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“When pupils encounter a longer text, they often respond with *oh my god, do I need to read all of this?”*

A mixed method study exploring pupils' and teachers’ attitudes and motivations towards extensive reading.

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Abstract

In this thesis, we explore pupils' attitudes and motivations to read while gaining insight into the teacher's perspective on the current situation. Our thesis question is: *What attitudes do lower secondary school pupils and teachers in the context of the Norwegian educational system have towards extensive reading in the English classroom?*

Research was aimed at lower secondary school pupils and teachers, and data was collected in 2 separate classes. Both classes (n52) completed a questionnaire in which they assessed their attitudes and motivations to read. The questionnaire is based on a previously conducted study called *Motivation to read profile* (MRP). In addition, both classes' teachers were interviewed to gain insight into their current reading perspectives.

The results from the questionnaire suggest that pupils share some negative attitudes towards reading and that many are not motivated to read. 48.1% of pupils assessed themselves as not motivated to read. Furthermore, 69% reported that they thought reading was boring. These attitudes were reflected in their reported reading habits as well, with 60% answering that they either never read or only read a couple of times each month. Teachers also reported decreased interest towards reading, which the teachers attribute to increased digital media and screen time. The teachers were aware of the benefits of extensive reading but mentioned that it was hard to motivate their pupils to read voluntarily. Furthermore, the teachers stressed reader autonomy as crucial in motivating their pupils to read.

Sammendrag

I denne oppgaven utforsker vi elevenes holdninger og motivasjon til å lese samtidig som vi får innsikt i lærerens perspektiv på den aktuelle situasjonen. Problemstillingen vår er: *Hvilke holdninger har elever og lærere i den Norske ungdomsskolen mot extensive reading i det engelske klasserom?*

Forskningen vår var rettet mot ungdomsskoleelever og deres respektive lærere, og data ble samlet inn i 2 separate klasser. Begge klassene (n52) fylte ut et spørreskjema der de vurderte sine holdninger og motivasjoner for å lese. Spørreundersøkelsen er basert på en tidligere studie som heter *Motivation to read profile* (MRP). I tillegg ble lærerne i begge klassene intervjuet for å få innsikt i deres perspektiver på dagens lesesituasjon.

Resultatene fra spørreskjemaet indiker at mange elever deles samme negative holdninger til lesing og at mange elever ikke er motiverte for å lese. 48,1 % av elevene vurderte seg selv som ikke motiverte til å lese. Videre rapporterte 69 % at de syntes å lese var kjedelig. Disse holdningene gjenspeiles også i deres rapporterte lesevaner, der 60 % svarte at de enten aldri leser eller bare leser et par ganger hver måned. I intervjuene virket det som lærerne var klar over disse holdningene til lesing og nevnte at de så en redusert interesse for lesing, noe som ble tilskrevet økt skjermtid og større plass til digital media i hverdagen. Lærerne var klar over fordelene med «extensive reading», men nevnte at det var vanskelig å motivere elevene til å lese frivillig. Men de understreket autonomi over egen lesing som avgjørende for å motivere elevene til å lese.

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1 Introduction

The emergence of digital technology has challenged the traditional conceptualisation of reading – and this has put English language teaching at a crossroads. Through a primarily quantitative mixed-method design, our master's thesis aims to shed light on pupils' attitudes and motivations to read while gaining insight into the teacher's perspective on the same concept. We believe that this is an important area to research because we have both observed and experienced a negative trend in attitudes and motivations to read. Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) reveals that attitudes towards reading among Norwegian pupils have worsened since they first conducted their study on reading in 2000 (Roe, 2020, p. 107). Compared to the first study conducted in 2000, the report revealed that the number of pupils who reported not reading in their leisure time had increased from one-third to half of Norwegian pupils in 2018 (Roe, 2020, p. 107). Both Guthrie (2007) and Hayles (2007) suggest that this disengagement in reading among adolescents is partly due to the rapidly developing mediascape, describing a shift in cognitive modes. This trend is reflected in our title, a direct quote from one of our informants who asserted, "When pupils encounter a longer text, they often respond with *oh my god, do I need to read all of this?"* This regression in reading motivations is concerning because research points to reading motivation as a good predictor of academic success (Roe, 2020).

1.1 Background of the Study

Hayles (2007) describes a shift in cognitive modes from deep attention to hyper-attention. Deep attention, which has long been the standard in school, is often associated with traditional classroom activities, while hyper-attention signals a change to a need for higher levels of stimuli (Hayles, 2007). Activities such as reading are more aligned with deep attention due to the higher levels of attention that are required when reading. This shift in cognitive modes can be seen considering the regression in reading habits among Norwegian pupils as reported by Roe (2020, p. 107).

Guthrie (2007, p. 2) suggests that intrinsic motivation to read is a good predictor of academic success. He found that most pupils with above-average grades are motivated readers, while those with grade-average or below-average grades were demotivated readers. Guthrie (2007, p. 2) posits that pupils who read for intrinsic reasons read more and achieve more academic success than those who do not read. Those who solely read for extrinsic reasons do not read

as often or as deeply. Guthrie's (2007, p. 2) study found that "a substantial majority (69%) did not read for enjoyment".

Guthrie (2007, p. 4) suggests that this disengagement in reading among adolescents stems from a lack of parental support with the internet as a contributing factor. A troubling trend in attitudes towards reading and reading motivation further highlights the teacher's significant role and responsibility in creating reading engagement. Guthrie (2007, p. 6) states that "students report rarely reading outside of the textbook, seldom collaborating with other students to interpret books, and infrequently choosing a text, a book, or a reading selection for schoolwork". The reading instruction described by the students in Guthrie's (2007, p. 6) study aligns more with extrinsic motivation to read. If being intrinsically motivated to read is a good predictor of academic success, reading instruction should be tailored to promote reading for pleasure.

Gambrell et al.'s (1996, p. 532) study on reading motivation found that "motivation is an integral component of reading instruction." Gambrell et al. (1996) used Eccles's (1983) expectancy-value theory as the theoretical framework to describe the construct of reading motivation. Task value and self-perceived competence were seen as the two most prevalent mediators of motivation. Due to the influence of attitudes on these two mediators, Gambrell et al. (1996, p. 532) suggest that, like motivation, attitudes towards reading will also affect reading achievement.

1.2 Thesis and Research Questions

Based on our motivation and background, we want our master's thesis to investigate attitudes and motivations towards reading among lower secondary school students and whether the teacher's perspective influences their reading habits. Our thesis question is as follows:

What attitudes do lower secondary school pupils and teachers in the context of the Norwegian educational system have towards extensive reading in the English classroom?

To answer our thesis question, we have three research questions.

1. *What attitudes and motivations do pupils have towards reading broadly and reading extensively?*

2. *What are teachers' thoughts on working with extensive reading in the English classroom?*

3. *Are teachers aware of the pupils' attitudes and motivations towards extensive reading when planning English teaching sequences?*

Multiple studies show that adolescents show a disinterest in reading and negative attitudes towards it (see e.g., Roe, 2020 & Guthrie, 2007). This is concerning due to the proven effect reading has on academic achievement (see e.g., Roe, 2020 & Guthrie, 2007). Using a questionnaire, we want to gain insight into what attitudes current pupils have towards reading and, more specifically, towards extensive reading. The questionnaire measures five aspects that we found relevant to answer our thesis question. These are self-concept as a reader, the value placed on reading as a task, pre-requisite factors, attitudes towards readings effect on academic achievement, and reading habits.

Through our own experiences in the classroom, we have noticed that extensive reading is seldom mentioned. Roe (2020, p. 109) emphasises the teacher's importance in nurturing a love of reading and states that teachers have an area of improvement in this aspect of reading instruction. Therefore, we also want to gain insight into the teacher's thoughts and perspective on this topic. This data will be collected through semi-structured interviews. A semi-structured interview was chosen to allow for follow-up questions in case any interesting topics came up. In advance of the interview, we had prepared an interview guide consisting of four parts. Four categories were measured in the interview: the teacher's attitudes towards reading, their thoughts on pupil attitudes towards reading, their thoughts on extensive reading, and their thoughts on mapping tools that map attitudes towards reading.

To help readers navigate our thesis, we have divided it into seven sections: *Introduction*, *Theoretical Framework*, *Methodology*, *Data Analysis*, *Findings*, *Discussion* and *Conclusion*.

2 Theoretical framework

Reading is one of the most important skills in school; it is one of the five basic skills in the core curriculum, alongside writing, numeracy, oral skills, and digital skills (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2017, p. 13). There has been previous research on how to facilitate motivation for reading, for example, there was a survey conducted by Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, and Mazzoni in 1996 called *Assessing motivation to read*. In addition, key figures like Krashen and Chomsky's research on second language acquisition have also inspired our topic.

In this chapter of our thesis, we are going to present relevant theory for our study. We will start with Chomsky's theory of language, and further we are going to delve into Krashen's input hypothesis. After going through these theories regarding second language acquisition (SLA), we will go into reading and its effect on second language acquisition. Given our thesis statement, we must also clarify the term extensive reading and delve into the expectancy-value theory. Our thesis revolves around attitudes towards reading, therefore, we need to look at motivation. As mentioned Gambrell (1996) states that motivation affects reading achievement, as does attitudes towards reading. Therefore, reading attitudes and reading habits will be addressed in their separate sections.

2.1 Chomsky's Theory of Language

In 1957, Chomsky published "Syntactic Structures", a book in which he proposes that all languages are fundamentally similar and that the primary goal of all linguists should be "producing a device of some sort (called a grammar) for generating all and only the sentences of a language, which we have assumed were somehow given in advance" (Chomsky, 1957, p. 85). While early in development, the idea that children possessed some innate language ability can be seen in this article. Two years later, in 1959, Chomsky (p. 60) further postulated that "the fact that all normal children acquire essentially comparable grammars of great complexity with remarkable rapidity suggests that human beings are somehow specially designed to do this, with data-handling or "hypothesis-formulating" ability of unknown character and complexity". Chomsky often uses this line of argument as evidence supporting the theory that humans have an innate predisposition to language. In 1988, Chomsky (p. 8) named this problem "poverty of stimulus" and refers to "Plato's problem". The idea is that there is no possible explanation to account for the richness of language, given the limitations

of the human language system. This line of thinking can be thought to be inspired by the German philosopher Wilhelm von Humboldt's view on language and a famous quote from the book *The Heterogeneity of Language and its Influence on the Intellectual Development of Mankind*, which many perceive as the first great book in general linguistics, "language must make infinite use of finite means" (Humboldt, 1836). This idea of language comes across quite clearly in Chomsky's early work and especially in his definition of language: "From now on I will consider a language to be a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements" (1957, p. 13).

In contrast to his earlier literature work, the universal grammar (UG) theory's outline becomes clearer in his more contemporary work. Chomsky (1986, p. 3) states, "UG may be regarded as a characterization of the genetically determined language faculty. One may think of this faculty as a "language acquisition device," an innate component of the human mind that yields a particular language through interaction with presented experience, a device that converts experience into a system of knowledge attained: knowledge of one or another language" (Chomsky, 1986, p. 3). This definition of UG uses the term language acquisition device (LAD) to describe our innate language ability. In 1957, Chomsky (p. 85) expressed that linguists' main goal should be to create a device that can generate all the sentences of a language. This inadvertently refers to what Chomsky (1986, p. 3) describes as LAD, our innate language ability.

The critical period hypothesis is often associated with Chomsky's perspective on innate language acquisition (see Chomsky, 1957, Chomsky 1959 or Chomsky, 1965). The hypothesis posits that "the primary acquisition of language is predicated upon a certain developmental stage which is quickly outgrown at the age of puberty" (Lenneberg, 1967, p. 142). Penfield & Roberts (1976, p. 255) suggests that second language learning in school should, in accordance with the brain's physiology, take place from the ages 4-10. Lenneberg (1967, p. 142) cites age and recovery from traumatic aphasia as the most revealing evidence for age limitations to language acquisition; "the chances for recovery from acquired aphasia are very different for children than for adult patients, the prognosis being directly related to the age at which insult to the brain is incurred…In contrast to normal small children, the adult patient does not relearn language. Neither training nor conditioning procedures are guarantees for the restoration of language to the patient with a well-established aphasia." (Lenneberg, 1967, p. 142-143). Penfield & Roberts (1976, p. 244) also state that "the ability of an adult to re-learn speech after injury is much inferior to that of a child". This inadvertently highlights

the difference in language acquisition between a child and an adult. However, Lightbown & Spada (2021, p. 24) stress that although there is a critical period to language acquisition, modern research shows that late exposure to language does not necessarily mean one cannot successfully acquire and use a language later in life. According to Lightbown & Spada (2021, p. 24), recent studies on infants' speech perception provide evidence that language acquisition begins at birth, or possibly even before. This growing evidence supports the critical period hypothesis, that humans, like other animals, have a designated period for second language acquisition.

2.2 Krashen's Input Hypothesis

Krashen (1982) proposed five hypotheses on language acquisition which all fall under the Monitor Model. The Monitor Model is based on Chomsky's theory of first language acquisition and is similar to Chomsky a response/reaction to behaviourism (Lightbown & Spada, 2021, p. 110).

Krashen makes the distinction between acquiring and learning a second language, arguing that this distinction is the most fundamental of all his hypotheses. The acquisition-learning distinction is based on the idea that adults have two distinct and independent systems of developing second language competence (Krashen, 1982, p. 10). The first system is "acquisition", a process that Krashen compares to how children develop their first language competence (Chomsky's innate language). Krashen states that language acquisition should be considered a subconscious process and draws parallels to the term implicit learning. This can be seen bearing Chomsky's theory of innate language in mind. The second system is language learning. Krashen uses the term "learning" to refer to a conscious effort to learn a second language, i.e., grammar and vocabulary exercises (Krashen, 1982, p. 10). Yet again, Krashen's distinction is similar to and draws some parallels to implicit and explicit learning processes.

Krashen's monitor hypothesis further clarifies the distinction between acquisition and learning. The hypothesis proposes that acquisition and learning are used in specific ways. Acquisition is responsible for our fluency in a second language; Krashen's (1982, p. 15) rationale is that acquisition "initiates" our utterances in a second language. The primary function of learning is to act as a monitor or editor of what we have acquired. Krashen states

that “learning comes into play only to make changes in the form of our utterance after it has been “produced” by the acquired system” (Krashen, 1982, p. 15).

The natural order hypothesis suggests that the “acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order” (Krashen, 1982, p. 12). According to Krashen (1982, p. 12), there seems to be a tendency in language acquisition where certain grammatical structures are learned early while others are learned later. The order will slightly differ between first and second language acquisition, but there will be similarities (Krashen, 1982, p. 13). While it may seem logical for teachers to focus on teaching those early structures as they could be used at the natural syllabi, Krashen (1982, p. 14) rejects this approach. Krashen himself first suggested this in an earlier paper (Krashen et al, 1975), but later he states that his position has changed (Krashen, 1982, p. 70). On the contrary, Krashen (1982, p. 115) states that grammatical sequences are undesirable when the goal is acquisition. Krashen argues that the natural order of grammatical sequences should not serve as the syllabus for language acquisition because it can hinder the acquisition process, causing learners to concentrate excessively on grammar and not enough on natural communication, which is vital for language acquisition (Krashen, 1982, p. 70). He also states that the stage each pupil is at will vary, thus making comprehensible input nigh impossible to achieve.

Krashen emphasises the subconscious processes in language learning, especially the term acquisition, through his acquisition-learning hypothesis and his monitor hypothesis. The input hypothesis further delves into this topic and tries to answer the question: how do we acquire language? The input hypothesis proposes that we acquire language by interacting with and understanding language that contains structures that are a “little beyond” our current language capabilities (Krashen, 1982, p. 21). Krashen posits that by using context, our knowledge of the world and our extra-linguistic information, we can understand language containing structures beyond our current proficiency levels. Krashen (1982, p. 21) draws emphasis on communication and posits that acquisition happens when we understand language that has structures that are “a little beyond” one's current proficiency levels (i+1). “I” represents the current proficiency level, and “+1” means language slightly beyond the current proficiency level.

Krashen’s input hypothesis can be seen as a reaction to contemporary theory and assumptions of how language is acquired. The contemporary assumption was, as Hatch (1978a, cited in Krashen, 1982, p. 21) points out, that the natural order of language learning was learning

grammatical structures and practicing them in communication, which is how fluency develops. Input hypothesis, conversely, assumes that we acquire language and fluency by "going for meaning" first, and as a result, we implicitly acquire structure. Krashen (1982, p. 22) states that fluency cannot be taught directly but instead emerges on its own accord over time. He proposes that providing comprehensible input is the only way to teach fluency. This view by Krashen is seen as somewhat controversial and is later known as the "non-interface position". The main point of criticism against Krashen is that he does not have a clear distinction between "learned" and "acquired" knowledge; therefore, his position that what is "learned" cannot become "acquired" knowledge falls somewhat flat (Hummel, 2014, p. 71).

The affective filter hypothesis suggests that certain affective factors influence second language acquisition (Krashen, 1982, p. 30). By affective factors, Krashen (1982, p. 31) refers to three attitudinal factors that relate to acquisition: motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety. Krashen (1982, p. 31) states that "performers with high motivation generally do better in second language acquisition" and "Performers with self-confidence and a good self-image tend to do better in second language acquisition". Lastly, Krashen (1982, p. 31) states that "Low anxiety appears to be conductive to second language acquisition, whether measured as personal or classroom anxiety.".

The affective filter hypothesis accounts for those instances in which an acquirer is exposed to a large amount of comprehensible input, yet they can't seem to acquire language successfully (Krashen, 1982, p. 32). The idea is that the affective filter acts as a buffer between input and the language acquisition device, thus hampering language acquisition (Krashen, 1982, p. 32). The hypothesis posits that "acquirers vary with respect to the strength or level of their Affective Filters" (Krashen, 1982, p. 31). In other words, acquirers' language proficiency will inadvertently reflect their affective filters due to the effect they have on language acquisition.

2.3 Reading and Its Effect on Second Language Acquisition

As we have mentioned in the previous section, Krashen makes a distinction between acquisition and learning, stating that learning refers to explicitly performing grammar and vocabulary tasks, while acquisition refers to a subconscious process more closely related to implicit learning. Grabe (2022, p. 86) states that implicit learning refers to the gradual acquisition of knowledge over a subject area, as well as statistical and associative knowledge. This form of learning involves the unconscious internalization of multiple patterns in various

inputs. Additionally, it involves the development of processing skills, language proficiency, and subject-specific knowledge without the need for a conscious effort and attention to the specific information being learned (Grabe, 2022, p. 87). According to Grabe (2022, p. 87), reading heavily relies on implicit learning and knowledge. As we read, we gradually acquire routines, habits, and associations that support fluent reading, such as vocabulary development, automatic word recognition, syntactic parsing, and proposition formation (Grabe, 2022, p. 87). This implicit knowledge is acquired through repetition and exposure to an extensive amount of input. Since many aspects of reading rely on this implicit knowledge, it can be argued that fluent reading would be impossible without the automated processes that implicitly acquire knowledge of the language (Grabe, 2022, p. 88). In simple terms, reading more will gradually develop your reading skills since many aspects of reading rely on automatic processes that are developed through exposure to an extensive amount of input.

2.4 Extensive Reading

Grabe (2022, p. 419) states that although enjoyable reading or easy reading are essential factors in extensive reading, the fundament of extensive reading is related to a substantial amount of reading. He explains further that motivated pupils will willingly read large amounts of academically related material. Therefore, extensive reading should be understood as an extensive amount of reading due to a personal desire to read. The fundamental idea behind extensive reading in second language acquisition is that a large amount of understandable input through reading will facilitate language development through implicit learning (Grabe, 2022, p. 419). In other words, extensive reading aligns with Krashen's input hypothesis since he posed that language development happens when we interact with input that is slightly beyond our current level, i.e., i+1.

While extensive reading refers to reading for pleasure with no purpose, intensive reading refers to reading with a purpose. Mart (2015, p. 85) states that intensive reading focuses on accuracy rather than fluency. Also called guided reading, intensive reading emphasises text analysis to improve vocabulary and grammar (Mart, 2015). This style of reading is often associated with the reading done in school.

Grabe (2022, p. 420) emphasises the ability to read for longer periods and cites it as a strong predictor of fluency. Since no other activity can substitute reading for longer periods and working through a great quantity of input, this only highlights the importance of extensive

reading. Research has showcased that the amount of reading a pupil does is a contributor and predictor of a variety of different academic achievements, such as oral language improvement, basic reading skills, spelling, content-specific knowledge, and vocabulary skills (Sparks et al., 2014, p. 190 as cited in Grabe, 2022, p. 420). Numerous studies have been conducted on extensive reading, and the consensus is that it improves reading comprehension and vocabulary development (Grabe, 2022, p. 421). Additionally, pupils find extensive reading more motivating compared to traditional reading instruction (Stahl & Heubach, 2005; Yamashita, 2013, as cited in Grabe, 2022, p. 421).

