liking" and 224"wanting". This would additionally demonstrate validity of the "liking" ratings, mitigating 225against potential demand characteristics, as people would be unwilling to take on temporal 226costs for information, they did not consider valuable. Indeed, we demonstrated that higher 227enjoyment scores for a synopsis were associated with a greater likelihood to wait for more 228information about the associated book. This finding therefore fits with the literature

229suggesting that states of high intrinsic motivation for information are associated with a 230greater likelihood to take on temporal costs^{27,28,30}. While other work has demonstrated this 231phenomenon using construct like trivia questions, this is the first demonstration of this effect 232using book synopses. Crucially, this demonstrates states of high intrinsic motivation 233experienced during reading can affect the decisions people make about further reading.

234

235The fact that people were willing to take on temporal costs to learn more about books is 236important. There was no extrinsic value to seeking the information we provided, for instance, 237there was no test of book cover knowledge, and no monetary advantage. Participants were 238fully aware of the trial structure, having completed some practice trials at the start of the 239experiment. Indeed, as we offered fixed financial compensation, there was a financial 240disincentive for waiting (as participants would take longer to complete the experiment). Yet, 241we found that participants were willing to wait when they enjoyed the synopsis. This has 242important ramifications, suggesting that enjoyment of a text might lie at the heart of engaging 243in behaviours such as making the trip to a library, paying for a book, or choosing to spend 244time reading. Enjoyment may therefore be a fruitful target when designing reading 245interventions.

246

248scores reported on the Adult Reading Motivation Questionnaire and the decision to wait.
249Previous literature reports that motivation (particularly intrinsic motivation) is a predictor of
250reading behaviours and engagement^{7,34,35,36}. We consequently expected that high scores on the
251Adult Reading Motivation Questionnaire (reflecting a highly motivated reader) would predict
252the likelihood of waiting for more information about a book. Yet, individuals who self253identified as highly motivated readers were not more likely to wait to learn more information

254about a book than those with lower motivation scores. We did get a range of scores (33-92) 255from the Adult Reading Motivation Questionnaire, suggesting that the lack of a correlation 256was not driven by a lack of variation in our sample. These differences point to the need to 257whether constructs tapped by these questionnaires fit with real-world decisions, and how 258state-based measures relate to more common trait-based measures.

259

260Enjoyment during reading is associated with enhanced comprehension of a text

261We included comprehension questions after each passage for a number of reasons. First, we 262wanted to ensure that participants paid attention to the texts, rather than just skimming them. 263Second, their inclusion also allowed us to test the link between enjoyment and 264comprehension. Multiple studies have suggested reading motivation is positively linked to 265achievement^{7,38} and comprehension^{3,4,5,6,7,8,9}. However, recent cross-sectional genetic studies 266suggest that reading ability is predictive of reading enjoyment, rather than the other way 267around¹⁶. In contrast, longitudinal genetic studies have indicated there is a bidirectional link 268between reading proficiency and reading enjoyment, especially in older children^{38,39}. One 269issue with these studies is that they use a trait-based approach. They implicitly imply that the 270links between enjoyment and ability are stable. Yet, there are situations where a good reader 271might not enjoy reading (or vice versa). Here, we wanted to ask if states of enjoyment could 272predict learning within individuals. Previous studies have demonstrated this effect for trivia 273questions, wherein states of high curiosity are associated with better long-term 274learning^{23,24,25,30,31,39}. Neuroscience studies point to a close coupling of activity in reward 275processing regions of the brain and regions associated with learning and memory, such as the 276hippocampus, during high reward states^{25,40}. In our study, we find that enjoyment scores 277positively predict comprehension accuracy. Notably, this association between enjoyment and 278comprehension remains when controlling for individual reading proficiency, suggesting that 279this is not driven by people who enjoy texts being better readers. This points to a link 280between reward processing and learning systems during reading, suggesting boosting 281enjoyment during reading could lead to better learning. This might be an important finding 282for education, helping us design targeted intervention strategies focusing on reading 283enjoyment to promote positive reading behaviours.