In his more contemporary research, Krashen (2004) uses the terminology free voluntary reading as an alternative to extensive reading. In school/class, this means no book reports or questions at the end of each chapter, no obligation to finish a book you have started, but instead reading for your pleasure (Krashen, 2004, p. 1). He states that free voluntary reading is one of the teachers' most essential tools in language education, not necessarily because it leads to the highest proficiency levels but because it provides a necessary foundation for language learning. Without free voluntary reading and the much-needed foundation for language education, Krashen posits that high levels of language proficiency will be challenging to achieve. Due to this, Krashen proposes that free voluntary reading should be considered one of the significant goals of language education in school (Krashen, 2004, p. 57).

The evidence for the importance of free voluntary reading in language education can be seen in the reading programs used in school. Krashen's research (2004, p. 2) distinguishes between three kinds of reading programs: sustained silent reading, self-selected reading, and extensive reading. Sustained silent reading entails teachers and pupils engaging in silent reading for a short period each day. Self-selected reading is free reading in which the teachers afterwards facilitate the pupils' discussion of what was read. In extensive reading, the critical thing to note is that there should be a minimal account of accountability required, and the overall goal is just to read (Krashen, 2004, p. 2). These methods all overlap in different ways and could be used simultaneously to promote reading for your pleasure.

Krashen refers to results from the study which clearly show that reading programs in school are effective in language education; results from Krashen's (2004, p. 2) study show that reading programs are effective in language education. In 51 out of 54 comparisons, readers did either as well or better than pupils engaged in traditional teaching programs. The studies

showed that reading programs are effective for reading comprehension, vocabulary development, grammar test performance, writing and oral language ability (Krashen 2004, p. 3). However, Krashen is quick to emphasise that the length of the reading programs should be, at a minimum, longer than a year for an increased amount of effectiveness. While the study that Krashen refers to is on the effect of reading on first language acquisition, numerous studies also highlight the importance of reading in second language acquisition.

Krashen (2011a, p. 23) refers to three different kinds of studies that show that more English reading leads to higher levels of English proficiency: correlational studies, case studies, and experimental studies. According to Krashen (2011a, p. 23), correlational studies show that those who read more attain higher levels of language proficiency; the problem with these kinds of studies is that correlation is not causation, even though most correlational studies suggest that reading leads to higher levels of proficiency, it is difficult to prove that reading is the reason that they attain higher levels of proficiency and not just a correlation. Case studies also show that, quite often, reading for pleasure leads to higher levels of language proficiency. Krashen (2011a, p. 23) states that he has yet to see a case study showing pupils with high literacy levels who were not readers. The last category of studies that Krashen highlights is experimental studies, and they are, according to Krashen, the most convincing. In these studies, groups of pupils who receive ordinary teaching programs are compared to pupils who receive reading programs for a selected amount of time (Krashen, 2011a, p. 24).

Elley & Mangubhai (1981, p.24) conducted an experimental study to clarify the role of reading in raising English language levels of rural primary school children in Fiji. The goal of the study was to see whether pupils who were frequently exposed to reading English books could become more proficient in language learning. Of the pupils in class 6, a quarter of them could not read simple English prose with enough understanding to complete daily classroom activities when the study began (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981, p. 2).

In the study, 4th and 5th graders were divided into one control group and two groups with different reading programs. One of the programs, the “shared book experience method,” had the teacher choose an interesting story and introduce it to the class. Then, the teacher would read the book aloud and encourage discussions around the pictures and contents of the book, and on the second and third reading, the pupils are encouraged to read along with the teacher (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981, p. 8). The second reading group used the “silent reading method”. In this group, the teachers were advised to display the books they were given attractively and

draw the pupil's attention to them. The pupils were encouraged to read silently for up to half an hour each day. The control group were instructed to continue teaching as usual and not alter their teaching programs (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981, p. 9).

All groups had a pre-test and post-test to assess growth in the English subject; this was done by comparing the pre-and post-test. The results from the study showed a clear distinction between the groups that read and those that continued as usual (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981, p. 10). The English skills tested differed slightly from class to class to accommodate different needs. Still, the overall skills were the same: reading comprehension, listening comprehension, English structures, and word recognition (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981, p. 11). Those who read performed significantly better in all four post-tests than in groups that did not alter their teaching programs (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981, p. 10). One of the control groups gained an above-average score. When interviewing the teacher afterwards, they found out that she read to the children daily, making her teaching style more like those that were in one of the book flood groups (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981, p. 17). Elley & Mangubhai (1981, p. 17) suggest that the results would have been considerably worse for the control group if this specific group had not been included in the results. Some of the teachers in the book flood groups were sceptical of this method of working, and one of the teachers in the Shared book group believed that a heavy phonic emphasis was superior. Dropping his class would increase the median for the raw scores of the Shared Book pupils from 12,08 to 13,14. According to Elley & Mangubhai (1981, p. 19), this is a level that can be compared to 1,5 years of growth in 8 months.

The study aimed to clarify the role of reading in second language acquisition, and they found that the impact of reading is positive. Inadvertently, they also discovered the effect teacher attitudes and beliefs can have on pupils, in that two teacher attitudes altered the results. The overall results would likely be far greater if not for one teacher with a skeptical attitude towards the shared book method. Likewise, in the control group, one of the teachers believed in the impact of regular story reading, leading to her class having an approach to reading similar to those in the book flood groups and leading to above-average results (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981 p. 24). Rather than voiding these results, these exceptions strengthen the overall result of the study, highlighting the power of reading and how teacher attitudes towards reading can affect an entire class.

Krashen (2004, p. 28) introduces the aspect of pleasure in reading and the concept of flow when explaining why free voluntary reading works so well. Krashen (2004, p. 29) defines flow as “the state people reach when they are deeply but effortlessly involved in an activity. In flow, the concerns of everyday life and even the sense of self disappear- our sense of time is altered and nothing but the activity itself seems to matter”. Flow can occur when you are reading a book and get “lost” in the fictional world. This concept of flow can be seen in light of Krashen’s (2011b, p. 15) compelling input hypothesis, which states that input needs to be interesting and compelling for optimal language acquisition. Krashen further explains that “compelling” refers to input that is so interesting that you forget it is another language and get in a state of flow. Compelling input will remove the need for a conscious effort, and one will implicitly acquire, whether one is interested in acquiring or not (Krashen, 2011b, p. 15). Krashen mentions unexpected improvement as evidence for his compelling input hypothesis and refers to many cases in which the participants would improve in a language without conscious effort simply because they got interested in the activity of reading. Krashen (2011b, p. 15) cites reader autonomy and self-selected reading as essential to compelling input. Since people will have different topics that interest them, allowing them reader autonomy as opposed to the assigned reading, one could facilitate for the input to be compelling and for them to enter a flow state. Krashen (2011b, p. 15) posits that compelling input may not only be optimal but also the true way of acquiring language.

In PISA 2000, the variable that explained most of the variance in reading achievement was “reading engagement” (Roe, 2020, p. 108). We understand reading engagement similarly to how Krashen (2004) describes free voluntary reading and Grabe (2022) Extensive reading. In this study, we understand reading engagement as being intrinsically motivated to read. Compelling input seems optimal for promoting reading engagement, which emphasises reader autonomy's importance. The PISA results show the underlying potential for creating good reading habits by nurturing reading engagement. Of 37 countries participating in PISA, only the Netherlands scored lower on reading engagement (Roe, 2020, p. 119). This is concerning due to the important correlation between reading engagement and reading competence.

2.5 Expectancy-Value Theory

Eccles’s (1983) expectancy-value theory and partially Bandura's (1977 & 1997) theory of self-efficacy are used as the foundation to describe the construct of reading motivation in both the revised and original Motivation to Read Profile (MRP) (Malloy, Marinak, Gambrell &

Mazzoni, 2013, p. 274). Since Eccles's (1983) achievement model is the primary theoretical background of the MRP, we believe it is necessary to explore Eccles's (1983) Achievement model before describing the design of the questionnaire.

Eccles's achievement model (1983, p. 79) builds upon the expectancy-value theory postulated by John Atkinson (e.g., Atkinson, 1958). Eccles (1983, p. 79) understands this theory as "individual differences in the motive to achieve and on the effects of subjective expectancy on both this motive and the incentive value of success". Based upon this understanding of the expectancy-value theory, Eccles has conceptualized the mediators of expectancies and value in their achievement model. Eccles (1983, p. 81) states that "the concept of expectancy or probability has long been recognized by decision and achievement theorists as an important variable in determining behavioral choice". Eccles (1983, p. 82) suggests that expectancies are shaped most by self-concept of ability and the value placed on the task. In the achievement models, Eccles (1983, p. 82) tries to account for the factors influencing the two most prevalent mediators, self-concept of ability and task value.

Eccles (1983, p. 82) defines the self-concept of ability as "the assessment of one's own competency to perform specific tasks or to carry out role-appropriate behaviors". Eccles (1983, p. 82) cites numerous research articles discussing the importance of confidence in their abilities related to achievement behaviors (e.g., Brookover & Erickson, 1975; Covington & Beery, 1976; Covington and Omelich, 1979). Eccles (1983, p. 82) states that although research has yielded mixed results, most authors believe that "self-concepts of ability are key causal determinants of a variety of achievement behaviors". In their study, Calsyn & Kenny (1977, p. 142) propose that "academic achievement is casually predominant over self-concept of ability". In other words, they found that academic achievement is the dominant influencer of self-concept of ability rather than the opposite. Like Krashen's (1982, p. 30) affective filter hypothesis, Eccles (1983, p. 96) also mentions affective experiences and their possible influence on achievement behaviours. Eccles (1983, p. 96) states that "achievement activities elicit a wide range of emotional responses. Past affect-laden experiences can influence one's responses to similar tasks in the present or future". Therefore, underachievers are more likely to undervalue their ability, thus making them less motivated to complete an activity. At the same time, overachievers are more likely to overvalue their ability, thus making them more likely to complete an activity. This highlights the importance of positive past experiences and their influence on achievement behaviours.

Task value refers to the value that is placed on the task. Eccles (1983, p. 89) proposes that task value can be divided into three components that affect the overall task value; "(1) the attainment value of the task, (2) the intrinsic or interest value of the task, and (3) the utility value of the task for future goals" (Eccles, 1983, p. 89). Attainment value relates to the individual's perception of the importance of doing well on a specific task (Eccles, 1983, p. 89). The attainment value will vary based on numerous factors, such as "the perceived qualities of the task determine its attainment value through their interaction with an individual's needs and self-perceptions" (Eccles, 1983, p. 89). The intrinsic or interest value of the task refers to the "inherent, immediate enjoyment one gets from engaging in an activity" (Eccles, 1983, p. 89). This definition of the interest value of the task can be seen in light of Ryan & Deci's (2000a) term intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to "the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence" (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 56). Thus, one could argue that task value could vary based on the subject's perceived satisfaction with completing the task. A task typically considered a fun activity could help bring inherent satisfaction, motivating pupils. Utility value refers to the "importance of the task for some future goal that might itself be somewhat unrelated to the process nature of the task at hand" (Eccles, 1983, p. 89-90). For example, if one were to study to get a profession, one would be compelled to complete obligatory assignments because it is essential as it is a steppingstone towards achieving the goal of achieving a particular profession.

2.6 Motivation

Our research question, "*What attitudes do lower secondary school pupils and teachers in the context of the Norwegian educational system have towards extensive reading in the English classroom?"* looks specifically at attitudes and extensive reading. As mentioned in chapter 2.4, extensive reading is reading for one's own enjoyment and having the freedom to choose the material on your own. Pupils who are free to choose their own material may develop enjoyment and be motivated to read (Day & Bamford, 2002, p. 138). Human beings in general are said to be curious and self-motivated, at the best of times people are inspired, and striving to learn and master new skills (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, p. 68). Sometimes however, there are opposite actions which make people reject their own growth and responsibility. The Self-determination theory (SDT) explores these concepts on conditions that foster or undermine positive human potential (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, p. 68). The SDT is an approach to

human motivation and personality, and it seeks to investigate people's inherent growth tendencies and innate psychological needs that are the basis for self-motivation and personality integration. Ryan and Deci (2000b) identified three properties for growth and integration, as well as constructive social development and personal well-being, they are competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, p. 68). Ryan & Deci (2000a) have a definition of what it means to be motivated, "To be motivated means to be moved to do something" (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 54).

A person who feels no impetus or inspiration to act is thus characterized as unmotivated, whereas someone who is energized or activated toward an end is considered motivated (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 54). Motivation is a difficult term to both observe and assess. One of the biggest challenges as a teacher is motivating your pupils (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2019, p. 11). A certainty in every classroom in the world is that there will be significant differences in motivation among pupils. Motivation has often been treated as a singular construct, but even a brief reflection on the matter would reveal that people are motivated by different factors. Ryan & Deci distinguish between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to give possible explanations for why we act as we do (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, p. 69).

2.6.1 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation have been widely studied, and the distinction between them has shed important light on developmental and educational practices (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 54). The idea that humans have some inner or fundamental motives to explore and evolve competence, master environments, and use new skills, is something that can be traced back to White (1959) (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2019, p. 66).

"Intrinsic motivation is defined as the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence" (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 56). Through experimental studies, White (1959) discovered that animals often explore their surroundings even after their major needs have been sated, suggesting that they explore their surroundings based on independent motives (White, 1959, p. 298). By doing these spontaneous actions, one can argue that even though bestowing adaptive benefits for an organism might not be done because of some independent reward, rather it is done due to positive experiences associated with exercising and extending one's capacity (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 56).

In humans, intrinsic motivation is not the only form of motivation. Humans are naturally curious, active, and ready to learn and explore when born inquisitive. This natural motivational tendency is a critical element in cognitive, social, and physical development because it is through acting on one's inherent interests that one grows in knowledge and skills (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 56). Intrinsic motivation exists both within individuals and in their relationship to activities. Intrinsic motivation is driven by interest and satisfies the innate psychological needs for competence and autonomy, making it a prototype of self-determined behaviour (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 65).

Intrinsic motivation is an important part of motivation, but intrinsic motivation is not the only reason to be compelled to do something (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 60). "Extrinsic motivation is a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome" (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 60). In contrast to intrinsic motivation, which is based on doing an activity simply for the enjoyment of the activity itself, extrinsically motivated activities are done in fear of outside sanctions, anticipation of an external reward, or desirable outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 60).

It can be argued that the traditional school design is much better aligned with extrinsic motivation than intrinsic motivation. For instance, grades and remarks are frequently used to regulate pupil behaviours. Ryan & Deci (2000a, p. 60) pose a central question: how can teachers motivate pupils to value and self-regulate such activities? Ryan & Deci (2009) suggest that a distinction between controlled and autonomous extrinsic motivation offers a more nuanced way of looking at this problem/extrinsic motivation (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2019, p. 67).

Behavior can also subconsciously be regulated through peer pressure and class culture. Pupils may be compelled to complete a task in fear of being ridiculed or shamed for performing poorly, for instance in a group project (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2019, p. 67). Autonomous extrinsic motivation is considered less harsh than controlled extrinsic motivation. It refers to instances where an individual has identified with the personal importance of behaviour and has thus accepted its regulation as his or her own (Deci & Ryan, 2000a, p. 62). In language learning, pupils may feel obligated and more open to participating in activities they normally would not do in order to learn the language. Compared to controlled extrinsic motivation, autonomous extrinsic motivation is more closely related to intrinsic motivation because it is based on one's desire to perform as best as possible.

2.6.2 Reading Motivation

Motivation is an important aspect of extensive reading since it relates to reading for your own pleasure on your own accord. To address RQ1, *what attitudes and motivations do pupils have towards reading broadly and reading extensively?* and RQ2, *what are teachers' thoughts on working with extensive reading in the English classroom?*, reading motivation must be addressed. As mentioned in section 2.4, extensive reading is all about wanting to read of your own volition and being motivated to do so. The central beliefs in motivational theory include competence-related beliefs such as self-efficacy and confidence to accomplish various tasks (Wigfield, Gladstone, & Turci, 2016, p. 191). Sense of control and autonomous action towards one's own learning is important to enhance the feeling of being efficacious in different activities such as reading (Wigfield et al., 2016, p. 191). If an individual values an activity by how important they are to the individual, how useful they might be, or if it interests them, they might engage in these activities more often (Wigfield et al., 2016, p. 191).

In 1996, Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, and Mazzoni conducted a study measuring students' reading motivation. The survey is known as the Motivation to Read Profile (MRP). It assesses two dimensions of reading motivation: self-concept as a reader and the value of reading (Gambrell et al., 1996, p. 519). In 2013, the study was revised to adapt to cultural and linguistic changes. For instance, the digital reading aspect was not included in the original study, but in the revised version it was included in the conversationalist interview (Malloy, Marinak, Gambrell, and Mazzoni, 2013, p. 274).

Teachers emphasize motivation and recognize that it is the root of many problems faced when teaching. Motivation is seen as especially important in teaching language. A study conducted by Veenman (1984 cited in Gambrell et al., 1996, 518) revealed that motivating pupils was an overriding concern among teachers. Creating interest in reading was also cited as an important area for further research (Gambrell et al., 1996, p. 518). This is what prompted Gambrell et al. (1996) to want to understand pupils' reading motivation. A self-assessment questionnaire and a conversationalist interview guide were created for teachers to assess pupils' reading motivation and make appropriate adjustments. Gambrell emphasizes reading because they identified that "highly motivated readers are self-determining and generate their own reading opportunities" (Gambrell et al., 1996, p. 518). Gambrell et al. (1996) suggest that the teacher can promote intrinsic reading motivation, i.e. extensive reading and that this is a fundamental part of education.

According to Wigfield et al. (2016), pupils' reading motivation declines with age. Therefore, teachers should emphasize working with retaining and increasing reading motivation. Reading comprehension is important for success in every part of academic achievement, particularly in courses on reading and literature (Wigfield et al., 2016, p. 190). As pupils progress through school, they are expected to read and write with increasing flexibility, insight and skill (Wigfield et al., 2016, p. 190). A motivated reader is more likely to engage in extensive reading, thus improving their reading comprehension and making them proficient in using different reading strategies (Grabe & Yamashita, 2022, p.224). The teacher and class culture will influence a pupil's reading motivation. This emphasizes how helpful a mapping tool such as MRP could be to a teacher.

In a study by Sweet et al. (1998), the authors explored teacher perceptions of pupils' reading motivation. Their findings suggested that teachers often perceive higher achievers to be more intrinsically motivated. Sweet et al. State in their study that "teachers appear to believe that students who become the agent of their own literacy development grow more rapidly in the knowledge and skill of literacy." To attain this agency, teachers reported that pupils "benefit from support for realistic choices" (Sweet et al., 1998). The teachers mentioned further that pupils "also gain from classroom activities in which literacy has a practical return for effort, thus enhancing their self-perceived competence as literacy users" (Sweet et al., 1998). These findings suggest that the teachers possessed an implicit theory of the connection between SDT and achievement (Sweet et al., 1998; Ryan & Deci, 2000a).

2.6.2.1 Reader Autonomy

The self-determination theory suggests that three psychological needs, relatedness, competence, and autonomy, will increase the likelihood of a motivated classroom if accounted for (Deci & Ryan, 2000b, p. 68). Ryan and Deci (2000b, p. 71) demonstrate strong links between intrinsic motivation, autonomy, and competence. Some of their work also suggests that relatedness is important for intrinsic motivation. In other words, to effectively promote extensive reading, a teacher can motivate pupils by supporting these psychological needs.

Autonomy is strongly related to extensive reading due to its relevance to intrinsic motivation. De Naeghel et al. (2014, p. 1549) state, "The need for autonomy refers to the experience of a sense of volition and psychological freedom when participating in an activity, indicating that

students feel that they are the initiators of their own behaviour". Autonomy in reading translates to the freedom to choose when and what to read. Ryan and Deci (2000b, p. 73) propose that a sense of autonomy can lead to increased internalization. This internalization encompasses the internalization of grammatical structures and increased reading comprehension. It furthermore allows individuals to transform values into their own (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, p. 73). Reader autonomy will facilitate extensive reading, which will promote the subconscious processes of language learning. A study on increased customization of news articles revealed that increased individual customization can also satisfy the need for autonomy and lead to intrinsic reading motivation (Zhu & Lee, 2020, p. 138). Increasing reading motivation is not bound by complete freedom of choice, as long as each individual feels a sense of freedom.

2.7 Reading Attitudes

Reading attitudes can be influenced by the value an individual attributes to reading, cultural influences, reading outcomes, and competing interests outside of reading pursuits (McKenna, Kear, & Ellsworth, 1995, p. 937-938). Several studies suggest that readers who think of themselves as competent and good readers are likely to outperform pupils who think of themselves as weak readers (Gambrell et al., 1996, p. 518). It is also important to mention that if pupils perceive reading as important and valuable, they will often have more personal reasons for wanting to read and, therefore, engage in reading activities more frequently (Gambrell et al., 1996, p. 518). In other words, a person's attitude towards reading can impact their motivation to read based on how they perceive the value of reading or their own reading ability.

In addition, there is the important distinction between having positive global reading attitudes and attitudes towards every type of reading. McKenna et al. (1995) theorized that it is likely that the range of people's reading interests can be closely related towards global attitudes, meaning everyone has preferences of what they prefer to read (McKenna et al., 1995, p. 937). As people grow older and discover other interests, their reading choices may change. However, readers who are challenged but satisfied with reading attempts may develop more positive attitudes towards reading. (Shaunessy-Dedrick, Evans, Ferron, & Lindo, 2015).