284

285However, an important caveat is that it is not possible to establish the causality of this 286relationship from our study. Better comprehension of the text might produce greater 287enjoyment, rather than the other way around. This is somewhat unlikely given that we were 288testing proficient adult readers, but future studies which look to enhance state-based 289enjoyment could help reveal whether this method is effective in driving better 290comprehension. Additionally, we designed comprehension questions to be quite specific to 291each synopsis and they were presented after the synopsis. As such, they are likely to depend 292on memory, not merely reading comprehension. While our results still point to a role of 293enjoyment in learning from text, such effects may be memory-based. By presenting the 294synopsis alongside comprehension questions that require making an inference from the 295synopsis, we could disentangle memory and comprehension-based effects in future studies.

296

297State vs trait-based measures of reading motivation

298We have drawn a dichotomy between state- and trait-based approach to motivation. However, 299it is likely that the two are related, and that those with greater reading motivation are more 300likely to spend a greater proportion of time in a state of high intrinsic motivation. Studies 301focusing on trait-based motivation have helped establish links between individual motivation 302and reading skill^{3,4,8,9,37} and reading behaviours^{1,2,41}. In addition to this, we believe 303characterising states of high motivation for reading can help us understand how we can

304stimulate reading enjoyment. For instance, people's enjoyment of music can be enhanced 305through social influence^{19,20}. Choice is another factor that is purported to influence enjoyment 306and valuation of experiences^{42,43,44}. Could these factors affect reading enjoyment? What is 307their impact on future learning? It is extremely challenging to establish how these can 308influence reading enjoyment using trait-based measures. However, state-based measures 309easily lend themselves to such enquiry and can help us establish how these different factors 310affect reading enjoyment. Importantly, we can also assess the degree to which factors matter 311for each individual, through assessing interactions with reading ability. The development of 312this state-based measure will allow us tailor strategies and interventions to enhance reading 313enjoyment.

314

315Conclusion

316For the first time, we empirically assessed dynamic changes of enjoyment during reading. We 317found that higher levels of enjoyment are linked to greater engagement with the text in 318question, and improved comprehension of the text. These findings show the importance of 319reading for pleasure and suggest that targeting enjoyment during reading might boost the 320decision to read, as well as learning from reading.

321

322

323Methods

324Participants

325Determination of sample size

326We a ran power analysis using the SimR package⁴⁵ using data from a pilot study (n = 23). The 327pilot study employed a similar, but not an identical design to the current study. This analysis 328indicated that using an alpha of .05, a sample size of 20 would yield a power of 0.9. As this

329study employed four counterbalanced lists, we recruited 40 participants, assigning 10 330participants at random to each list.

331

332Participants

333We recruited 40 participants ($M_{age} = 31.10$ years, SD = 10.18, 29 females) using the Prolific 334platform, www.prolific.ac. Three participants were excluded from our analyses because they 335made the decision to wait on every trial. All participants were between the ages of 18 to 50 336years old. All participants were native English speakers with normal or corrected-to-normal 337vision and hearing. Participants were excluded if that had any known developmental 338disorders affecting learning (e.g. dyslexia), or any neurological disorders (e.g., epilepsy).

339

340Materials and procedure

341Participants provided informed consent and were invited to complete the experiment online 342with all tasks presented on Gorilla.sc, an online experiment platform⁴⁶. Access was restricted 343to participants using tablets and computers, to ensure that the text displayed correctly. 344Participants were informed that the study would last for 1 hour. Before beginning the 345experiment, all participants provided consent and completed a demographics form stating 346their age, gender, any known language disorders, developmental disorders, or any 347neurological disorders. Participants completed an adult reading motivation questionnaire 348(ARMQ), a reading engagement questionnaire. a sentence verification task, followed by the 349willingness-to-wait task. The methods were performed in accordance with relevant and 350guidelines by Royal Holloway, University of London Ethics Committee [ethical approval 351code: 2543-2021-02-05-17-21-PJJT001].

352

353Adult Reading Motivation Questionnaire

354The Adult Reading Motivation Questionnaire⁴⁷ was administered to obtain a measure of self-355reported motivation. This questionnaire provides an overall score for reading motivation, as 356well as scores for four factors contributing to reading motivation: reading efficacy, reading 357recognition, reading as a characteristic of self, and reading to do well in other realms. This 358questionnaire was selected as it is the only reading motivation questionnaire for adults that 359was easily accessible¹².