Spear-Swirling, Brucker, and Alfano (2010) believe that schools need to foster voluntary reading pleasure within children so that they can improve their reading achievements. There

are reasons to believe that children who read more and are exposed to more text and books through activities that encourage extensive reading help increase their proficiency in reading (Spear-Swirling et al., 2010, p. 74). Proficiency in reading and exposure to texts and books have a reciprocal effect on learners. Early mastery of reading skills increases the likelihood of engaging in extensive reading activities for enjoyment. This, in turn, facilitates later growth in reading ability (Spear-Swirling et al., 2010, p. 74).

Research shows that attitudes towards reading are a key indicator of reading achievement, thus highlighting the importance of positive attitudes towards reading (Roe, 2020, p. 108). This correlation suggests that improving reading attitudes could potentially lead to a positive change in reading habits. Given the significance of attitudes towards reading and reading achievement, it is concerning that reading habits and attitudes towards reading have regressed since PISA 2000 (Roe, 2020, 107). Roe (2020) reveals that pupils read longer texts less frequently, while at the same time, digital reading activities have increased.

2.8 Reading Habits

"Reading is an activity taken for granted in the subject of English" (Ørevik, 2020, p. 141). Pupils encounter various texts while studying different curricular topics in school. When introducing a new topic, pupils often read factual texts to familiarize themselves. They learn English literature by reading short stories, poems and novel excerpts. In addition, browsing the internet, which has become a substantial part of curricular work involves a fair amount of reading (Ørevik, 2020, p. 141). Since reading is such a vital part of what goes on inside the English classroom it is important for the pupils to see that reading is a route to learning. A major objective of reading is that pupils encounter the English language and become familiar with its many aspects and nuances (Ørevik, 2020, p. 141). It is important to provide an environment where students can read text that interests them, which helps develop good reading habits and improve their reading ability. This is where extensive reading is important for second language learners, according to many teachers. (Ørevik, 2020, p. 142).

When teachers provide a set of suitable books to the pupils in class while also ensuring that the pupils interact with them each day, it could aid in them becoming enthusiastic about the books. In addition, they learn the books' vocabulary and grammar while improving their reading and writing skills (Elley, 2000, p. 250). Engaging in activities that facilitate reading is necessary to become a better reader. Children and adolescents participating in reading

activities often and consistently tend to have better literacy skills (McGeown et al., 2015, p. 548). That said, there is a difference in what skills are being developed when reading, depending on the activity and format (McGeown et al., 2015, p. 548). Spear-Swirling et al, (2010) mention that reading fiction books is closely associated with various reading skills like word reading, oral comprehension, reading comprehension and vocabulary. Also, their findings suggest that whether you are a weak or strong reader, the frequency of reading for pleasure stayed the same between both groups. However, the reading volume showed major differences between the groups (Spear-Swirling et al., 2010, p. 91).

The last decade has seen a steady increase in time spent on digital text activities and an increase in the diversity of these activities. In the context of measuring literacy experiences, we must look at it more comprehensively than just accounting for time spent on reading books (McGeown et al., 2015, p. 548). Digital activities such as texting, social networking, and the internet are more common among adolescents' literacy habits than reading books. Digital activities are also complex in nature and demand different types of skills. Therefore, it is important to consider that different literacy experiences are utilised and developed differently in school (McGeown et al., 2015, p. 548).

In an article from 2007, Hayles (2007) talks about a shift in cognitive modes, where pupils begin to shift from deep attention to hyper attention. Deep attention, which is traditionally associated with classroom activities, is characterized as concentrating on a single task or object for longer periods of time (Hayles, 2007, p. 187). Hyper attention on the other hand, is characterised by shifting focus rapidly among tasks, having a low tolerance for boredom and seeking high levels of stimuli (Hayles, 2007, p. 187). With both cognitive modes there are advantages and disadvantages. Deep attention is best when performing tasks such as reading books or solving longer math problems, but it comes at the price of environmental alertness and flexibility of response (Hayles, 2007, p. 188). On the other hand, hyper-attention excels at negotiating rapid environments where multiple sources require one's attention, but the disadvantage is being impatient when performing tasks that require focusing for longer periods of time (Hayles, 2007, p. 188). In school, the norm has been to use deep attention during class, sitting and focusing on the tasks at hand; pupils are taught that deep attention is the standard to be upheld, while hyper attention is seen as defective behaviour (Hayles 2007, p. 188).

3 Methodology

In this chapter, we will describe our study's research design and methods for collecting data to answer our thesis question:

What attitudes do lower secondary school pupils and teachers in the context of the Norwegian educational system have towards extensive reading in the English classroom?

After that, we will discuss reliability and validity of the research design and methods, and finally, we will account for our ethical considerations. To enhance readability, we will first provide an overview of our research design and the decisions we made throughout the study. Following this we delve into the participants of this project and how and why we chose them. We then move on to our collection methods and how we gather data.

3.1 Research Design

Given our thesis question and research questions, we needed to understand both the pupil's perspective on reading and the teachers' understanding and opinions on reading in the English classroom. Choosing a design for our master's thesis was a long process, which included multiple guidance sessions with our supervisor. After formulating the thesis question and the research questions, we landed on a mixed-method design with both questionnaire and interview as methods.

3.1.1 Mixed Method design

A mixed method design is a research approach that combines both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study. This approach aims to better understand the research problem and questions than either method could provide alone (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019, p. 595). In our research, we used a combination of a quantitative survey and a qualitative interview to answer our thesis question. By utilising both quantitative and qualitative research, we could leverage each method's strengths. Our thesis question aimed to investigate the attitudes of lower secondary school pupils and teachers towards extensive reading in the English classroom in the context of the Norwegian educational system. Quantitative data, such as survey scores, provided specific numbers that allowed us to quantify the scores of each individual pupil and provided information on a large group. Meanwhile, the interviews provided us with words and thoughts that shed light on different perspectives on the study.

Our thesis question required collecting more than one type of data to achieve a comprehensive understanding. We decided it would be better for us to use a questionnaire to get answers from the pupils as they might not be as reflected and aware of their own attitudes towards reading, teachers on the other hand might be more aware because of their education and teaching philosophy.

3.2 Sampling Strategy and Participants

To investigate our research questions and thesis question we decided that using nonprobability sampling, or purposeful sampling to be more specific would be most beneficial. Initially, the participants of the questionnaire and the informants of our interview had to conform to the following criteria: they had to be upper secondary school pupils or teachers, and the teachers must teach English as one of their subjects. When we were planning how we wanted to collect data and to whom we wanted to reach out, we decided to reach out to previous acquaintances we have made throughout our teaching practices. I.e. practice teachers and teachers from schools where we have worked as students. We did this because we anticipated it to be time-consuming to use probability sampling, contrary to nonprobability sampling approaches. Thus, this study relies on purposeful sampling of data. One drawback of conducting research with purposeful sampling is that we cannot say with confidence that the participants are representative of the population (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019, p. 173). It will however allow us to gather useful information for answering our thesis question and hypotheses to the extent possible within the frame of a 30 ECTS master's thesis.

The study was conducted with two teachers who taught English in the ninth grade at two different schools, and three classes in the ninth grade. In total, 52 pupils and two teachers participated. The pupils took an online survey on the UIT webform *Nettskjema*, and the teachers participated in a one-on-one interview.

3.3 Data Collection

Our study used a mixed methods design to collect quantitative and qualitative data. We have three research questions to help answer our thesis question, one of the research questions is more suited to quantitative methods, while the other two are more suited to qualitative methods, thus the mixed methods design is used to provide better data.

To investigate the first research question

1. *What attitudes and motivations do pupils have towards reading broadly and reading extensively?*

We have selected a quantitative approach. That will enable us to gather data from a wide range of participants within a reasonable timeframe.

The following two research questions revolve around how teachers work around extensive reading in the classroom.

2. *What are teachers' thoughts on working with extensive reading in the English classroom?*

3. *Are teachers aware of the pupils' attitudes and motivations towards extensive reading when planning English teaching sequences?*

A qualitative method was chosen for these research questions as we deemed it more difficult to get teacher participants than pupils; therefore, having fewer participants but more focus on each participant through a qualitative approach was deemed an appropriate solution.

3.3.1 Questionnaire

3.3.1.1 Design of Questionnaire

Questionnaires are a valuable tool for collecting quantitative data that provides a wider scope than qualitative methods (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 143). However, using questionnaires as a research method requires a lot of preparation before collecting data. It is crucial to carefully plan the information you want to obtain and design your questionnaire accordingly (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 143). Gleiss & Sæther (2021, p. 144) sort this preparation phase into two parts: first, operationalization and concretization of theoretical terms, and second designing the questionnaire, including question types, answer options, and question order.

Gleiss & Sæther (2021, p. 145) states that "The overall goal of operationalization is to divide a term into smaller parts, in which the smaller parts cast a light on the investigated theoretical term" (translated by author, Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 145). Often, operationalization is done with terms that could be difficult to observe, such as motivation or the well-being of pupils. To make our thesis statement more researchable, we have decided to operationalize the term *attitudes* by breaking it down into three: self-concept as a reader, value of reading, and

reading habits. This operationalization was done in accordance with previous research on the topic (see Gambrell et al., 1996 & Eccles, 1983). Since our thesis is about attitudes towards reading, we deemed it appropriate to operationalize attitudes with a focus on reading. There are also questions regarding attitudes towards school and possible pre-requisite factors that could offer insight into and a possible causation/correlation on why that participant has a certain attitude towards reading. Albeit very few questions, we deemed it relevant to gain some insight into the pupil's reading habits.

Our questionnaire consists of four sections, see Appendix 1. The first section measures the individual's perception of themselves as a reader and the value they place on reading. The second section measures pre-requisite factors such as the availability of resources to read at their school. The third section measures general attitudes towards reading and whether or not the individual thinks reading can improve language skills. Finally, the fourth section measures general reading habits.

To design the first section, we used the revised version of the Motivation to Read Profile (MRP) (Malloy, Marinak, Gambrell & Mazzoni, 2013) as our template. The MRP is a commonly used tool that researchers implement to measure students' motivation and attitudes towards reading in a classroom. It consists of a questionnaire and a conversational interview that aims to determine how pupils perceive the value of reading and their self-concept as readers. This information is then used to make appropriate adjustments to the instruction methods used in the classroom (Malloy et al., 2013, p. 273).

We decided it would be beneficial to have the questionnaire in the participants' first language to help ensure that they fully understood each question, thereby giving more accurate responses. According to Gleiss & Sæther (2021, p. 148), it is important to design questionnaires in a way that ensures participants understand both the questions and answer options. To achieve this, we decided to make sure that the questionnaire was conducted in the presumed participants' first language. This helped ensure they fully understood each question, resulting in more accurate responses. In the translation process, we paid close attention to each word to preserve each question's original intended meaning.

We have decided to consider the revised version of the survey as our reference point instead of the original version. Although the two versions are quite similar, the revised version was deemed slightly more up to date. The revised version has some minor changes in the

questions to account for the linguistic and cultural changes that occurred between each study. For instance, the original survey did not account for digital reading (Malloy et al., 2013, p. 274). Therefore, we primarily used the revised version as our template. Gleiss & Sæther (2021, p. 155) state that recycling questions from other studies have many advantages. Using existing questions can strengthen the questionnaire due to the time-consuming process of operationalizing terms and creating precise and relevant questions to find information about these terms. Also, the benefit of having more comparability between studies was seen as an advantage.

According to Gleiss & Sæther (2021, p. 154), the Likert scale is commonly used in quantitative research when investigating attitudes. This is because the Likert scale will often measure attitudes through direct questions or statements where the participant must answer on a scale with values in a pre-determined order. This scale assumes that there is a set distance between each variable, even though the distance between each variable can be hard to quantify due to the subjective interpretation of each question by participants. Nonetheless, this aspect is often overlooked in research to allow for further statistical analysis (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 154). A Likert scale usually has between 5 and 7 answer options on the scale (Jacobsen, 2015, p. 273, as cited in Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 154). But Gambrell et al. (1996, p. 525) elected to use a four-point scale to avoid any patterns of neutral and central responses. Therefore, we also decided to use a four-point scale for our questionnaire to have continuity throughout the survey.

There are 35 questions in total, which are divided into five categories: self-concept as a reader, value of reading, pre-requisite factors on reading in school, attitudes towards readings effect on academic achievement, and reading habits. Each category consists of five questions, except for self-concept as a reader and value of reading, which have ten questions each. Initially, the plan was to have ten questions in each category, but after consulting with our advisor, we decided to reduce the number of questions to avoid overwhelming the participants and ensure more complete answers.

3.3.1.2 Motivation to Read Profile

The first 20 questions in the self-concept as a reader and value of reading sections derive from the Motivation to Read Profile and use the structure of close-ended questions. Gambrell, Palmer, Codling & Mazzoni (1996, p. 525) settled on using a four-point ordinal scale with

variable ranked responses, meaning some answers are listed from most to least positive and others from least to most positive. According to Malloy, Marinak, Gambrell & Mazzoni (2013, p. 279), this was intentionally done to increase reliability in student responses. A four-point scale was chosen to avoid any patterns of neutral and central responses (Gambrell et al., 1996, p. 525).

The order in the response alternatives differs from each question, from most positive to least positive, and the other way. This was done to avoid repetition of the same responses and control for the validity and reliability of answers (Gambrell et al., 1996, p. 525). To maintain continuity throughout the questionnaire, we decided to keep following the structure set by the first 20 questions, with the exception being the habits category. Gleiss & Sæther (2021, p. 153) state that the design of the answer options is equally as important as the design of the questions. This is because, in close-ended questions, the participants must choose from pre-determined answers. Therefore, it is important that the researcher has thought through possible answers to provide relevant answer options for the participants. This is why we decided to slightly alter some of the questions in the habits category, providing one or two more options to give the participants better opportunities to proficiently answer for themselves. We believe this in addition increases the internal validity.

Gambrell et al. (1996) primarily use Eccles's (1983) expectancy-value theory and partially Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory as the theoretical framework behind the two subscales in the Motivation to Read Profile. Gambrell et al. (1996, p. 518) refer to numerous theories that suggest task value and self-perceived competence as vital factors in motivation and emphasize Eccles's expectancy-value theory as the foundation behind the questions. The idea is that Eccles's expectancy-value theory proficiently describes the construct of reading motivation; therefore, measuring two of the main ideas, self-perceived competence and task value, will give an accurate assessment of an individual's motivation to read (Gambrell et al. 1996, p. 518).

Self-competence as a reader is assessed through questions such as "I think I am a___ reader", and "When I have trouble figuring out a word I don't know, I___" (Malloy et al., 2013, p. 274). The idea is that a reflection on self-perceived competence in reading and self-perceived performance related to peers will give information about the participant's self-concept as a reader (Gambrell et al., 1996, p. 522). As mentioned earlier, the Motivation to Read Profile is a tool to help the teacher negate the difficulties surrounding low reading motivation. This is

done through creating a motivation profile for each participant in which adjustments can be made based on the score of each subscale. Malloy et al., (2013, p. 279) suggest that low scores in the self-concept as a reader subscale "might suggest that individual or small-group follow-up is important to further isolate the difficulties experienced in decoding or comprehension strategy use that might lead to these perceptions of low self-efficacy for these tasks." Therefore, it is important for a teacher to understand each pupil's self-concept as a reader to provide the support required for engaged reading (Malloy et al., 2013, p. 279).

Value of reading is assessed through questions such as "Reading is something I like to do___" and "My friends think reading is___" (Malloy et al., 2013, p. 274). Gambrell et al. (1996, p. 522) states that this subscale is designed to "elicit information about the value students place on reading tasks and activities, particularly in terms of frequency of engagement and reading-related activities", giving an overall score of their perceived value of reading. Assessing how much importance someone gives to reading can help in understanding their level of motivation for reading. This idea is based on Eccles' (1983) expectancy-value theory, which suggests that a person's motivation to perform a task can vary depending on the value they place on it. Malloy et al. (2013, p. 274) cite Eccles's expectancy-value theory as the foundation of describing the construct of reading motivation.

Some items in this subscale are also designed to elicit information on individual reading (items 2, 14, 18, and 20) vs. reading as a social practice (items 4, 6, 10, and 16). Low scores on individual reading might suggest that the participant would benefit from an independent reading program where they are given a personally interesting book at an appropriate level. Adding scores from both subscales will give an overall score for reading motivation. This can be used to make appropriate adjustments in the classroom.

3.3.1.3 Pre-Requisite Factors

The next category was coded as "pre-requisite factors"; this category asks questions about the pupils' environment and whether it promotes reading in some way. These five questions are designed to elicit information on the pupils' surroundings, giving more context to the pupils' answers in the first section. Questions include whether they discuss books at school, whether the teacher cares if I read or not, and whether the library has any interesting books. The idea is that this category will give us more context to their answers in the first section. In a similar fashion to the first section, this category also uses a four-point scale to avoid any neutral and

central patterns. Most of these questions were also designed to be compared to the teacher interviews.

3.3.1.4 Attitudes Towards Readings Effect on Academic Achievement

The fourth category is “attitudes towards readings effect on academic achievement”. This category has five questions designed to elicit information on the pupils’ thoughts on whether reading affects academic achievements. We thought it would be interesting to see if the pupils had reflected on this topic beforehand and if there was any correlation between those who answered positively and those who were motivated readers. Similarly to the structure of previous sections, the answer options are coded from least to most positive in varying order.

3.3.1.5 Reading Habits

The fifth category and final section of the questionnaire is “reading habits”. This category tries to elicit information on the pupil's reading habits, such as how often they read, what language they read in and their preferred reading platform. This section differs from the rest in what type of information it elicits. Out of the five questions in this section, two of them are nominal while the rest use ordinal variables. To allow for more accurate answers, we have slightly modified some questions to increase the options and give the participants better opportunities to respond accurately.

Question one asks how often they read. Question four is a follow-up to the first question; it asks how much you like to read. We wanted to see if there was a correlation between reading frequency and reading enjoyment. Question two asked what language they read most in. We predicted that some pupils would answer English rather than Norwegian. Therefore, question three asked if they thought it was difficult to read in English to see if there were any correlations between the two questions. Lastly, question five asks what their preferred platform for reading is. We wanted to see if there were any significant differences between digital and analog texts.

3.3.2 Teacher Interviews

When it comes to data collection methods, the first thing that comes to our mind is often interviews. This method of collecting data gives the interviewer access to people’s points of view and gives insight into the interviewee’s thoughts. Performing an interview is based on communicating with other people, listening to their viewpoints, and asking questions (Gleiss

& Sæther, 2021, p. 78). Researchers ask one or more participants open-ended questions and record them. One reason for asking open-ended questions is that when a researcher conducts qualitative research, the participant can voice their opinions and experiences without being swayed by the researcher's opinions or perspectives (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019, p. 252). It is common to differentiate between different types of interviews, for example, you can do one on one interviews or group interviews. Within each of these categories of interviews you can divide them further into structured, semi-structured, and unstructured interviews (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 79). Structured interviews are in short, interviews that do not change, all the questions are formulated in advance, and they do not change from interview to interview (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 79). Unstructured interviews are characterized by the researcher conducting the interviews in the participant's surroundings. Instead of using pre-planned questions, the researcher has thought out some key points to touch on during the interview (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 79).

Qualitative interviews are a commonly used research method and are often the first choice for researchers conducting qualitative research. This method has both advantages and disadvantages. One of the main advantages of conducting an interview is that it can provide useful information when the participants of the study cannot be directly observed. Additionally, interviews allow participants to describe personal information in detail. Compared to other qualitative research methods like observations, interviews give the researcher more control over the information gathered because the researcher can ask specific questions. (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019, p. 252). However, there are also disadvantages to conducting interviews as a method for gathering data. The researcher has summarized all information from the participants and, therefore, can be deceptive in the final version of the research report. The researcher must be aware that some form of bias might be present in the report. Additionally, data from the interview might provide what the participant wants the researcher to hear and can be deceptive (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019, p. 252). Researchers must be careful and realise that the participants might find it difficult to be completely honest in an interview and perhaps even be less articulate or perceptive because the researcher is present (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019, p. 252). As the researcher is writing a study report the interviewee might be affected by desirability bias.

As we intend to explore, semi-structured interviews are the best approach for our intents and purposes of answering our research questions. Semi-structured interviews are a mix of structured and unstructured interviews. Some questions are pre-planned, but you do not have

to follow the interview guide like in structured interviews. It is also common to ask follow-up questions during these types of interviews to elaborate on interesting topics that may come up (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 80). When we formulated our thesis question, we had in mind that we would get two or three teachers to agree to come in for an interview. Also, research question 2. *What are teachers' thoughts on working with extensive reading in the English classroom?* and research question 3. *Are teachers aware of the pupils' attitudes and motivations towards extensive reading when planning English teaching sequences?* are questions we expected could be discussed in different ways by each teacher. We felt that conducting semi-structured interviews would be the best course of action to get as much information as possible while also answering our research questions.

During our research, we conducted semi-structured interviews with two teachers, where we had pre-planned questions to guide the conversation. However, we also allowed for flexibility in the conversation in case the participants shared interesting viewpoints or aspects that we wanted them to elaborate on. The interview guide (see Appendix 2) was structured because we conducted two interviews, one lasted 15 minutes, and the other 35. The interviews were split into four parts. The first part of the interview focused on the teachers' attitudes towards reading. In the second part, we aimed to gather the teachers' thoughts on their students' attitudes towards reading. The third part was the most extensive, where we asked about Extensive Reading (ER). Finally, in the last part, we discussed the Mapping tool MRP-R and explored the benefits and potential drawbacks of using such tools to map attitudes towards reading. The questions were picked by going through the questionnaire we had prepared on the background of the MRP-R study. We also sent a draft to our supervisor and made alterations to the interview guide based on his comments. As we moved closer to the interview dates, we conducted a series of test interviews with fellow students so that we could be as prepared as possible. The sample of interview participants were the teachers who agreed to have their class participate in the questionnaire. Both teachers were informed of our thesis question two weeks before the interview.

3.4 Reliability and Validity

It is crucial to regularly evaluate and reflect on the quality of research, as it is always subject to evaluation and assessment. Therefore, any study should address the research's strengths and weaknesses, with particular attention given to the concepts of reliability and validity. This chapter will explore these concepts in detail.

3.4.1 Reliability

Reliability refers to the stability and consistency of scores obtained from an instrument (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019, p. 188). It means that when researchers administer the instrument multiple times, the scores should be almost the same, and the scores must be consistent (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019, p. 188). Gleiss and Sæther state that reliability is linked to the quality of the research process and whether the study is trustworthy (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 202). To evaluate the reliability of a research design we can answer two common questions: 1. How has the data material been influenced by the way it was collected? 2. Can other researchers replicate the results? (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 202). If we look at the first question, the goal is to be as objective as possible to minimise personal bias in the data material. Some pitfalls and dangers can influence the reliability of research. Examples of this can be:

- Items on instruments are ambiguous and unclear.
- Procedures of test administration vary and are not standardised.
- Participants are fatigued, nervous, misinterpret questions, or guess on tests.

(Creswell & Guetterman, 2019, p. 188).

Regarding whether the researcher can replicate the study and its results, the researcher needs to proceed systematically and thoroughly to explain how the data material was collected and analysed (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 204).

As this master's thesis is based on a mixed methods design, we have included a quantitative survey and a qualitative interview. According to Gleiss & Sæther (2021), quantitative research often shares criteria that are formed within the positivistic tradition of research, while qualitative research is frequently linked with the social constructivist side of research (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 202). Our research question is based on pupils' and teachers' attitudes towards reading, not on improving attitudes or uncovering bad habits. Therefore, we are trying to stay objective, linking our master's thesis to a positivistic tradition.

As we encountered the pupils for the first time when conducting the questionnaire, we attempted to maintain reliability by making pre-emptive conscious choices before we entered the classroom. We decided that we needed to make sure to explicitly tell them there were no "correct" answers in the questionnaire, that it was completely anonymous, and that their teachers would not see what they answered. Our belief was that because they viewed us as strangers, they would feel more comfortable answering honestly in the questionnaire. To make

the procedure as standardized as possible, we made a script to introduce the questionnaire to the pupils. The same person introduced the questionnaire each time with as little variation as possible. We also thought that the pupils could be tired or fatigued later during the day, so we asked if it would be possible to perform the questionnaire before lunch.

As outlined in section 3.3.1.2, we decided to use the MRP-R as the template for the first section of the questionnaire. We thought it was beneficial to use a premade instrument as our inspiration to streamline an already complicated design process. Using a premade instrument also provides increased comparability, which was seen as advantageous. To ensure more understanding among the participants, we conducted the questionnaire in their presumed first language, Norwegian. To achieve this, we had to translate the questionnaire from English to Norwegian. During the translation process, we meticulously crafted the questions, so they kept the same meaning and intent.

The original MRP and the revised version tested the reliability of the subscales through Cronbach's (1951) alpha. Cohen et al. (2018, p. 270) state that "the Cronbach alpha provides a coefficient of inter-item correlations, i.e. the correlation of each item with the sum of all the other relevant items. This is useful for multi-item scales and measures the internal consistency among the items". To ensure that nothing significant was lost in the translation process, we believe comparing our alpha with the MRP-R is beneficial. Cohen et al. (2018, p. 774) use the following guidelines for Cronbach's alpha:" >0,90 very highly reliable, 0,80-0,90 highly reliable, 0,70-0,79 reliable, 0,60-0,69 marginally/minimally reliable and <0,60 unacceptably low reliability".

Table 1 "Cronbach alpha comparison between studies"

alpha	*Rognmo & Schönfelder*	*Malloy et al. (2013)*	*Difference*
full scale	0,89	0,87	0,02
reading value	0,88	0,85	0,03
self-concept	0,78	0,81	-0,03

Our first section revealed an a = 0,89 for the full scale, a = 0,88 for the reading value subscale and an a = 0,78 for the self-concept subscale. These scores are, according to Cohen, highly

reliable. If we compare our alpha with Malloy's, there are minor differences in score. Our questionnaire scores 0,02 greater on the full scale and 0,03 greater on the reading value subscale. We scored slightly lower on the self-concept subscale with a 0,03 difference. In summary, there are no significant differences in alpha between MRP-R and our first section, which would indicate that our translation process did not significantly alter the internal consistency of the questionnaire.

We are aware that because we have previous encounters with the teachers we have interviewed, it might affect the answers they give. Answers from the interviews could be based on bias because of these previous encounters. Gleiss & Sæther (2021, p. 203), mention that the interviewee can be affected by how the interviewer asks questions in the interview. As our interview was semi-structured, it was difficult to keep it as standardised as possible as the answers were different. Each interview was different in the sense that we asked different follow-up questions. Like the questionnaire, the interview was conducted before lunchtime to reduce participant fatigue.

3.4.2 Validity

Validity refers to the quality of the data collected and the researcher's interpretations and conclusions (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 204). It's all about how the data material is connected. For instance, does the data collection method align with the thesis question? Do the researcher's ideas and conclusions validate the data material? Is the thesis addressing the thesis question? Validity in a positivistic tradition seeks to reflect on the knowledge acquired as closely as possible to how the world is (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 204). Construct validity is an essential term within quantitative studies; the researcher measures the data they intend to measure. To enhance the construct validity, the researcher can employ specific initiatives such as reusing questions from a previously well-tested survey (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 205). Also, if you are conducting qualitative research, *member validation* is vital to ensure high levels of validity in research. This can be done by simply asking the participants of an interview after the researcher has made their assumptions of the data material if they have any objections or want to add more to the material (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 205).

In order to strengthen the validity of our study, we have made several choices. Our thesis question was formed with our data collection methods in mind. How to ensure high levels of validity will vary depending on whether a study is qualitative or quantitative (Gleiss &

Sæther, 2021, p. 204). Our thesis question *What attitudes do lower secondary school pupils and teachers in the context of the Norwegian educational system have towards extensive reading in the English classroom?* seeks to get answers from two separate groups in the Norwegian school system, therefore we feel that we needed two different kinds of data collection methods, in turn meaning that a mixed method with a questionnaire and interviews would be a good way to answer our thesis question.

3.5 Research Ethics

According to Gleiss & Sæther (2021, p. 43), researchers have ethical obligations towards their study's participants, fellow researchers, and society in general. Our study is reliant on data collected from adolescents. Adolescents are a vulnerable group, and it is therefore especially imperative to address our ethical decisions. We made sure to address the ethical concerns by applying for approval from the Norwegian agency for shared services in education and research (*SIKT)* (previously known as NSD) See appendix 3. *SIKT* is Norway's major provider of consulting services related to safe handling of personal data in research. If your research project involves personal data, you must apply for approval from *SIKT*, regardless of whether you are a student or an experienced researcher. To apply, you need to fill out a form in detail, outlining your project. Once you have submitted your application, *SIKT* will assess your project and determine if you can proceed with your research.

Gleiss & Sæther (2021, p. 43) list three fundamental research ethics principles: informed consent, confidentiality and anonymization, and avoiding negative consequences for the participants. To uphold these principles, we have made a number of adjustments to the first drafted research design. Firstly, participation in our project is voluntary, and participants can revoke their consent to participate at any time. We have created a form that explains the overall goal of our project and the participant's role in it, see Appendix 4. In this way, the participants can understand what they are participating in and avoid any possible revocation of involvement. Gleiss & Sæther (2021, p. 44) state that potential research project participants must understand the scope of the research, how the data will be collected, how long the data will be stored, and who has access to the gathered data. We have addressed all these topics in the form to be as transparent as possible.

Secondly, we have ensured the confidentiality of the participants by keeping all the data anonymous, and access to the data is limited to the two researchers and our supervisor.

Thirdly, we plan to present the data truthfully to avoid any negative consequences for the participants. Our goal is to discover the habits and attitudes towards reading and present that data truthfully and without bias.

The fundamental research ethical principles on informed consent also apply to questionnaires (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 157). To ensure that the pupil participants understood what they consented to, we sent the consent form to their teachers two weeks before we conducted the questionnaire. The teachers were given instructions to hand out the consent form and ask the pupils to show their guardians. When we arrived at the school we asked for the forms and the ones who had it signed by their guardians were allowed to participate. As the questionnaire began, most pupils were able to get into the site without a problem, however there were some who needed help. If a participant needs help with reading or understanding a question, it might affect the anonymity of the participant (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 158).

We preserved the confidentiality of the interview participants by making sure no one except ourselves and our supervisor had access to the audio recordings. Once the interview was finished, we immediately submitted the interview to be transcribed through the *Nettskjema* app. Once the transcription was done, we went over the audio to check for mistakes. Once the interview was fully transcribed, we deleted the audio recordings. We as researchers have an obligation towards our informants to clearly state the purpose of the study we are conducting. According to Gleiss & Sæther (2021) the researcher must be aware that they are generally the ones who have more power in an interview situation. A researcher who is exploring attitudes and teaching practices at a school could be perceived as one who evaluates the school or a teacher's work (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 93). It is our responsibility as researchers to ensure that the information gathered does not compromise the anonymity of a third party. Teachers are bound by a confidentiality agreement and are therefore not allowed to give detailed accounts of a pupil in an interview (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021, p. 94). Our questions were not about any pupil in particular and we specified this to the teachers, that we would not ask any questions where they would need to compromise their confidentiality.

4 Analysis of the Data

In this chapter we will present and go through how we have analysed our data. Firstly, we will present our quantitative data from the questionnaire. Afterwards, we will describe the process of analysing the data from the teacher interviews.

4.1 Quantitative Analysis

To comprehensively address RQ1, we utilized a questionnaire as our method (see chapter 3.3.1). The quantitative analysis is divided into two parts: descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive analysis aims to provide a general overview of the data gathered from the questionnaire. The data collected from each section of the questionnaire will be presented separately in their respective chapters. Any significant outliers will be given additional attention and discussed in greater detail. The results from the MRP section of the questionnaire will be emphasised as the primary quantitative data, while the other sections is considered as supplementary information to the results of the MRP. Following this, the correlational analysis will delve deeper into the relationship between variables that we have identified as essential to answer RQ1.

4.1.1 Descriptive Statistics

Creswell & Guetterman (2019, p. 213) state that "descriptive statistics will help you summarize the overall trends or tendencies in your data, provide an understanding of how varied your scores might be, and provide insight into where one score stands in comparison with others. These three ideas are the central tendency, variability, and relative standing". Central tendency refers to mean, median and mode, these are summary numbers that show the distribution of scores (Creswell & Guetterman, p. 214).

The mean (M), the most widely used and popular statistic of descriptive statistics (Creswell & Guetterman, p. 214), is employed to show the central tendency of the data by providing an average for all the scores, calculated by dividing the total score by the number of participants (Creswell & Guetterman). The median, a statistic that showcases the middle of the scores, is determined by rearranging the scores from least to most and identifying the number in the middle (Creswell & Guetterman). Creswell & Guetterman (p. 215) highlight that the median is more appropriate for data with extreme outliers. Mode, the number that appears the most in

the data, is used by researchers to identify the most common answer among the participants (Creswell & Guetterman). While the mean is the most popular of the central tendency statistics, we believe that it is essential to showcase all three central tendency statistics to provide a comprehensive overview of the central tendency in the collected data.

Central tendency shows the most common answers in a distribution of scores, however this statistic can be misleading at times since it does not accurately account for the data variability. Variance, standard deviation (SD) and range are all measures of variability. Creswell & Guetterman (p. 216) state that "measures of variability indicate the spread of the scores in a distribution…This information helps us see how dispersed the responses are to items on an instrument". Creswell & Guetterman (p. 216) state that range is "the difference between the highest and the lowest scores to items on an instrument. The range is a basic statistic that is useful to show the variance and spread of scores in a dataset (Creswell & Guetterman, p. 216).

"The variance indicates the dispersion of scores around the mean" (Creswell & Guetterman, p. 217). The variance is found by finding the difference between the mean and the raw scores of each participant, then this value is squared for each participant, then these scores are summarized before being divided by the total number of participants minus 1 (Creswell & Guetterman, p. 217). Standard deviation is the square root of the variance and is a good indicator of the spread of the scores (Creswell & Guetterman). Skewness is a statistic that shows "how far the data are asymmetrical in relation to a 'normal' curve of distribution (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018, p. 727). This statistic can help determine whether the distribution of data is skewed in any direction and, if so, whether it is top-heavy or bottom-heavy. To provide an accurate overview of the spread of data distribution, we believe it is appropriate to showcase these four measures of variability. Since we intend to use correlational statistics in addition to descriptive statistics, we see no need to provide measures of relative standing.

4.1.1.1 Motivation to Read Profile

The first section of our questionnaire derives from the motivation to read profile (MRP) by Gambrell et al. (1996) and the revised motivation to read profile (MRP-R) by Malloy et al. (2013). It measures the subscales "self-concept as a reader" and "value of reading", as outlined in chapter 3.3.1.1. The following four sections will present the main data collected

from the questionnaire; this includes the two subscales, self-concept as a reader and value of reading. Additionally, one section compares the subscales and lastly, a section where total reading motivation is presented. Table 2 summarizes the main data collected from the Self-concept subscale in the main questionnaire while Table 3 showcases the main data from the subscale reading value.

Self-Concept as a Reader

As outlined in section 3.3.1.2, self-concept as a reader is assessed through reflections on self-perceived competence in reading and self-perceived performance compared to peers. Eccles (1983, p. 82) refers to the self-concept of ability as "the assessment of one's own competency to perform specific tasks or to carry out role-appropriate behaviors". Eccles (1983) further discusses the importance of confidence in own abilities in achievement behaviors. Therefore, measuring the participants' perceived competence and confidence in reading will reveal information on their achievement behaviors, i.e., reading motivation.

Table 2 "Overview of Self-concept"

Variable	*N*	*Mean*	*Median*	*Mode*	*Std. deviation*	*Skewness*	*Sum*
SC1	52	2.81	3	3	0.768	-0.193	146
SC2	52	3.25	3	3	0.813	-1.179	169
SC3	52	2.31	2	2	0.673	0.749	120
SC4	52	3.40	4	4	0.799	-1,595	177
SC5	52	2.62	3	2	0.82	0.168	136
SC6	52	3.48	4	4	0.896	-1.639	181
SC7	52	2.94	3	3	0.777	-0.679	153
SC8	52	3.21	3	3	0.750	-0.952	167
SC9	52	2.25	2	2	0.764	-0.189	117
SC10	52	2.4	2	2	0.721	-0.139	125
mean	52	2.87	2.9	2.8	0.778	-0.565	149.1

On a four-point ordinal scale coded from least positive to most positive, where the least positive answers are coded as the lowest numbers and the most positive as the highest numbers. Central tendency scores right below 3 indicate that the distribution of scores tends to the positive side. A skewness of -.565 reinforces the notion that the answers are mostly

positive, with the spread skewed to the left. With an average *SD* of .778, this shows that the distribution of answers is not too majorly spread which suggests that the mean of 2.87 is representative. This means that most participants have positive beliefs towards their reading abilities. Most of the variables are negatively skewed. Therefore, we believe it is imperative to look closer at those with skewness of over -1 and the question that is by far close to 1, that is SC2, SC3, SC4 and SC6.

SC2 is as follows: “When I come to a word I don’t know, I can…” with answer options being “never figure it out”, “almost never figure it out”, “sometimes figure it out”, and “almost always figure it out”. This item tries to elicit information on the participants' reading ability by gauging their supposed ability to decode language structures slightly beyond their current proficiency levels, similar to what Krashen posits in his input hypothesis as outlined in section 2.2. The frequency of SC2 is presented in Figure 1. Participants are represented on the y-axis and answer options on the x-axis for all histograms presented below.

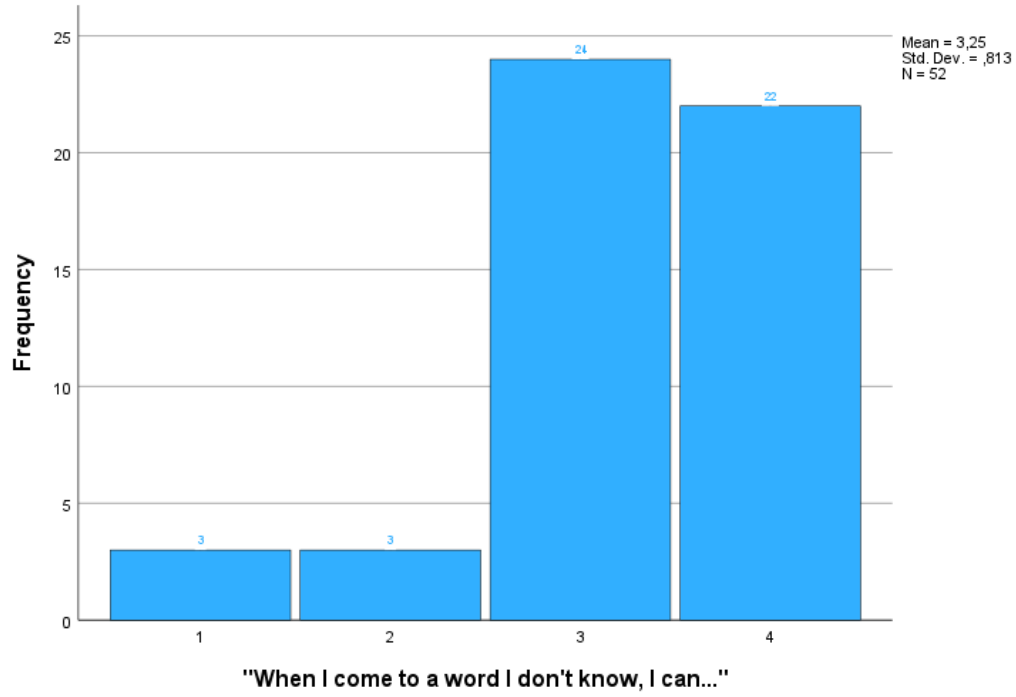


Figure 1 "Histogram of SC2"

For SC2, the mean was 3.25, which suggests the majority answered positively. A skewness of -1.179 supports that the distribution of answers skew positively. An *SD* of 0.813 indicates a small but no major spread among the distribution of answers. This can be seen in the histogram of SC2 as shown in Figure 1. Three participants answered that “they never figure it out”, three more that they “almost never figure it out”, 24 answered they “sometimes figure it

out", while 22 gave the answer that they "almost always figure it out". The majority answered positively that they either" sometimes figure it out" or "almost always figure it out". This suggests that most participants are confident in dealing with new words.

SC3 is as follows: "I read…" with answer options being "not as well as my friends," "about the same as my friends," "a little better than my friends," and "a lot better than my friends." This item is one of the few variables that is not heavily positively skewed and is, therefore, of interest. SC3 elicits information on the participants' reading abilities compared with their friends. The frequency of SC3 is presented in Figure 2.