360

361Reading engagement questionnaire

362We developed a reading engagement questionnaire to measure how frequently participants 363read. We asked participants what they had read and how much time they spent reading one 364day prior to the experiment. They were given four options of 0 to 30 minutes, 30 minutes to 1 365hour, 1 hour to 2 hours or more than 2 hours. In a pilot study, we established that completing 366this questionnaire 3 times did not yield substantially different information. During analysis, 367the four options above were coded as 1, 2, 3, and 4. These levels were then correlated with an 368individual's likelihood to wait and comprehension scores.

369

370Sentence Verification Task

371To determine reading proficiency, we administered a sentence verification task³⁰. This task 372captures both reading comprehension and reading fluency. The task consisted of 80 373sentences. Each sentence stayed on the screen for three seconds, during which time 374participants were asked to decide whether the sentence was either true or false. The 375statements were simple sentences based on real world knowledge, for instance, "Grass is 376green". For each correct response, the participant was given 1 point, with 80 points being the 377maximum score. Participants had 90 seconds in total to read and verify all sentences.

379The willingness-to-wait task

380During the task, participants encountered forty synopses (see below for details on synopsis 381selection). Participants were allowed a maximum 1 minute to read each synopsis. Participants 382were also asked about whether they had read the presented book previously. They were then 383asked how much they enjoyed reading the item on a likert scale from 1 ("hated it") to 9 384("loved it"). To measure arousal, they were asked how tired they were on a scale of 1 ("very 385tired") to 9 ("not tired at all"). Subsequently they encountered two comprehension questions 386for the synopsis (see below for the development of questions), See Figure 1 for task 387schematic.

388

389Participants were then asked whether "they would like to know more about this book". 390During the task participants were provided with two response choices, either "skip" or 391"wait". They were instructed to select "Skip" if they were not interested in learning more 392information. Participants would then wait 2 seconds before moving on to the next trial. 393Participants were instructed to select "Wait" if they wanted to find out more about the book. 394Participants were told they would have to wait between 3-6 seconds before further 395information was revealed. The time delays for each item varied between 1s, 2s, 3s or 4s. 396Time delays were counterbalanced for each item across participants. For each book, the 397book-cover showing the author and title was displayed to the participants (see figure 1). 398Participants were told the entire task was expected to take 1 hour, and they would be paid a 399fixed amount (£5.10).

400

401Synopsis Selection

402Forty novel synopses were selected. Synopses were taken verbatim from a popular online 403book merchant (amazon.co.uk). Both fiction and non-fiction books were selected. Synopses

405number of accolades were avoided to maximise the likelihood that they were unfamiliar to 406participants. Then, we ensured that a variety of genres were represented. Then, these 407synopses were sampled further by their word count and reading ease. Synopses with a 408minimum word count of 60 and maximum word count of 200 were included in the final 409sample. Reading ease for each synopsis was measured using the Flesch Kincaid Grade level 410scores. A low reading ease score suggested a text was more difficult to read and a high 411reading ease score being an easier text to read. For instance, a score between 0 and 30 412suggested the text would be at a graduate reading level. Synopses with a minimum reading 413ease score of 7.5 and maximum reading ease score of 85 were included.

414

415Comprehension Questions

416All participants answered two questions to assess their comprehension of each synopsis. One 417question was literal; where the participant would be able to answer the question verbatim 418from the synopsis. The second was non-literal where the participant would have to make an 419inference from the synopsis to answer⁴⁸. All questions were multiple choice with four options 420giving a 25% chance of a correct response. Comprehension questions were piloted prior to 421the experiment (N = 20), and we ensured that no item was answered with more than 40% 422accuracy when read in isolation (i.e. the corresponding synopsis was no presented), and 423accuracy was more than 40% for all questions when presented after the synopsis (as done in 424the experimental task).

425

426Statistical Analyses

427All analyses were performed in R⁴⁹, with logistic regression models and mixed effects models 428created using the lme4 package⁵⁰. Plots were created using the effects package⁵¹.