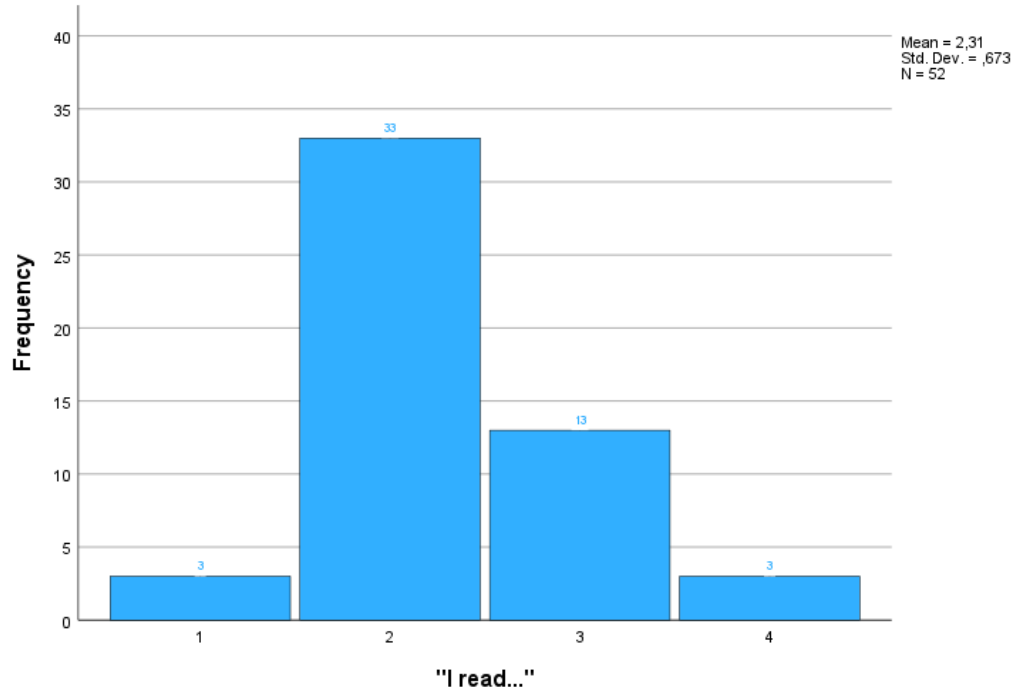


Figure 2 "Histogram of SC3"

The mean of 2.31 is the second lowest of all the other variables in the self-concept subscale. Both the mode and median are 2, and a clear majority answered option 2. 33 answered option 2 that they "read about the same as their friends", which is close to a neutral answer, so, understandably a majority chose this option even though it is anonymous. Three participants answered that they read "not as well as my friends", while 13 answered that they read "a little better than my friends", and three answered that they read "a lot better than my friends". With an SD of 0.673, this indicates that there is no major spread in the scores.

SC4 elicits information on much of the same in SC2, however the clear distinction is that reading in English is explicitly mentioned in the question. This question is a slight

modification from the MRP-R. In the original, they asked, “When I am reading by myself, I understand…” We slightly altered it to say “, When I am reading by myself in English, I understand…”. We thought it would be relevant to know if there was a major difference in answers from SC2 to SC4. The answer options were “none of what I read”, “almost none of what I read”, “some of what I read”, and “almost everything that I read” (see Figure 3).

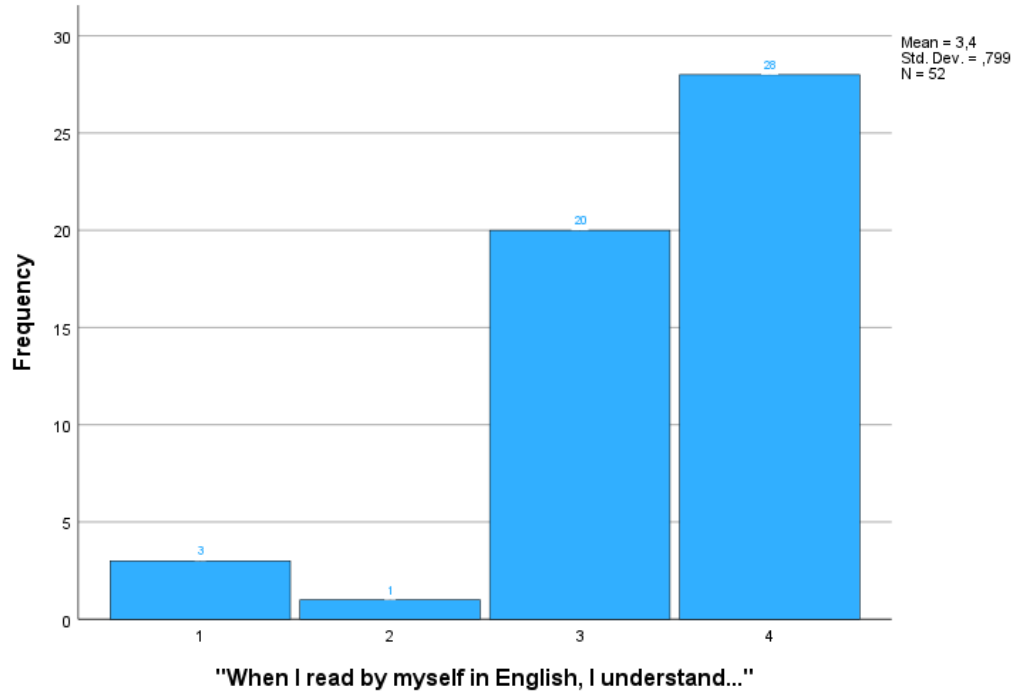


Figure 3 "Histogram of SC4"

Based on the questionnaire results, SC4 has the second-highest mean score among all items in the self-concept subscale, with a mean score of 3.4. Additionally, it has a median and mode score of 4, indicating a strong central tendency towards positive answers. Only three participants reported that they did not understand what they read, while one reported that they understood almost none of what they read. Among the participants, four seemed to have difficulty reading in English. On the other hand, 20 participants reported that they understood some of what they read, while 28 participants reported that they understood almost everything they read.

SC6 has the highest mean of all the items in this subscale (see Table 2) and is, therefore, an item of interest. It asks, “I worry about what other kids think about my reading”, with answer

options being “every day”, “almost every day”, “once in a while”, and “never”. Figure 4 displays the frequency in a histogram.

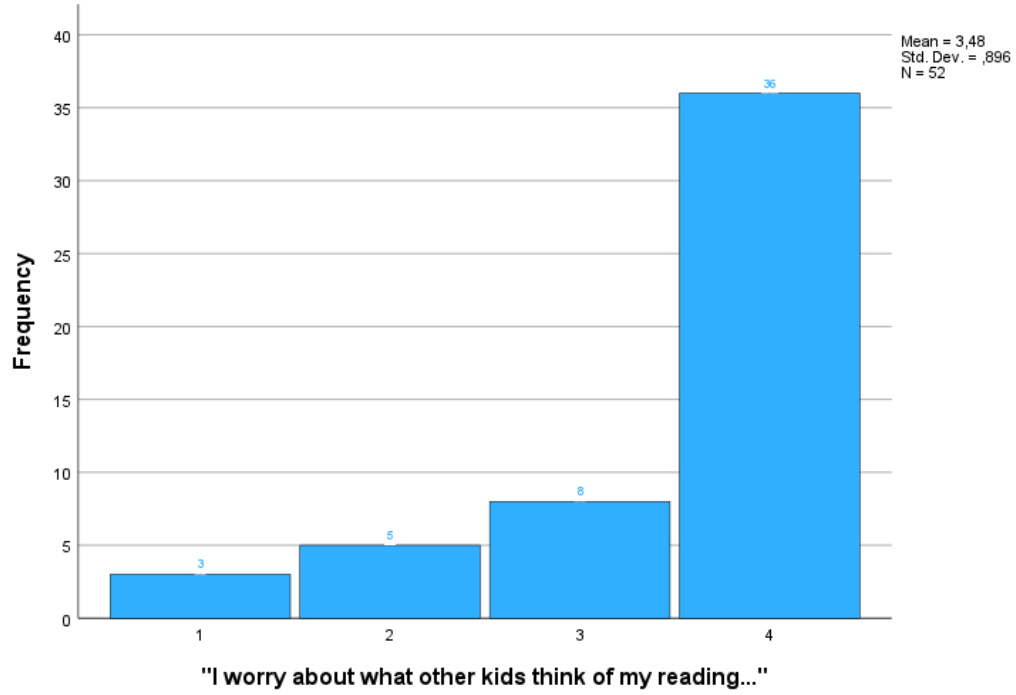


Figure 4 "Histogram of SC6"

A mean of 3.48 indicates that this item's results are heavily positive. With a mode of 4.36 participants answered that they never worry about what other kids think of their reading. And 8 answered that they once in a while worry about what others think of their reading. This result suggests that most of the participants are confident in their reading abilities, or it can suggest that most pupils are in a favorable class environment. 3 participants answered that they worry daily about what others think of their reading, which is concerning, but it can suggest that they also struggle with reading. This is consistent with SC2, SC3, and SC4, where similarly on each variable 3 participants reported the lowest number on these three items.

Value of Reading

As outlined in chapter 3.3.1.2, the value of reading is designed to elicit information on the value that is placed on reading tasks and activities; this will then give a score of their perceived value of reading. As mentioned, the subscales derive from Eccles's (1983) achievement model, where self-concept and value of reading describe the construct of reading

motivation. Therefore, a score in this subscale will partially explain the participants reading motivation. An overview of scores from this subscale is presented in Table 3.

Table 3 "Overview of Value of Reading"

Variable	*N*	*Mean*	*Median*	*Mode*	*Std. deviation*	*Skewness*	*Sum*
V1	52	2.38	3	3	1.013	-0.144	124
V2	52	1.88	2	2	0.758	0.479	98
V3	52	1.65	1	1	0.947	1.192	86
V4	52	2.58	3	3	0.750	-0.853	134
V5	52	2.12	2	2	0.808	0.015	110
V6	52	2.37	2	2	0.742	-0.115	123
V7	52	2.13	2	2	0.742	0.077	111
V8	52	2.37	2	2	0.886	0.075	123
V9	52	1.85	2	1a	0.777	0.278	96
V10	52	2.37	2	3	0.841	-0.174	123
mean	52	2.17	2.1	2.2	0.826	0.083	112.8

The mean of the "reading value" subscale is 2.17, with a median of 2.1 and a mode of 2.2, indicating agreement among central tendency statistics (see Table 3). An *SD* of 0.826 also indicates that the distribution is not too dispersed. A skewness average of 0.083 suggests that the scores are not too skewed one way or the other. Even though this is the case, some variables stick out, namely V2, V3, V4 and V9. V2, V3 and V9 all have means under 2, indicating an overall negative response. V4 is the outlier in this subscale since it is the variable with the highest mean of 2.58, making it an item of interest.

V2 asks, “My friends think reading is…”. This item elicits information on the reading environment surrounding the participant. A low score on this item would suggest that reading is not a priority in the class culture. The participants could choose to answer between “no fun at all”, “OK to do”, “fun”, and “really fun”. Figure 5 displays the frequency of V2.

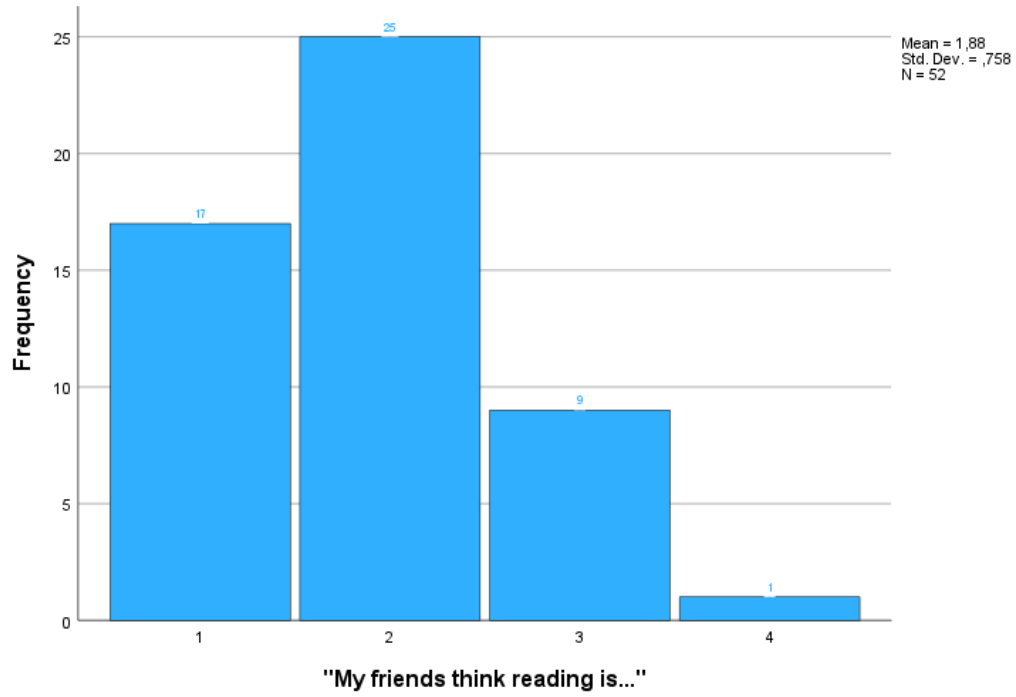


Figure 5 "Histogram of V2"

A mean of 1.88 indicates an overall negative response to this item. 17 participants answered that their friends find reading “no fun at all”, while 25 answered that their friends think reading is “OK to do”. 9 answered that their friends think reading is “fun”, while 1 answered “really fun”. A mode of 2 makes sense since most participants would probably think that “OK to do” would be more of a neutral answer rather than answering reading is “fun”. However, it is concerning that 17 think their friends don’t find reading fun at all since this would suggest that positive reading experiences are not prioritized in class.

V3 is interesting because it has the lowest mean of all the variables in the “reading value” subscale with a 1.65 *M* (see Figure 6). It asks the following: “I tell my friends about good books I read.” The answer options were “I never do this”, “I almost never do this”, “I do this some of the time”, and “I do this a lot”.

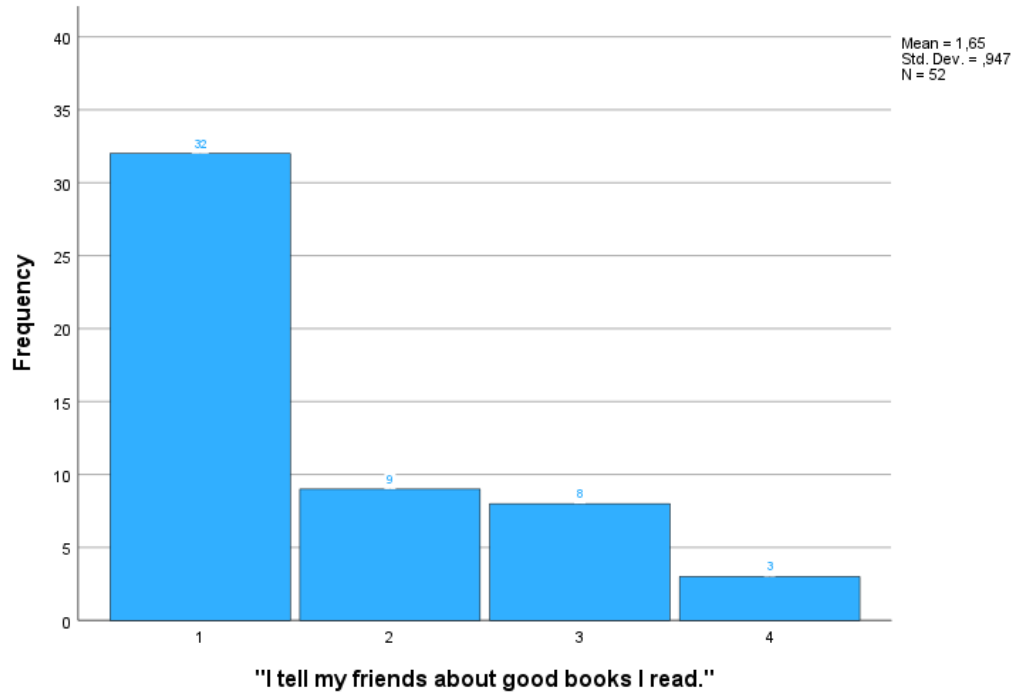


Figure 6 "Histogram of V3"

32 answered that they never tell their friends about books, while 9 said they almost never do this. The majority of the participants responded negatively to this item, which correlates with a skewness of 1.192, which skews heavily towards the negative. 8 answered that they do this some of the time, while 3 answered that they do this a lot. This item suggests, similarly to item V2, that perhaps free voluntary reading (see chapter *extensive reading*) and sharing positive reading experiences are not prioritized in their class culture.

V4 is presented in Figure 7 and is the variable that achieved the highest mean of all the variables in the "reading value" subscale with a 2,58. It asks, "People who read a lot are…" with answer options being "boring", "not very interesting", "interesting", and "very interesting".

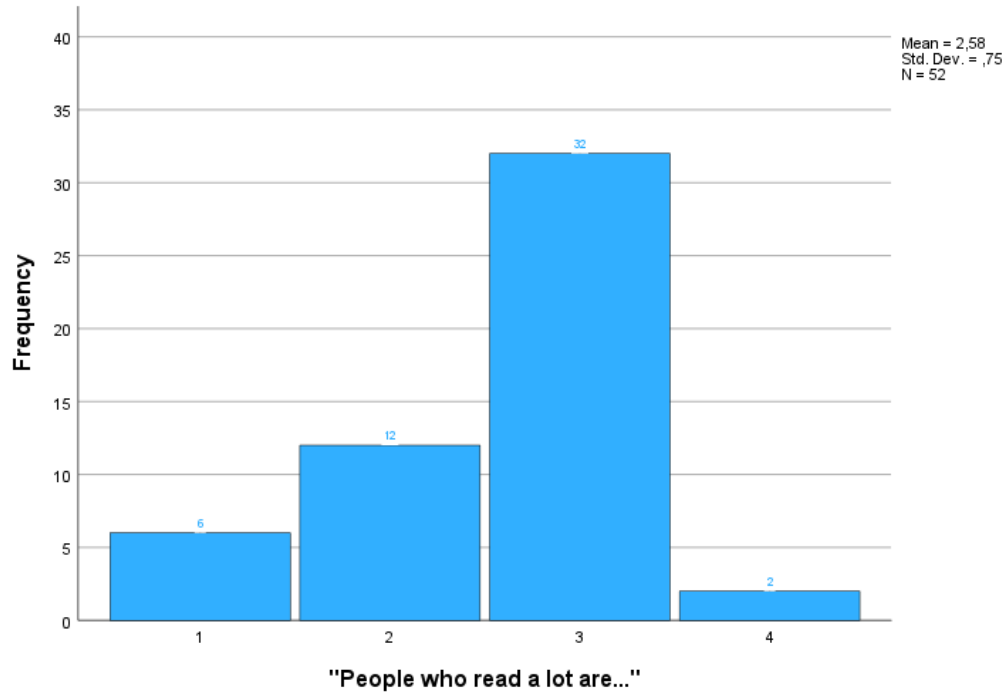


Figure 7 "Histogram of V4"

6 participants answered that people who read a lot are boring, while 12 answered that those who read a lot are not very interesting. 34.6% responded negatively to this item with either option 1 or 2. Notably, 32 answered that those who read a lot are interesting, and 2 answered that those who read a lot are very interesting. This variable is the most positively skewed compared to the other variables, with a skewness of -.853; the next closest variable is at a skewness of -.174. The results from this item suggest that most participants do not automatically associate reading with being boring, which is an uplifting sign.

V9 is an interesting variable since it asks, “In my spare time I spend…” with answer options of “none of my time reading,” “very little of my time reading,” “some of my time reading,” and “a lot of my time reading.” This variable tries to elicit information on whether reading is an activity emphasized in their spare time. The idea is that if reading as an activity is valued, it should be reflected in their leisure time. V9 is presented in Figure 8.

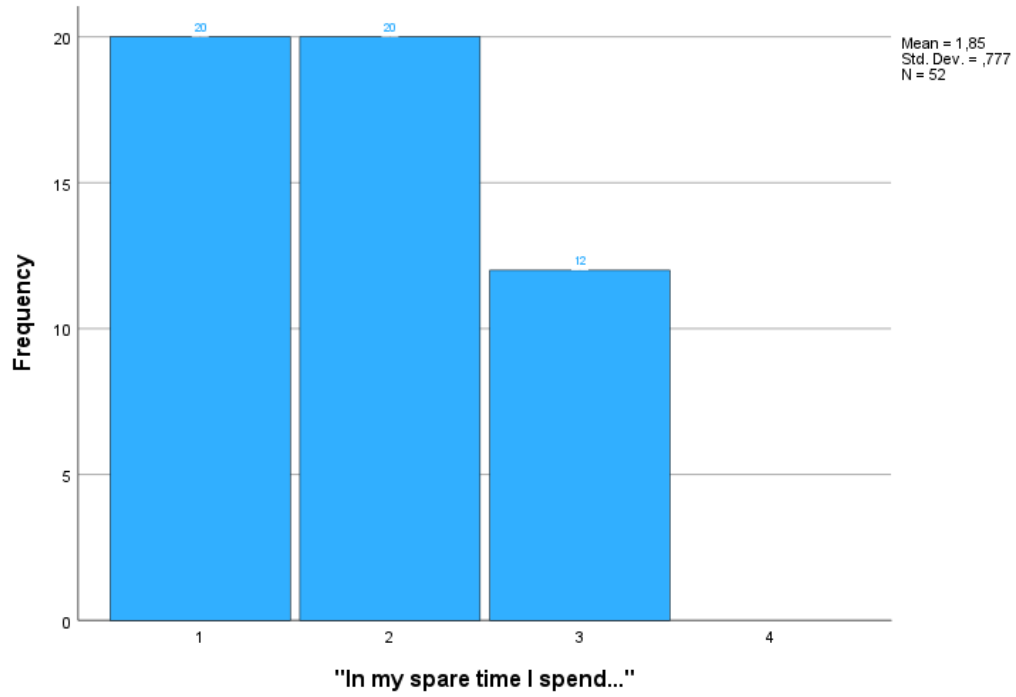


Figure 8 "Histogram of V9"

With a mean of 1.85, a median of 2, and a mode of 1 and 2, the central tendency agrees that the distribution of answers favors the negative side of responses. 20 participants answered that they spend none of their time reading, while 20 answered that they spend very little of their time reading. 77% of answers are negatively skewed as to how much they read in their leisure time. 12 answered that they spend some of their time reading, while none answered that they spend a lot of their time reading. This negative response to this variable suggests that the participants do not spend much of their free time reading.

Self-Concept as a Reader (SC) Compared to Value of Reading (V)

As stated earlier the two subscales self-concept as a reader and value of reading is measured to end up with a score of reading motivation. Since both subscales describe the construct of reading motivation, we thought it would be interesting to see if the distribution of reading motivation skews to one of the subscales.

Table 4 "Overview and comparison of Self-concept and Value of reading

Variable	*Mean*	*Median*	*Mode*	*Std. deviation*	*Skewness*	*Sum*	*Total score*
mean SC	2.87	2.9	2.80	0.778	-0.565	149.1	28.7
mean V	2.17	2.1	2.22	0.826	0.083	112.8	21.7
difference	0.70	0.8	0.58	0.048	0.648	36.3	7.0

The combined mean for all items in the self-concept subscale is 2.87, substantially higher than that of 2.17 in the value of reading subscale (see Table 4). With a median and mode of 2.9 and 2.8, respectively, in the self-concept subscale compared to 2.1 and 2.2 in the value of reading subscale, this showcases a difference in the distribution of scores between the two subscales. This distribution of scores indicates that the participants are more positive on their answers about their ability to read compared to the value they place on reading.

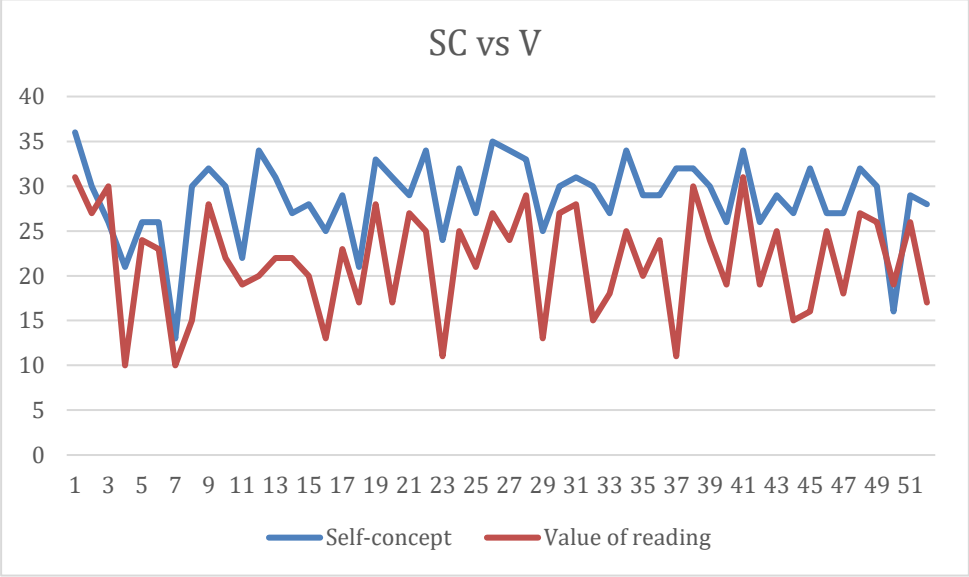


Figure 9 "Comparison of Self-concept vs Value of reading"

A Self-concept mean score of 28.7 out of 40 indicates that most participants respond positively to this subscale. A reading value score of 21.7 showcases a difference of 7 in scores between both subscales. This suggests that most participants assess their reading abilities as higher than the value they place on reading as an activity. As outlined in Figure “1?” only two participants scored higher on the reading value subscale than the self-concept subscale.

Total reading motivation

As outlined in chapter 3.3.1.2, we assess an individual's motivation to read by measuring the two subscales: “self-concept as a reader” and “the value placed on reading”. A total score of reading motivation is determined through these two subscales.

Table 5 "Overview of MRP scores"

Variable	*TotalSC*	*TotalV*	*TotalM*
Mean	28.7	21.7	50.4
Median	29	22.5	52
% of TotalM	57.4 %	42.6 %	100 %
Mode	30	25a	45
Std. Deviation	4.52	5.76	9.15
Skewness	-1.235	-0.373	-0.649
Range	23	21	44
Minimum	13	10	23
Maximum	36	31	67

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

As presented in Table 5 a mean score of 50.4 and an *SD* of 9.15 indicates a slightly negatively skewed distribution. A median of 52 and a mode of 45 slightly differ from each other, but a difference of 7 between the two measures of central tendency is not too major when the *SD* is 9.15. Although the statistics indicate a slight negative skew, it is minor. Figure 10 shows a fairly central distribution. The scores range from 23 to 67, a range of 44. No participants received either the minimum or maximum score.

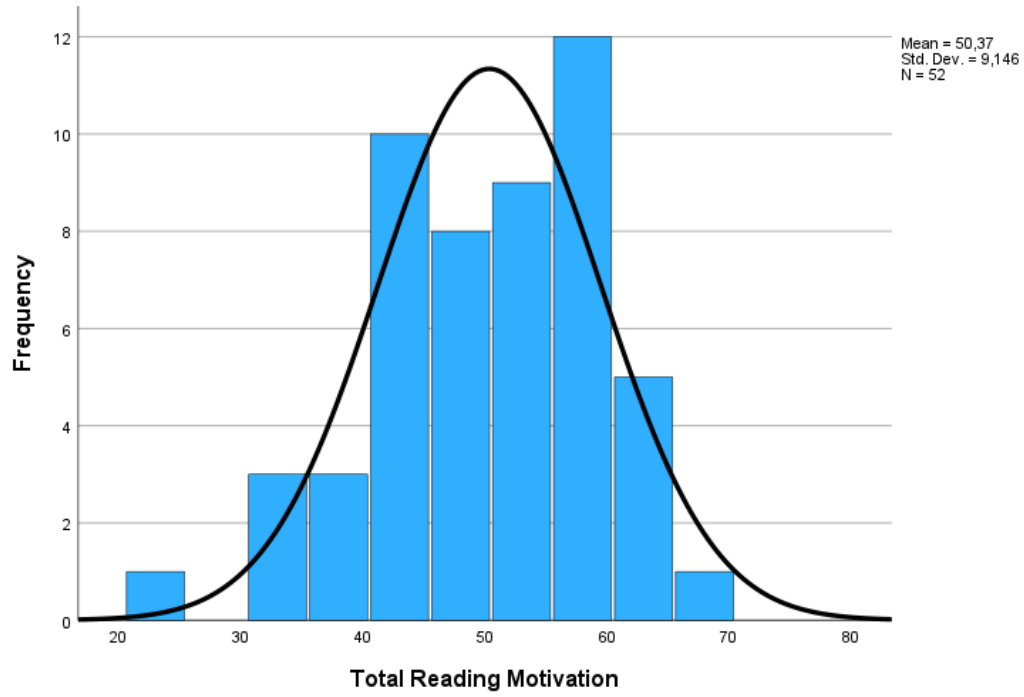


Figure 10 "Histogram of Total Reading Motivation'"

As mentioned earlier, most of the participants responded more positively to the self-concept subscale, which accounted for 57.4% of the total reading motivation. The remaining 42.6% was attributed to the value of reading subscale (see Table 5). Figure 11 showcases the distribution of scores between the two subscales among the 52 participants.

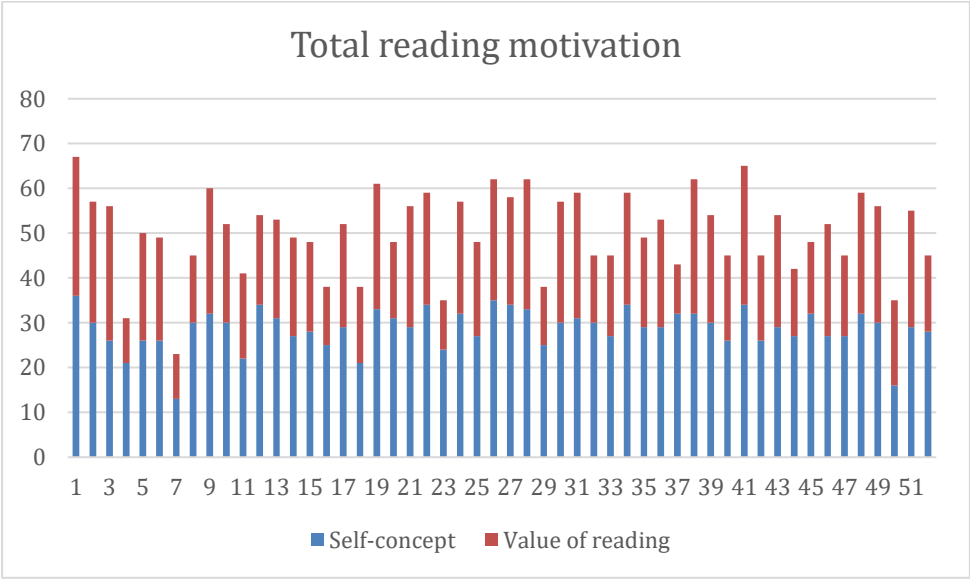


Figure 11 "Distribution of self-concept and value of reading compared to Total Reading Motivation"

4.1.1.2 Pre-requisite factors

For the last three sections of the questionnaire, we made an error when designing it that we didn't realize before it was time to begin analyzing. Unlike the structure of single-answer questions, we accidentally allowed users to answer multiple times a question. However, we found that only a few participants (around 1-2 out of 51 on each question) provided multiple answers. To ensure consistency in our analysis across different sections, we decided to calculate the average score for questions in which participants provided multiple answers. For instance, if a participant answered a question with 3 and 4, we recorded the average score as 3.5 instead of two separate scores.

Table 6 "Overview of Pre-requisite factors"

Variable	*N*	*Mean*	*Median*	*Mode*	*Std. deviation*	*Skewness*	*Sum*
pre1	52	2.91	3	3	0.862	-0.965	151.5
pre2	52	2.39	2.25	3	0.932	-0.046	124
pre3	52	2.37	2	2	0.945	0.115	123
pre4	52	1.76	2	1	0.866	0.861	91.5
pre5	52	1.89	2	1	0.867	0.465	98
mean	52	2.26	2.25	2	0.894	0.086	117.6

A combined mean of 2.26 among all items with an SD of 0.894 indicates a balanced distribution of scores. A skewness of 0.086 also indicated a fairly balanced distribution of scores, however slightly negatively skewed. Two questions stand out in the central tendency scores: pre1 and pre4.

Pre1 has the highest mean of all the items in this section, with 2.91. A skewness of -0.965 indicates a positive skew in the distribution of answers. Pre1 asks the following: "My teacher is concerned whether I read or not", with the answer options being "disagree", "somewhat disagree", "somewhat agree", and "agree". The frequency of pre1 is presented in Figure 12.

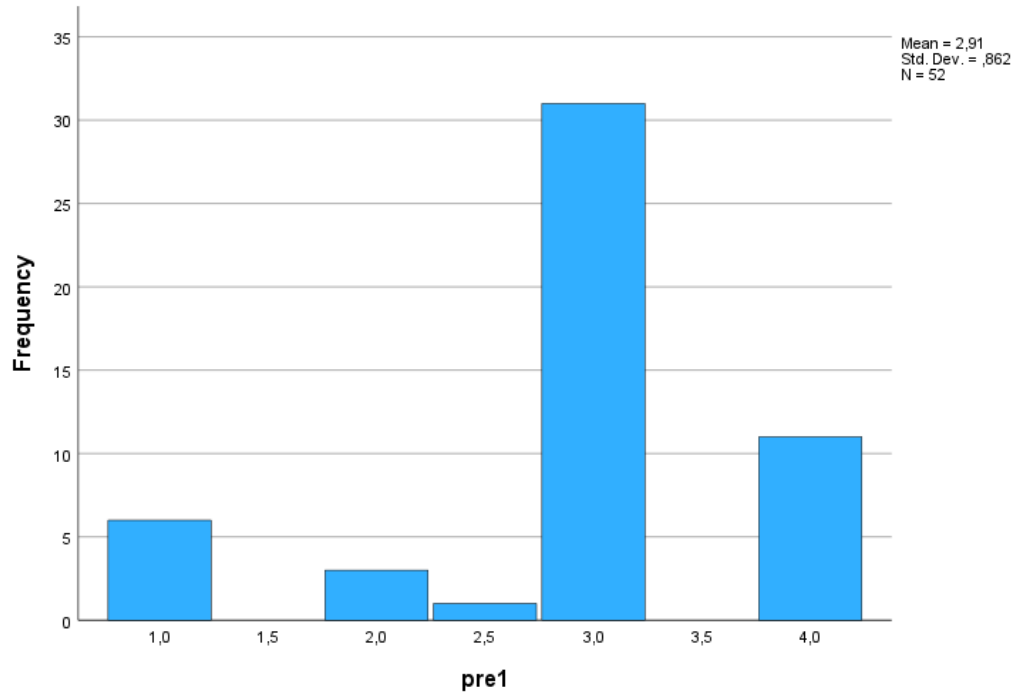


Figure 12 "Histogram of Pre1"

6 disagreed with this statement, and another 3 somewhat disagreed with this. 1 participant answered 2 and 3 which we interpret as the same as a neutral answer. On the other hand, 31 participants somewhat agreed with the statement, and 11 agreed with it. This means that 81.8% of the participants responded positively, indicating that most of them believe their teacher cares about their reading habits.

Pre4 had the lowest mean in this section, with 1.76 (see Table 6). The item was the following statement: “The library has many books I’d like to read,” with answer options ranked in accordance with agreement. Figure 13 displays the frequency of pre4.

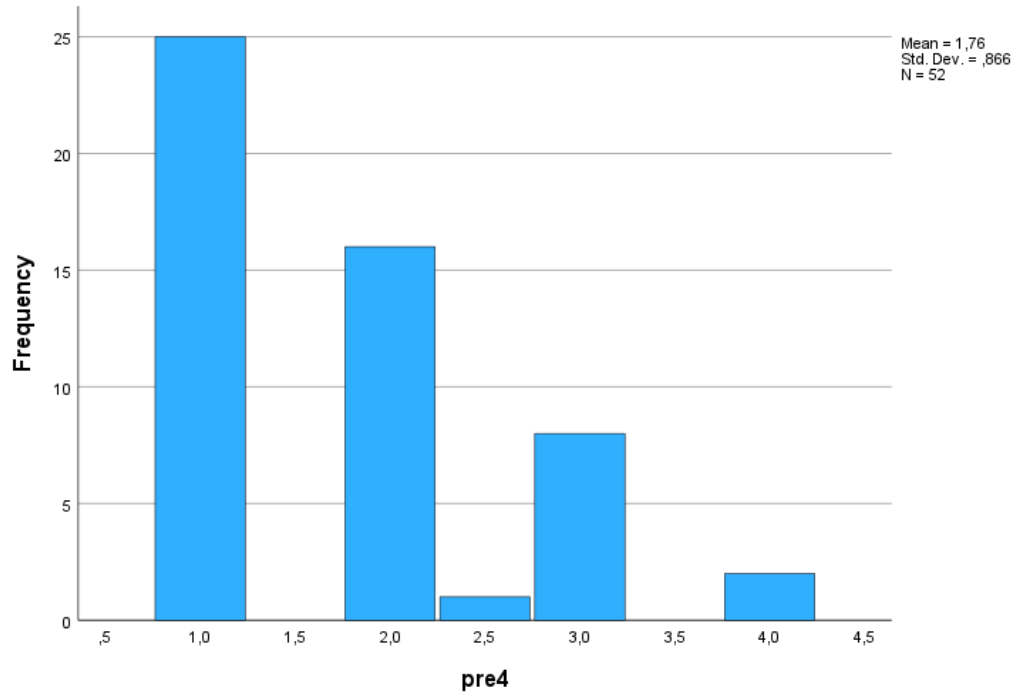


Figure 13 "Histogram of Pre4"

Out of 51 participants, 41 answered that they either disagreed or somewhat disagreed that the library has many books they would like to read. 1 answered neutrally, and 10 answered that they either somewhat agree or agree. A majority of 78.9% answered negatively to this statement, indicating that most participants believe that their school library does not have many relevant and interesting books.

4.1.1.3 Attitudes towards readings effect on academic achievement

As outlined in 3.3.1.4, this section tries to elicit information on whether the pupils think reading affects academic achievement. This section is similar to the subscale value of reading, however, it has a more direct focus on readings' effect on academic achievement.

Table 7 "Attitudes towards readings effect on academic achievement"

Variable	*N*	*Mean*	*Median*	*Mode*	*Std. deviation*	*Skewness*	*Sum*
att1	52	3.41	4	4	0.879	-1.643	177.5
att2	52	2.77	3	3	0.921	-0.299	144
att3	52	3.05	3	3	0.756	-0.913	158.5
att4	52	3.46	3.5	4	0.609	-1.269	180
att5	52	3.47	4	4	0.703	-1.346	180.5
mean	52	3.23	3.5	3.6	0.773	-1.094	165.75

As presented in Table 7, this section of the questionnaire has the highest mean score of all the sections, with a score of 3.23. The skewness of -1.094 indicates that the data is positively skewed. Notably, Att1, Att4, and Att5 garnered significantly more positive responses compared to the other items in this section. This makes these items particularly interesting and worth paying attention to.

Att1 recorded a mean score of 3.41, with a median and mode of 4. All central tendency scores show a positive distribution of answers. A skewness of -1.643 supports the central tendency scores by showing that the distribution of answers is positively skewed. Att1 asked the following: “You can learn a lot from reading.”, with answer options ranging from agree to disagree. Figure 14 presents the frequency of att1.

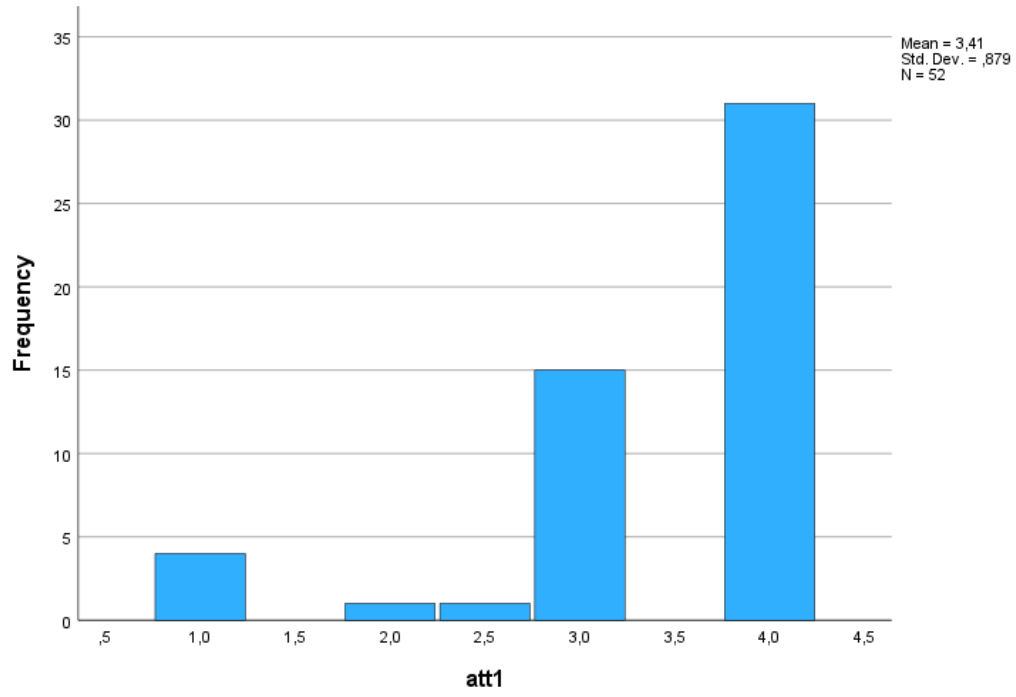


Figure 14 "Histogram of Att1"

Five participants responded negatively to this item, with one answering neutrally. Most answers were positive, with 46 participants responding positively. 88.5% gave a positive response, which indicates that most participants believe that you can learn a lot from reading.

Att4 was the following statement: “It is important for me to do well in school.” The answer choices ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. This item tries to elicit additional information from earlier sections of the questionnaire, such as if there is any connection between attitudes towards school and motivation to read. The frequency of Att4 is presented in Figure 15.