429

430Before beginning the analysis, we removed any items where participants had stated they had 431read the book before, to ensure we measured responses from participants when they 432encountered novel items. We first ran correlations between the decision to wait/ 433comprehension and reading motivation scores from the Adult Reading Motivation 434Questionnaire, accuracy scores from the sentence verification task and time spent reading to 435assess if these needed to be included in the model. Any correlations where p<0.2 were 436included into the models.

437

438Hypothesis 1: Higher enjoyment ratings are associated with greater likelihood to wait 439A logistic regression model was created with the decision to wait as the dependent variable 440and reported enjoyment ratings as a fixed effect. To account for random variance by item 441(synopses) and participant we included these as random intercepts. To account for the random 442variance in the reported enjoyment ratings we included these as random slopes by item and 443participant. Enjoyment ratings were mean centred prior to inclusion in the model. 444Correlations between the decision to wait and reading motivation scores from the Adult 445Reading Motivation Questionnaire, accuracy scores from the sentence verification task and 446time spent reading all returned a p>0.2 therefore were not included in the final model. The 447best fitting model was a maximal fixed effects model which included random slopes of 448enjoyment:

449

450Wait_choice ~ 1 + enjoyment_centred + (1 + enjoyment_centred | ID) + (1 + 451enjoyment_centred | Item)

452

453Hypothesis 2: Enjoyment ratings are positively associated with comprehension scores.

454A mixed effects model was created with comprehension scores from the willingness-to-wait 455task being the dependent variable, enjoyment ratings and reading ability scores being the 456fixed effects. To account for random variance by item and participant we included these as 457random intercepts in the model. Enjoyment ratings were also centred prior to model fitting. 458Correlations between the decision to wait and reading motivation scores from the Adult 459Reading Motivation Questionnaire and time spent reading all returned a p>0.2 therefore were 460not included in the final model. However, as expected correlations between comprehension 461scores and accuracy scores from the sentence verification (measure of reading ability) 462returned a p<0.05 and therefore was included in the final model as a fixed effect. During 463model fitting, a maximal model with random slopes of enjoyment by participant and by item 464did not converge. Therefore a simple model with just fixed effects and random intercepts of 465participant and item was executed:

466

467 ComprehensionScore ~ 1 + enjoyment centered + Reading ability + (1 | ID) + (1 | Title)

468

469Data availability

470The data and analysis code are openly available at the Open Science Framework: 471https://osf.io/ftexh/

472

473Acknowledgements

474This work was funded by a ESRC PhD studentship to AB, SK and the Reading Agency 475(ES/P00072X/1/2429186). SK is also supported by an Academy of Medical Sciences/the 476Wellcome Trust/ the Government Department of Business, Energy and Industrial Strategy/the 477British Heart Foundation/Diabetes UK Springboard Award [SBF006\1031].

479Author Contributions

480Amrita Bains: conceptualisation, methodology, resources, analysis, writing- original draft.
481Saloni Krishnan: conceptualisation, methodology, resources, analysis, writing- review and
482editing, funding acquisition. Jessie Ricketts: conceptualisation, writing- review and editing.
483Carina Spaulding: conceptualisation, writing- review and editing.

484

485Competing interests

486The authors declare no competing interests.

487

488References

- 489 1. Cunningham, A. E., & Stanovich, K. E. (1997). Early reading acquisition and its relation to
- reading experience and ability 10 years later. Developmental Psychology, 33(6), 934–
- 491 945. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.33.6.934
- 492 2. Anderson, R. C., Wilson, P. T., & Fielding, L. G. (1988). Growth in Reading and How Children
- Spend Their Time Outside of School. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 23(3), 285–303.
- http://www.jstor.org/stable/748043
- 495 3. Anmarkrud, O., and Braten, I. (2009). Motivation for reading comprehension. *Learning and*
- 496 *Individual Differences*, 19, 252-256. doi:10.1016/j.lindif.2008.09.002
- 497 4. Cartwright, K. B., Marshall, T. R., & Wray, E. (2016). A longitudinal study of the role of
- reading motivation in primary students' reading comprehension: Implications for a less
- simple view of reading. *Reading Psychology*, 37(1), 55–91.
- 500 doi:10.1080/02702711.2014.991481
- 501 5. Law, Y. K. (2009). The role of attribution beliefs, motivation and strategy use in Chinese
- fifth-graders' reading comprehension. *Educational Research*, 51(1), 77–95.
- 503 doi:10.1080/00131880802704764