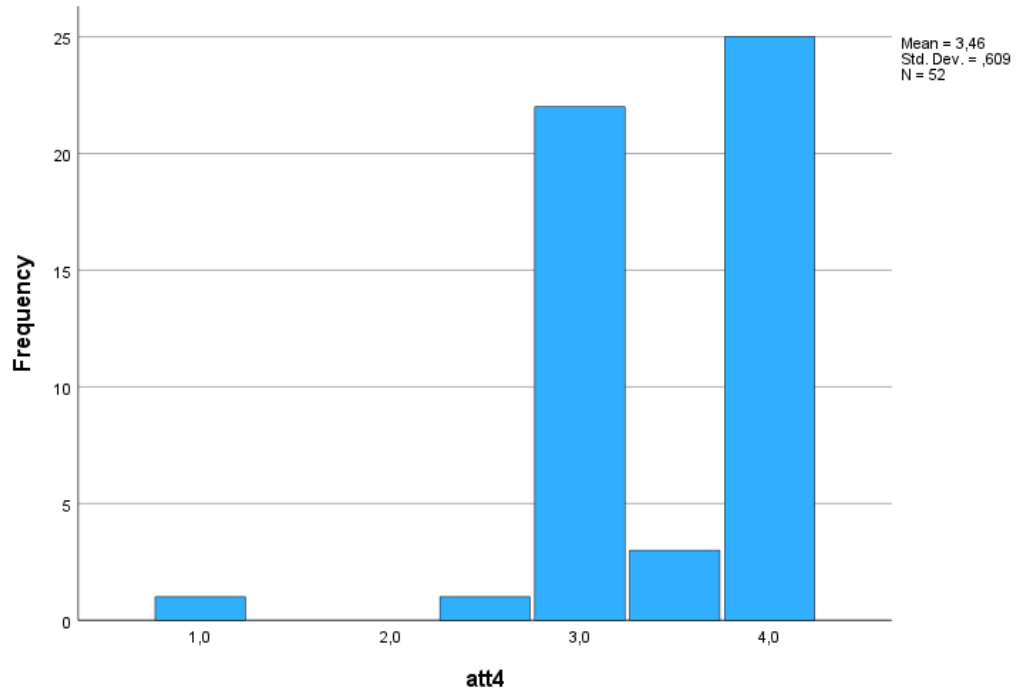


Figure 15 "Histogram of Att4"

Only one participant responded negatively to this item, with another one giving a neutral answer. 96.2% gave a positive response to this item, indicating a major agreement that it is important to do well in school.

Att5 is quite similar to att1 and is the statement: “Reading in English makes my English improve.” Again, the answer choices ranged from 1 to 4 in accordance with agreement. This item had the highest mean of all the items in this section with a 3.47 (see Figure 16). Mean and mode of 4 indicate an agreement among central tendency scores that this is a positively skewed distribution of scores.

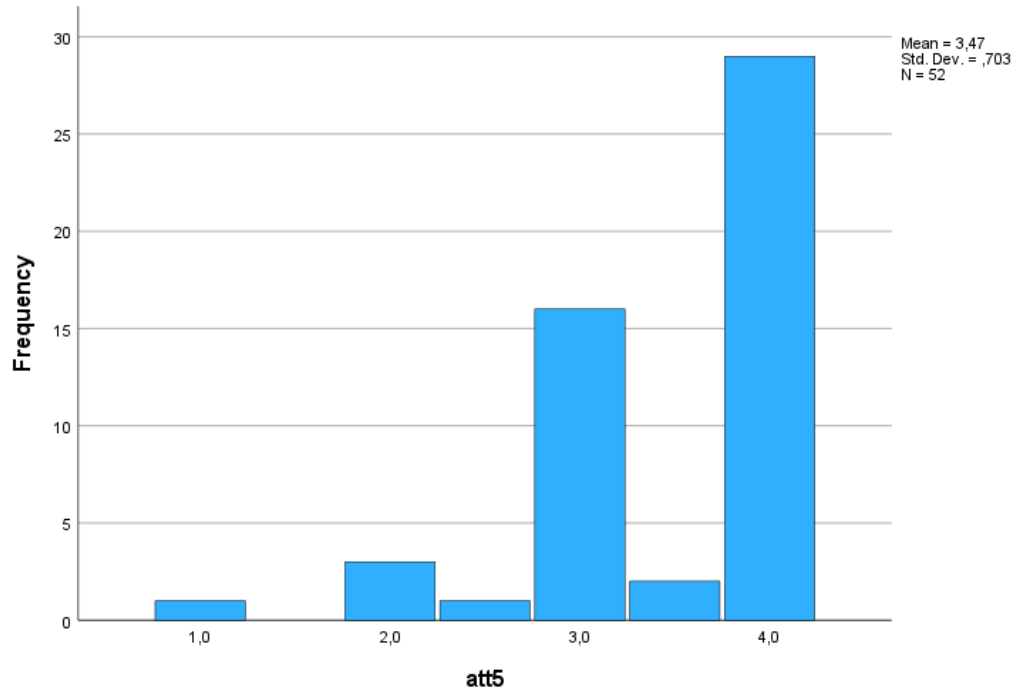


Figure 16 "Histogram of Att5"

Four participants responded negatively to this item, and another gave a neutral answer. However, 90.4% answered positively, suggesting that most participants believe reading English texts could improve their language skills.

4.1.1.4 Reading habits

This questionnaire section differs from the previous sections' structure. We figured that the structure of the questions needed some altering to get more accurate answers from the pupils on their habits. Multiple responses to each item seemed favourable to give the pupils room to give accurate assessments and answers about their reading habits. As this section differs somewhat from the rest of the questionnaire, we will present some of the data in pie charts, which we believe will make the presentation of data clearer. Question 1 asked “I usually read…” with 5 choices ranging from “every day” to “never”.

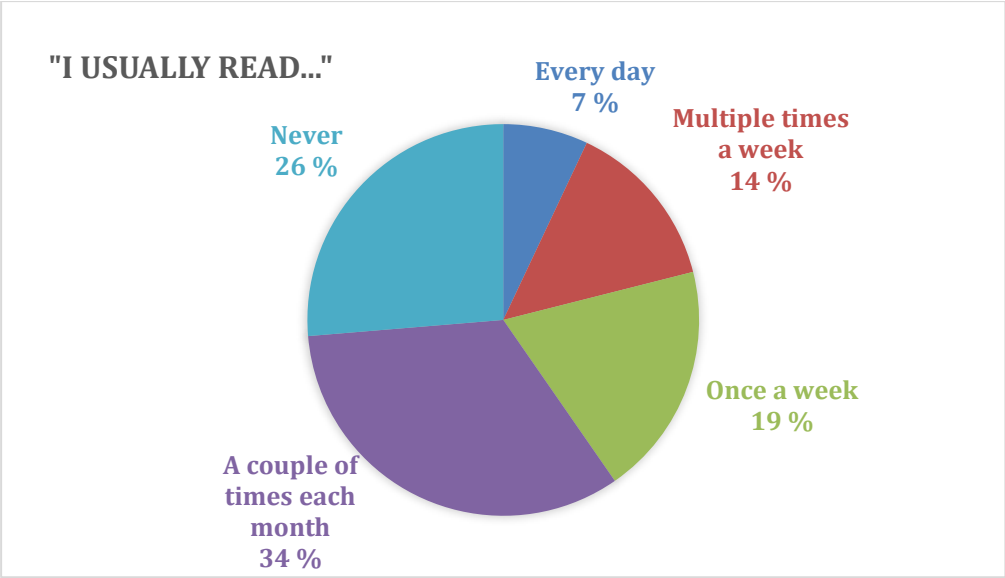


Figure 17 "Pie chart of Vane1"

Notably, 26% of pupils answered that they never read, with another 34% answering that they read a couple of times each month. It is somewhat concerning that a slight majority answered that they do not regularly read. 19% and 14% of the pupils reported that they read once a week and multiple times a week, respectively. Only 7% of pupils reported that they read every day.

The next question asked what language most pupils read in. As presented in Figure “12?”, a majority of pupils answered that they read in Norwegian, which is to be expected since it is their native language for most of them. Interestingly, 40% reported that they read most in English (maybe find a Norwegian study on increased English use among adolescents due to globalization, etc.). Another 6% answered that they read most in a language not listed in the options.

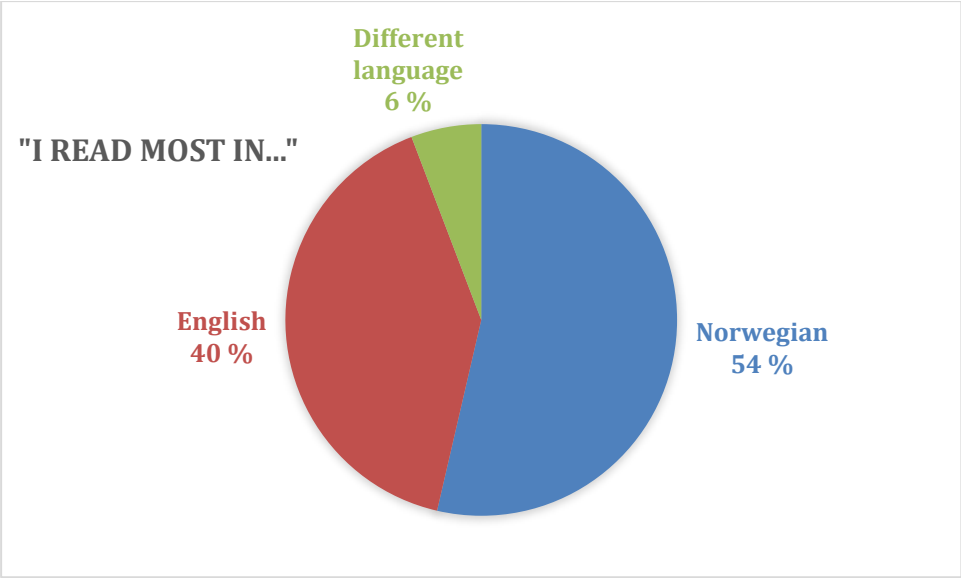


Figure 18 "Pie chart ofVane2"

Question three is a follow-up to question two, and it examined whether the pupils had difficulties reading English texts. The statement was: “I think it is difficult to read English texts,” with options ranging in accordance with agreement. As presented in Figure 19, most pupils disagreed with the statement, indicating that most do not struggle with reading English texts. 6% and 11% answered that they agree or somewhat agree that reading English texts is difficult.

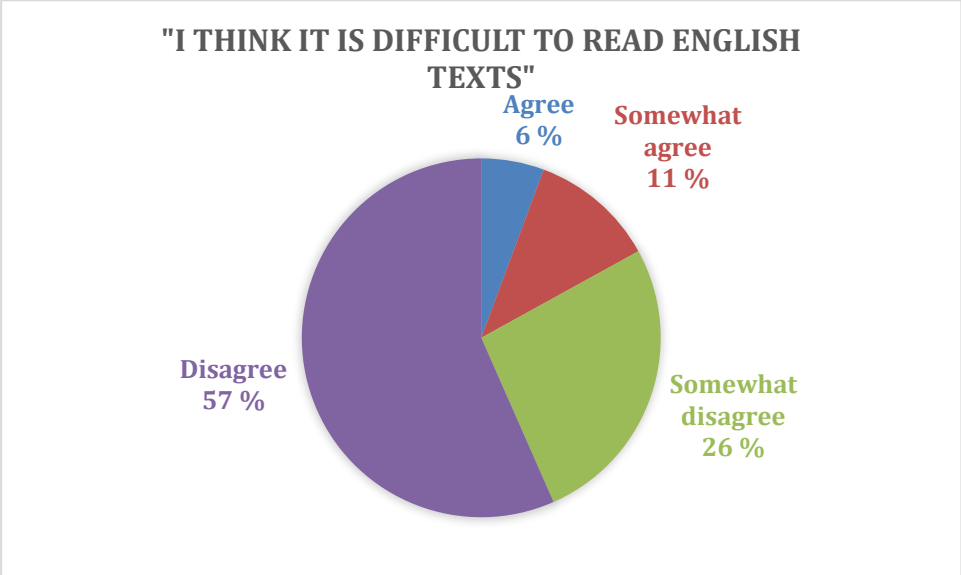
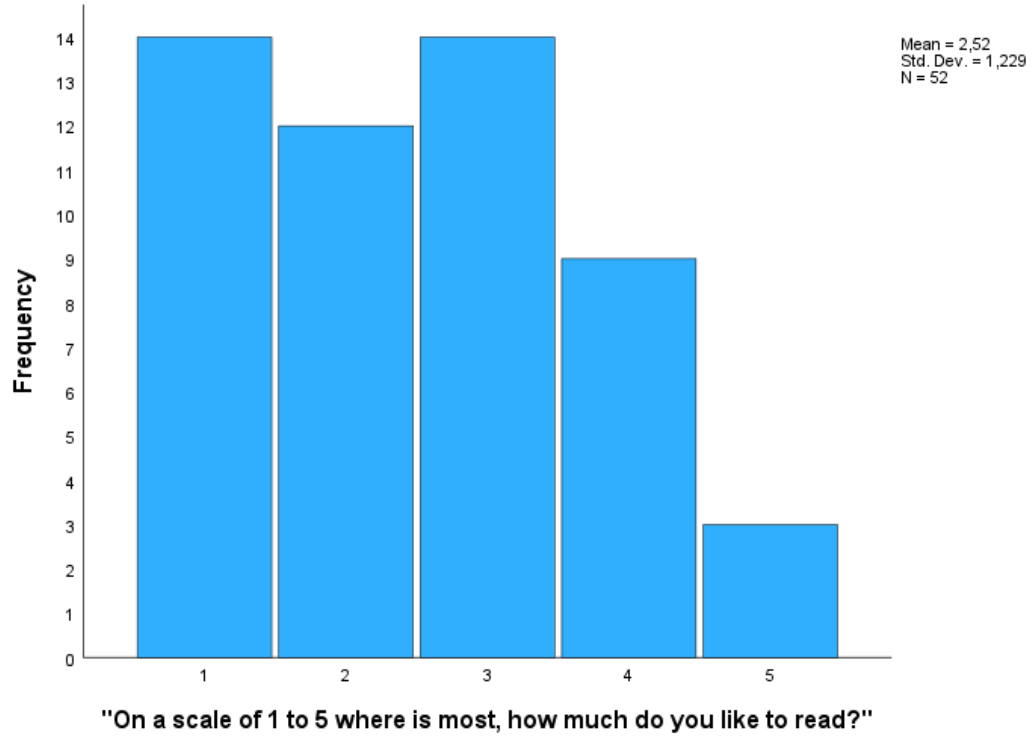


Figure 19 "Pie chart of Vane3"

The next question asked the pupils, “How much do you like to read?” on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 is the least and 5 is the most. A mean of 2.52 and *SD* of 1.229 indicates a distribution

of scores on the lower side. Only 14 out of 52 pupils answered either 4 or 5, indicating that they enjoy reading. Another 14 answered 3, which is the answer in the middle, indicating a neutral relationship with reading or the question. 26 answered either option 1 or 2, which suggests they dislike reading. In other words, 50% of pupils answered that they do not like to read.



Figur 20 "Histogram of vane4"

In the habits section, the last question asked about the preferred platform for reading. The majority of the pupils preferred digital texts, 49% of them choosing this option. 36% of the pupils preferred analog texts, whereas 6% chose an unspecified platform. 9% of the pupils answered that they had no preference.

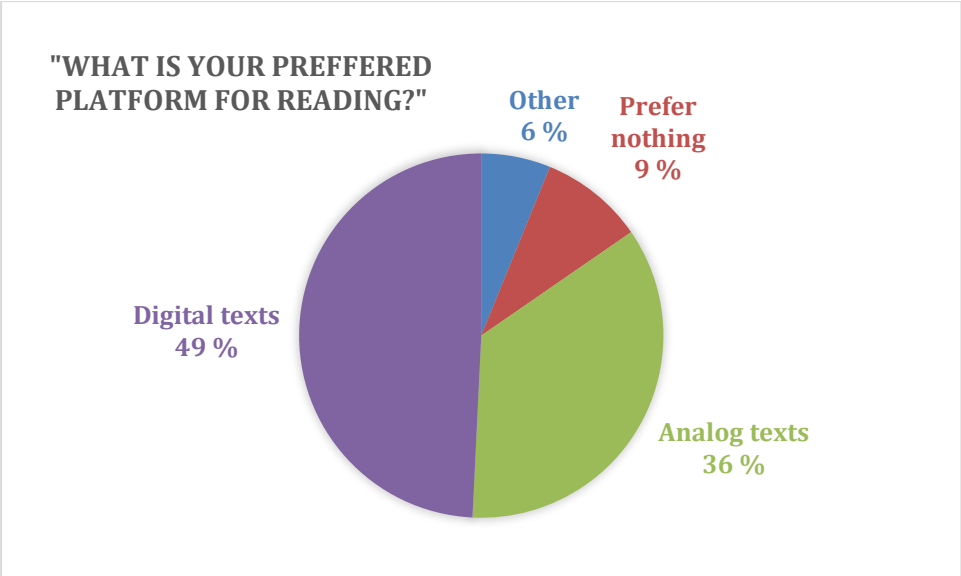


Figure 21 "Pie chart of Vane5"

4.1.2 Correlational Statistics

While descriptive statistics describes a data set, correlational statistics aims to discern the relationship between variables (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 765). Cohen et al. (2018) states that the two most used metrics to measure correlation are Spearman's rho (ρ) for ordinal data and Pearson's r for interval and ratio data. Since we primarily have ordinal data, Spearman rho will be used to examine the relationships between variables. Additionally, a Mann-Whitney U test will be performed to see if there are any significant differences between class 1 and class 2. The Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric test that reveals if there are any significant differences from one group to another (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 794).

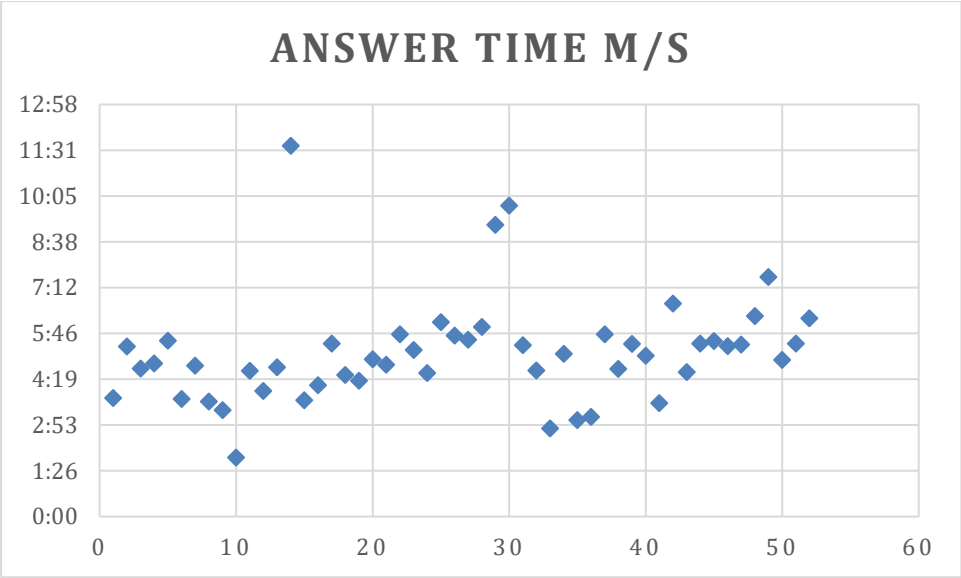


Figure 22 "Scatter plot of answer times."

In chapter 3.3.1.1, we mentioned that the questionnaire had been shortened because our advisor had recommended it. One of the reasons was that with fewer questions, the pupils would spend more time on each question. Another reason was that 50 questions could take too long and exhaust them, leading to incomplete answers. On average, each participant used 5:09 to answer 35 questions. This accounts for 8.8 seconds spent on each question. This could be due to the question's easy nature since we carefully crafted the questions so they would be easy to understand and respond to. To see if the time used affected any variables in the questionnaire, a Spearman's rho test seemed appropriate.

Table 8 "Time used compared to MRP"

Spearmans rho	*TotalSC*	*TotalV*	*TotalM*
Correlation C	0.001	-0.01	0.004
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.996	0.946	0.977
N	52	52	52

As presented in Table 8 all three MRP-R subscales score low on Spearman's rho which indicates that there is not any significant correlation between the scores of MRP-R and time

used. This somewhat increases the validity of answers because it suggests that even though the time used on each question is low, it did not have any noticeable effect on the answers.

Table 9 "Overview of Mann-Whitney U test on MRP"

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.[a,b]	Decision
1	The distribution of time used (s) is the same across classes.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.532	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of “Total self-concept as a reader” is the same across classes.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.955	Retain the null hypothesis.
3	The distribution of “Total value of reading” is the same across classes.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.621	Retain the null hypothesis.
4	The distribution of “Total reading motivation” is the same across classes.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.575	Retain the null hypothesis.

As outlined in Table 9, A Mann-Whitney U test performed on the MRP-R revealed that the distribution is the same across the two classes. All three subscales retained the null hypothesis, indicating no significant differences between the two groups. Since both independent groups have a nearly equal distribution, the sample is likely to be a good estimate of the population. Our sample size is too small to draw conclusions about the population. However, it is a good indicator of the validity of our data.

Table 10 "Correlation between reading frequency and MRP"

Reading frequency		
Total self-concept	Correlation Coefficient	-0.662**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001
	N	52
Total value of reading	Correlation Coefficient	-0.657**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001
	N	52
Total Reading Motivation	Correlation Coefficient	-0.729**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001
	N	52
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

After comparing reading habits with the MRP-R, it was discovered that there is a significant correlation between all three subscales (see Table 10). However, the Spearman rho score shows a negative correlation due to an error in the coding of vane1. Respondents who reported a higher frequency of reading were mistakenly given lower scores instead of higher scores, which is inconsistent with the structure of the rest of the questionnaire. Therefore, a score of -0.662 actually shows a positive association between the two variables.