- 504 6. Mucherah, W., & Yoder, A. (2008). Motivation for reading and middle school students'
- performance on standardized testing in reading. *Reading Psychology*, 29(3), 214–235.
- 506 doi:10.1080/02702710801982159
- 7. Park, Y. (2011). How motivational constructs interact to predict elementary students' reading
- performance: Examples from attitudes and self-concept in reading. *Learning and Individual*
- 509 Differences, 21(4), 347–358. doi:10.1016/j. lindif.2011.02.009
- 8. Retelsdorf, J., K€oller, O., & M€oller, J. (2011). On the effects of motivation on reading
- performance growth in secondary school. *Learning and Instruction*, 21(4), 550–559.
- 512 doi:10.1016/j.learninstruc.2010.11.001
- 9. Wang, J., & Guthrie, J. (2004). Modelling 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. 162-186. doi: 10.1598/
- 516 RRQ.39.2.2.
- 517 10. Davis, M., Tonks, S., Hock, M., Wang, W., & Rodriguez, A. (2018). A review of reading
- motivation scales. *Reading Psychology*. 39(2), 121-187. doi:
- 519 10.1080/02702711.2017.1400482.
- 520 11. Mullis, I. V. S., & Martin, M. O. (Eds.). (2015). PIRLS 2016 Assessment Framework (2nd
- 521 ed.).
- 522 12. Van bergen, E., et al. 2018. Why do children read more? The influence of reading ability on
- voluntary reading practices. *The journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*. 59(11), 1205-
- 524 1214. doi:10.1111/jcpp.12910.
- 525 13. Van Bergen, E., et al. 2021. Literacy skills seem to fuel literacy enjoyment, rather than vice
- versa. https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/3kfgd
- 14. Conradi, K., Jang, B. G., & McKenna, M. C. (2014). Motivation terminology in reading
- research: A conceptual review. *Educational Psychology Review*, 26(1), 127–164. doi:
- 529 10.1007/s10648-013-9245-z-

- 15. Berridge, K. C., Robinson, T.E., & Aldridge, J.W. (2009). Dissecting components of reward:
- 'liking', 'wanting', and learning. Current opinion in pharmacology. 9(10), 65-73. Doi: https://
- 532 doi.org/10.1016/j.coph.2008.12.014
- 533 16. Berridge, K.C., & Kringelbach, M.L. (2008). Affective neuroscience of pleasure: rewaird in
- 534 humans and animals. *Psychopharmacology*. 199, 457-480. DOI: 10.1007/s00213-008-1099-6
- 17. Berridge, K. C., Robinson, T.E., & Aldridge, J.W. (2009). Dissecting components of reward:
- 'liking', 'wanting', and learning. Current opinion in pharmacology. 9(10), 65-73. Doi: https://
- 537 doi.org/10.1016/j.coph.2008.12.014
- 18. Peciña, S., Cagniard, B., Berridge, K.C., Aldridge, J.W., & Zhuang, X. (2003).
- Hyperdopaminergic mutant mice have higher "wanting" but not "liking" for sweet rewards.
- *Journal of Neuroscience*. 23, 9395–9402.
- 19. Berns, G.S., Capra, M., Moore, S., & Noussair, C. (2010). Neural mechanisms of influence of
- popularity on adolescent ratings of music. *Neuroimage*. 49(3), 1-24. DOI:
- 543 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2009.10.070
- 544 20. De Martino, B., Bobadilla-Suarez, S., Nouguchi, T., Shartot, T., & Love B.C. (2017). Social
- Information Is Integrated into Value and Confidence Judgments According to Its Reliability.
- *The journal of Neuroscience.* 37(25), 6066-6074. DOI:
- 547 <u>https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3880-16.2017</u>
- 548 21. Salimpoor, V.N., Van den Bosch, I., Kovacevic, N., McIntosh, A.R., Dagher, A., & Zatorre,
- R.J. (2013). Interactions Between the Nucleus Accumbens and Auditory Cortices Predict
- Music Reward Value. *Science*. 340(2169), 216-219. DOI: 10.1126/science.1231059
- 551 22. Mas-Herrero, E., Dagher, A., Farres-Franch, M., & Zatorre, R.J. (2021). Unraveling the
- Temporal Dynamics of Reward Signals in Music-Induced Pleasure with TMS. *The journal of*
- 553 Neuroscience. 41(17), 3889-3899. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0727-20.2020
- 23. Ripollés, P., Marco-Pallarés, J., Alicart, H., Tempelmann, C., Rodríguez-Fornells, A., &
- Noesselt, T. (2016). Intrinsic monitoring of learning success facilitates memory encoding via

- the activation of the SN/VTA Hippocampal loop. *ELife*, 5, e17441.
- 557 https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.17441.
- 558 24. Ripollés, P., Ferreri, L., Mas-Herrero, E., Alicart, H., Gómez-Andrés, A., Marco-Pallares, J.,
- Antonijoan, R. M., Noesselt, T., Valle, M., Riba, J., & Rodriguez-Fornells, A. (2018).
- Intrinsically regulated learning is modulated by synaptic dopamine signaling. *ELife*, 7,
- e38113. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.38113.
- 562 25. Bains, A., Barber, A., Nell, T., Ripollés, P., & Krishnan, S. (2020). Stage 1 Registered
- Report: The role of intrinsic reward in adolescent word learning. *Developmental Science*.
- 564 https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/HKN54
- 565 26. Becker G.M., DeGroot M.H, & Marschak J. 1964. Measuring utility by a single-response
- sequential method. *Behav Sci.* 9(3): 226–32. <u>doi:10.1002/bs.3830090304</u>
- 567 27. Frederick, S., Loewenstein, G., & O'Donoghue, T. (2002). Time Discounting and Time
- Preference: A Critical Review. *Journal of Economic Literature*. 40(2), 351–401.
- http://www.jstor.org/stable/2698382
- 570 28. Oudever, P.Y. Gottlieb J., & Lopes M. 2016. Intrinsic motivation, curiosity, and learning:
- 571 Theory and applications in educational technologies. *Prog Brain Res.* 229:257-284. doi:
- 572 10.1016/bs.pbr.2016.05.005.
- 573 29. Kang, M. J., Hsu, M., Krajbich, I. M., Loewenstein, G., McClure, S. M., Wang, J. T., &
- 574 Camerer, C. F. (2009). The wick in the candle of learning: Epistemic curiosity activates
- 575 reward circuitry and enhances memory. *Psychological Science*, 20, 963–973.
- 576 http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.2009.02402.x
- 577 30. Marvin, C., & Shohamy, D. (2016). Curiosity and Reward: Valence Predicts Choice and
- Information Prediction Errors Enhance Learning. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*.
- 579 145(3), 266-272. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/xge0000140
- 580 31. Garvin, B., & Krishnan, S. (2022). Curiosity-driven learning in adults with and without
- dyslexia. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 75(1), 156–
- 582 168. https://doi.org/10.1177/17470218211037474

- 583 32. Fandakova, Y., & Gruber, M.J. (2021). States of curiosity and interest enhance memory
- differently in adolescents and children. *Developmental Science*. 1-15. DOI:
- 585 10.1111/desc.13005
- 586 33. Witmann, B.C., Schott, B.H., Guderian, S., Frey, J.U., Heinze, H.J., & Duzel, E. (2005).
- Reward-related FMRI activation of dopaminergic midbrain is associated with enhanced
- hippocampus-dependent long-term memory formation. *Neuron.* 45(3), 459-467. DOI:
- 589 10.1016/j.neuron.2005.01.010
- 34. Schutte, N.S., & Malouff, J.M. (2007). Dimensions of reading motivation: development of an
- adult reading motivation scale. *Reading Psychology*. 5(28), 469-489. DOI:
- **592** 10.1080/02702710701568991
- 593 35. Guthrie, J. T., & Alvermann, D. E. (Eds.). (1999). Engaged reading: Processes, practices,
- *and policy implications*. Teachers College Press.
- 595 36. Guthrie, J. T., & Wigfield, A. (1997). Reading engagement: Motivating readers through
- *integrated instruction.* Order Department, International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale
- 597 Road, Newark, DE 19174-8159
- 598 37. Schiefele, U., Schaffner, E., Moller, J., Wigfield, A., Nolen, S. & Baker,
- L. (2012). Dimensions of reading motivation and their relations to reading behaviour and
- 600 competence. Reading Research Quarterly, 47(4), 427-463. Doi:
- 601 https://doi.org/10.1002/RRQ.030
- 38. Morgan, P. L., & Fuchs, D. (2007). Is There a Bidirectional Relationship between Children's
- Reading Skills and Reading Motivation? Exceptional Children, 73(2), 165–
- 604 183. https://doi.org/10.1177/001440290707300203
- 39. Malanchini M, Wang Z, Voronin I, Schenker VJ, Plomin R, Petrill SA, Kovas Y. Reading
- self-perceived ability, enjoyment and achievement: A genetically informative study of their
- reciprocal links over time. Dev Psychol. 2017 Apr;53(4):698-712. doi: 10.1037/dev0000209.

- 40. Gruber MJ, Gelman BD, Ranganath C. States of curiosity modulate hippocampus-dependent
- learning via the dopaminergic circuit. Neuron. 2014 Oct 22;84(2):486-96. doi:
- 610 10.1016/j.neuron.2014.08.060.
- 41. Clark, Christina & Teravainen-Goff, Anne. (2017). What it means to be a reader at age 11:
- valuing skills, affective components and behavioural processes.
- 42. Nanakdewa, K., Madan, S., Savani, K., & Markus, H.R. (2021). The salience of choice fuels
- independence: Implications for self-perception, cognition and behavior. *PNAS*. 118(30). DOI:
- 615 https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2021727118
- 43. Leotti, L. A., & Delgado, M. R. (2011). The Inherent Reward of Choice. Psychological
- 617 Science, 22(10), 1310–1318. https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797611417005
- 44. Kakoulidou, M., Le Cornu Knight, F., Filippi, R. et al. The Effects of Choice on the Reading
- 619 Comprehension and Enjoyment of Children with Severe Inattention and no Attentional
- Difficulties. Res Child Adolesc Psychopathol 49, 1403–1417 (2021).
- 621 <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s10802-021-00835-8</u>
- 45. Green P, MacLeod CJ (2016). "simr: an R package for power analysis of generalised linear
- mixed models by simulation." Methods in Ecology and Evolution, 7(4), 493–498.
- 624 doi: 10.1111/2041-210X.12504, https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=simr.
- 46. Anwyl-Irvine, A. L., Massonnié, J., Flitton, A., Kirkham, N., & Evershed, J. K. (2020).
- 626 Gorilla in our midst: An online behavioral experiment builder. *Behavior Research Methods*,
- 52(1), 388–407. https://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-019-01237-x
- 47. Schutte, N.S., & Malouff, J.M. (2007). Dimensions of reading motivation: development of an
- adult reading motivation scale. *Reading Psychology*. 5(28), 469-489. DOI:
- 630 10.1080/02702710701568991
- 48. Day, R.R., & Park, J.S. (2005). Developing reading comprehension questions. *Reading in a*
- 632 *Foreign language*. 1(17), 60-73.
- 49. R Core Team. (2020). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R
- Foundation for Statistical Computing. https://www.R-project.org/.

50. Bates, D., Mächler, M., Bolker, B., & Walker, S. (2014). Fitting Linear Mixed-Effects
Models using lme4.ArXiv:1406.5823 [Stat]. http://arxiv.org/abs/1406.5823
51. Fox, J., & Hong, J. (2009). Effect Displays in R for Multinomial and Proportional-Odds Logit
Models: Extensions to the effects Package. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 32(1), 1–24.
https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v032.i01
640
641