Table 11 "Correlation between enjoyment of reading and MRP"

How much they like to read (Vane4)		
Total self-concept	Correlation Coefficient	0.591**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001
	N	52
Total value of reading	Correlation Coefficient	0.730**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001
	N	52
Total Reading Motivation	Correlation Coefficient	0.803**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001
	N	52
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

As outlined in chapter 2.7, attitudes affect reading habits. Therefore, we wanted to see if there was any correlation between MRP-R and vane4, which asked the pupils to place themselves on a scale from 1 to 5 based on how much they like to read. All three subscales got scores that showed a significant correlation at the 0.001 level. Total reading motivation recorded the highest rho score of 0.803, while Total value of reading recorded a slightly lower score of 0.730. Interestingly, self-concept recorded a lower correlation score than the total value variable, which indicates a stronger association between pupils who enjoy reading and those who value reading as an activity.

Table 12 "Correlation between school resources and MRP"

Whether the school library has an interesting book selection (Pre4)		
Vane4	Correlation Coefficient	0.353*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.01
	N	52
Total self-concept	Correlation Coefficient	0.651**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001
	N	52
Total value of reading	Correlation Coefficient	0.333*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.016
	N	52
Total Reading Motivation	Correlation Coefficient	0.599**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001
	N	52
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).		
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

Next, we wanted to see if there were any correlations between motivation to read and resources. Therefore, we compared Pre4, which asked whether the school library had an interesting book selection. Interestingly, the variables that showed the strongest correlation were self-concept and total reading motivation, with a Spearman rho score of 0.651 and 0.599, respectively. Interesting to note the gap between the two subscales of MRP, self-concept and value of reading. Self-concept scores considerably higher than in Table 11. This

could indicate that the books in the school library are not interesting, however, they are suited to the language levels of the pupils.

4.2 Qualitative Analysis

The goal of the study is to get insights into the reading habits and attitudes of both pupils and teachers, as our thesis question suggests. The qualitative part of our thesis is centered around the teachers and their views on extensive reading and what they have noticed in their classrooms. Research question two, *what are teachers' thoughts on working with extensive reading in the English classroom?* And research question three, *are teachers aware of the pupils' attitudes and motivations towards extensive reading when planning English teaching sequences?* Will both be answered by performing a qualitative analysis of the teacher interviews.

4.2.1 Analysis of Teacher Interviews

Analysing qualitative data is commonly said to consist of six steps. Creswell and Guetterman (2021) explain these steps: *Organize the data, explore and code the data, use the codes to build descriptions and themes, represent and report the findings, interpret the findings, and validate the accuracy of the findings.* (Creswell & Guetterman, 2021, p. 272). We used these six steps as a basis for analysing the teacher interviews. Research questions two and three will be answered by using the answers from the teacher interviews.

4.2.1.1 Organising the Data

Organising datasets is a crucial part of analysing qualitative data (Creswell & Guetterman, 2021, p. 273), the shortest interview consisted of 20 pages of text while the longest had 35. The interviews were recorded on an app called *Diktafon*, which is linked to the webform Nettskjema. That way, the data was directly transcribed into a text document, which allowed us to save a significant amount of time. However, we still needed to review the interview text to confirm whether the transcription was accurate. By re-listening to each interview while reading the completed transcripts we could confirm that they were correct. Throughout the interview, the interviewee made sounds such as "uhm" and "hmm", which are commonly used in oral communication. Gleiss & Sæther (2021, p. 98) state that such words might be unnecessary to include, unless they indicate that the informant is unsure or need time to think about their answer. We first made the decision to remove most of these utterances to make the

transcript easier to read and analyse. However, we finally decided that it should remain in the transcript as it indicated that the interviewee was unsure or needed to think about their answers, and that this information was important to include. As a measure to make the transcripts easier to read for us, we wrote the transcript in one of the standard Norwegian written languages (Bokmål), as it would make it easier for us to read and translate later. We ensured a separate document and a backup file for each interview. We decided early on that analysing by computer would be the best approach. The data analysis program *NVivo* has several useful features that makes it easier to review and categorize data. It is also a program that is offered to UIT's students by applying for approval. *NVivo* also supports quantitative data, making it an ideal mixed-method project program. Also, it allows us as researchers to work together as it has a teamwork feature that allows us to collaborate on the analysis process.

4.2.1.2 Exploring and Coding the Data

We started analysing the data by reading the transcription multiple times, which helped us become familiar with the data material and create codes based on the information. After a preliminary review of the data, we decided to perform a member check. Member checking is a qualitative process where the researchers ask one or more study participants to verify the accuracy of the account (Creswell & Guetterman, 2021, p. 679). The reason for member checking was to clarify some of the data from the interview. Initially, we created seven codes for each interview to divide the text into smaller segments. After reviewing the text a few more times, we ended up with 23 codes.

4.2.1.3 Building Themes

During our interviews, we used codes to identify broader themes. Initially, we created 23 codes through data analysis. We then eliminated redundancies and narrowed down the codes to create five to seven major themes. The difference between codes and themes can be said to be codes aggregated together for to form a major idea in the database (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019, p. 281). For example, one of the themes "reading skill" consisted of the codes *reading strategies, experience, time spent reading,* and *understanding.* We identified five major themes: extensive reading, attitudes towards reading, reading skill, reading habits, and reading motivation. These themes also include sub-themes such as positive and negative attitudes towards reading. After several rounds of rereading our transcripts, we decided we

had reached saturation, which Creswel & Guetterman (2019), define as the point where the researcher has identified the major themes, and no new information can add to the list of themes or to the detail for existing themes. Further, by checking with the participants we decided that we had adequately specified and fleshed out our themes.

4.2.1.4 Representing and Reporting the Findings

To represent our findings, we made comparison tables. This allowed us to see what each teacher said about each theme and compare the answers. It also allowed us to go into each theme in detail, which is important for answering our research questions. One drawback of this method is that it may lose the overall perspective of the statements. We will go into more detail about the findings in chapter 5.

4.2.1.5 Interpreting the Findings

When interpreting the findings, we used the comparison tables that we created and combined the findings with the quantitative survey results to answer our research questions. As an example of how the comparison tables look like we have included Table 10 below. After we coded the interviews and identifying the themes we went through each of the interviews to compare the answers from both teachers. Each column contains all the answers from a teacher. Every row contains the answer to one question in the interview. Since we conducted semi-structured interviews some of these questions were differently phrased or entirely different, depending on how each teacher answered to the questions that were prepared before the interview took place.

Table 13 13 "Teacher interview findings"

Teacher 1's statements about motivation to read	**Teacher 2's statements about motivation to read**
It is motivating to read something you are genuinely interested in. Their motivation to read will also increase accordingly.	If you allow the pupils to work with a self-chosen book, their motivation to read will probably be higher, but assessing their work will be significantly harder.

The theme is important; it needs to be something the pupils can relate to so the text will interest them more this way.	Choosing the right theme and method of working with a text is important to raising pupils' motivation levels. Some might prefer to read a text, while others like to use different methods, such as role-playing or listening to an audio book.
As a teacher, school is an arena where the teacher can influence and decide what and how the pupils learn. I can motivate the pupils when I prepare a lesson, but it is important to do some preparation work in advance.	If I were to generalise the pupil's motivation to read, I would say it is low. However, there are exceptions; some love to read, but as I said, the majority do not like it. As it stands today, more and more people are weaker readers, and because of this, they experience less sense of mastery, which makes it harder, and they become less motivated.

Based on their statements regarding pupil motivation, both teachers place a high value on motivating pupils and how the teachers can achieve it within the pupils. They believe that choosing themes that the pupils can relate to and a teacher being able to adapt their teaching style to the class is key. Teacher 2 has observed that many pupils lack the desire to read and therefore are less motivated, making it difficult for them to read. On the other hand, Teacher 1 suggests that if they prepare a good session, teachers can motivate the pupils to read.

4.2.1.6 Validating Accuracy of the Findings

Throughout data collection and analysis, you need to ensure that your findings and interpretations are accurate (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019, p. 297). Validating findings means that the researcher must determine whether the findings are accurate and credible. One way this can be done by using member checks or triangulation (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019, p. 297). As we mentioned earlier, we conducted member checks. After reading through the transcripts, analysing them, and creating both codes and themes, we decided it would be a good idea to check whether the teachers wanted to add to the data material.

In the next chapter, we will present our findings from the qualitative interviews and the quantitative questionnaire, combining the two methods and the results of the study.

5 Findings

Our master's thesis seeks to investigate the following question: What attitudes do lower secondary school pupils and teachers in the Norwegian educational system have towards extensive reading in the English classroom? Based on our data collection methods, we have made five findings that we feel represent and are suitable for answering our thesis question. This section will entail our findings from the questionnaire and our interviews with the teachers.

Every item from the data collection has been translated from Norwegian to English, we acknowledge the possibility that some meaning might be lost in translation. The reason for conducting a mixed-method design was that we wanted to investigate pupils' reading attitudes and see if teachers had some insight into their pupils' attitudes towards reading. We had made some hypotheses about what we were going to find beforehand, and some of these were, to some extent, correct assumptions based on the data material.

5.1 Finding 1: Pupils Find Reading to be a “Boring” Activity.

Finding 1 is that pupils find reading boring. Teachers propose that reading is replaced by digital media such as TV and social media.

In the interviews, we asked the teachers what kind of attitudes the pupils had towards reading, and they both agreed that most pupils had a negative attitude towards reading. Teacher 1 responded, “Most of my class’s pupils do not like to read. Call it the public perception of what reading is. Many immediately think of long and boring texts, which is tough.”. Teacher 2 answered, “The attitudes toward reading in English is something you can generalize across the entire 9th grade at this school. They are reluctant to read longer texts, mostly because of the volume, and they find it boring. They do not get enough mental stimuli from it, that is my interpretation”. When asked about why the pupils do not get enough stimuli from reading, teacher 2 answered:

“Today, social media and TikTok allow pupils to get daily English input. Those pupils who don’t read and only get input from social media often struggle to read longer texts and easily get distracted.”

We asked teacher 2 about whether increasing the pupil's attention span is a possible skill to develop through practice. The response was, “That is a difficult question to answer, but I believe there are several factors involved, however I believe that it is a skill that can be developed. If you have the skills to search for information, skim-read etc. I believe that they will enjoy reading way more. Thus, increasing their attention span to be able to read longer texts.”. Furthermore, adding that “When pupils encounter a longer text, they often respond with *oh my god, do I need to read all of this?* Instead of just beginning to read or finding out what tasks they need to complete. I have experienced pupils finding reading to be a boring activity, but also that they do not have enough reading strategies to read effectively.”

Results from the questionnaires support the teacher's beliefs that many pupils experience reading as boring. As presented in Figure 24 When asked what they think of spending time reading, 69% of pupils answered either really boring or boring. A similar question was asked later in the questionnaire to account for the validity of answers in question V7. The pupils were asked how much they like to read on a scale from 1 to 5, where 5 is the most and 1 is the least. This item allowed for a somewhat neutral answer in 3, and 27% elected to use this response. 50% answered either 1 or 2, which indicates that they do not like reading, while 23% answered either 4 or 5, which would indicate that they like to read. Comparing results from the two questions shows a decrease in top-heavy answers with the option of answering straight in the middle. However, the majority of pupils answered both questions on the bottom scale. We interpret these results to show that most pupils do not enjoy reading because they find it boring. This also implies that pupils do not engage in extensive reading.

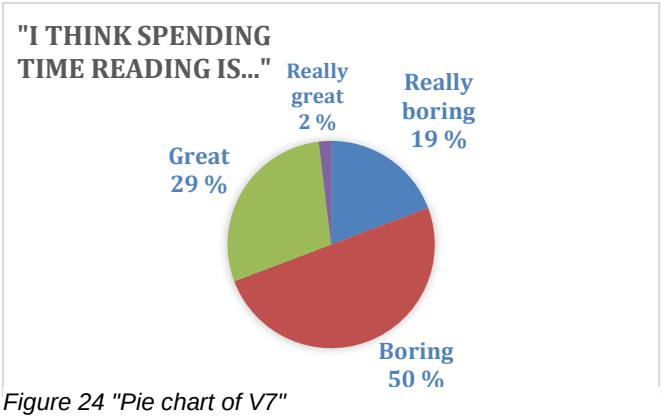


Figure 24 "Pie chart of V7"

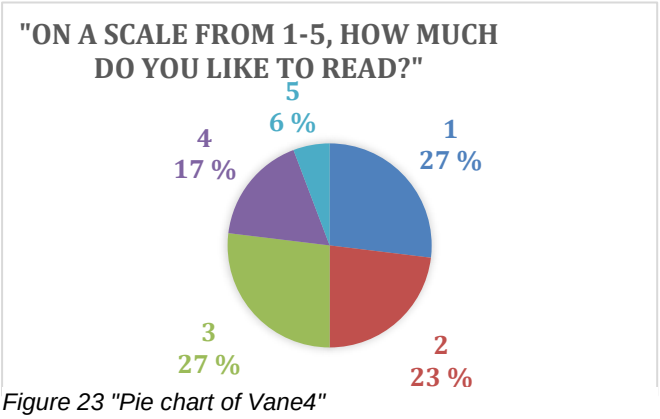


Figure 23 "Pie chart of Vane4"

The questionnaire also tries to elicit information about the possible reasons for the attitudes displayed towards reading, whether positive or negative. Eccles's (1983) achievement model states that expectancy towards a task is important in motivation-related behavior. These

expectancies are influenced most by self-concept of ability and the value placed on the task. These two factors are measured in the first section of the questionnaire and will be discussed in Finding 2.

5.2 Finding 2: Pupils Rate Their Reading Abilities Higher Than the Value of Reading

In a self-assessment of their self-concept as readers and the value of reading, pupils assess their reading capabilities to be higher than the value of reading. As presented in Figure 9, only 2 pupils assess the value of reading to be higher than their self-concept as readers. The remaining 50 pupils all gave higher scores on self-concept as opposed to the value of reading. A seven-point mean difference between the two subscales indicates a clear skew in distribution between the two subscales. This could suggest that the Norwegian educational system may not be adequately emphasizing the importance and benefits of reading.

5.3 Finding 3: Pupils Are Not Very Motivated to Read

Finding 1 suggests that most pupils find reading to be a boring activity, and that they prefer other activities during their leisure time. Consequently, finding 3 suggests that the motivation to read is also declining for pupils. Whether that is because of pupils' declining reading habits and attitudes can be up for discussion.

We asked the interviewees whether they thought that their pupils were motivated to read in their English sessions, teacher 1's response was "The pupils who like English as a subject more than Norwegian often tend to be more motivated to read in English. They often have more confidence when it comes to expressing themselves." While teacher 2's response was:

> "If I were to generalise the pupils' motivation to read, I would say it is low. However, there are exceptions, some love to read, but as I said, the majority do not like it. As it stands today, more people are weaker readers, and because of this they experience less sense of mastery, which makes it harder to be motivated to read."

We asked the teachers if they used any methods to motivate the pupils to read. Teacher 1's response was "The theme is important; it needs to be something that the pupils can relate to so the text will interest them more. It is motivating to read something you are genuinely interested in. Their motivation to read will also increase accordingly.", teacher 2 answered

“Choosing the right theme and method of working with a text is important to raising pupils' motivation levels.” We asked for some methods that they used in class, “Some might prefer to read a text, while others like to use different methods such as role-playing or listening to an audiobook.”. We asked if they let the pupils choose their own books when they read during class, or if they had a reason not to use self-chosen books. He answered, “If you allow the pupils to work with a self-chosen book, their motivation to read will probably be higher, but assessing their work will be significantly harder.”.

We can see that both teachers have experienced pupils lacking motivation to read in their sessions, they both place a high value on choosing themes that interest the pupils. While they might want to let the pupils choose their own books, it places a strain on the teacher and makes it harder to create tasks that they can assess fairly.

As outlined earlier in 3.3.1 we assess the pupils' reading motivation through a questionnaire in which the pupils assess themselves on two subscales: “self-concept as a reader” and “value of reading.” A mean of 50.37, median of 52 and mode of 45 indicates a slight spread among the measures of central tendency. An SD of 9.1 would suggest that the distribution of scores is slightly spread. But what does a mean of 50.37 represent? To give context to our scores, we have compared our results with two studies also using the Motivation to Read Profile.

Schoch (2019, p. 54) suggests that scores less than or equal to 50 should be considered negative, and scores above 50 should be considered positive. With this metric, 48.1% of scores for reading motivation would be considered negative, with 51.9% positive. Almost half of the scores being considered negative indicates that many pupils are not motivated to read. A mean of 50.4 would suggest that scores are fairly balanced, albeit slightly positive. A median of 52 indicates that the scores are slightly positively distributed, albeit with a very minor positive distribution. However, the mode of 45 shows a deviation among central tendency scores.

Table 14 14 "MRP frequency comparison between Kelley & Decker and Schoch"

Questionnaire	*Rognmo & Schönfelder*	*Kelley & Decker (2009*	*Schoch (2019)*
Mean	50.4	56.4	57.6
Median	52	57	55

Std. Deviation	9.15	7.64	7.70
Range	44	54	37
Minimum	23	23	37
Maximum	67	77	74

Comparing our results to those of Kelley & Deckers (2009) and Schochs (2019), our central tendency scores are notably lower (see Table 11). Although we had a smaller sample size than Kelley & Decker and Schoch, our maximum score of 67 was notably lower than the aforementioned studies' maximum scores of 77 and 74, respectively. However, this can be attributed to the difference in sample sizes. Our results show scores that are lower than those of Kelley & Decker and Schoch. Moreover, Schoch (2019, p. 54) suggested that all scores equal to or less than 50 should be considered negative. Based on these two points, we interpret our results to indicate that a considerable number of pupils, almost half, are not motivated to read.

5.4 Finding 4: Insight into Pupils Reading Habits

Many pupils reported that they do not regularly read. 60% answered that they either never read or only read a couple of times each month. Such a low percentage of readers could indicate confusion about how the question was understood. For instance, we do not know if they counted reading the news each day as reading daily. However, it is concerning that 26% reported that they never read. This can be attributed to many pupils not being motivated to read. It seems many pupils do not enjoy reading. When asked how much they like to read on a scale from 1 to 5, there was a clear distribution of answers on the lower side. 50% answered either option 1 or 2, indicating that many pupils dislike reading.

During the questionnaire's design, we considered increased globalization and whether it could affect pupils' exposure to language. Therefore, we asked what language the pupils read most in. Interestingly, 40% reported that they read most in English, while 54% answered that they read mostly in Norwegian. This answer was somewhat expected after seeing the increased access to English media in the last 20 years. However, it is still interesting that many prefer reading in English over their native language.

We hypothesized that digital media platforms such as TikTok, YouTube and Instagram could be the cause of this increase. Therefore, we wanted to know what their preferred reading platforms were. 49% of pupils reported that digital texts were their preferred reading platform, while 36% preferred analog texts.

We asked the teachers what attitudes the pupils have towards reading and what they had observed in the classroom. Teacher 1: “To me, it seems like pupils mostly want shorter texts. They also prefer when there are multimodal aspects, such as pictures or videos attached to texts. not just in the English subject, but generally in their lives.” This can be said to support the questionnaire's findings that pupils prefer to read in English rather than their mother tongue and that they prefer reading digitally.

5.5 Finding 5: Teachers Are Aware of the Benefits of Extensive Reading, but They Prefer Intensive Reading in the Classroom

Finding 5 suggests that teachers are aware of the benefits of extensive reading, however, they also value the importance of intensive reading when teaching themselves.

We asked the teachers what their thoughts were on reading for pleasure, and if they read at home themselves. Teacher 1 said “I have some on-and-off periods when it comes to reading at home, I read newspapers and google fun facts on occasion.”. To elaborate, we asked if she prioritized reading in her English sessions, and she answered, “I am quite concerned with reading strategies; in my subjects, including English, I make sure to incorporate at least three reading strategies that I feel work the best for learning. They are overview reading, deep reading, and skim reading. Additionally, in English there is a lot of reading involved, to become better at grammar, enhance vocabulary, that sort of thing.”.

Teacher 2’s response was “Partially, I listen to English audiobooks at home, and find it to be very enjoyable. Currently, I do not read books in paper form as much as I used to.” We further asked what benefits he experienced through reading, he responded “Personally, I have always been fond of reading fiction, and that has given me a lot of benefits, for example, my imagination, and other benefits such as increasing my vocabulary, and language.”. Based on these answers we can assume that both teachers see some benefits of extensive reading, but also that they see the traditional intensive reading form to be effective in the classroom. By

using several reading strategies, they teach the pupils how they can approach different texts. If we look back to finding 3, teacher 2 said he preferred to choose books that the pupils read so they could more easily work with the text afterwards.

During the interviews, we asked whether the teachers thought that the current English curriculum promotes extensive reading in any way. Teacher 1 responded with, “I think of reading as a continuous basic skill that encompasses all subjects in school, not just in the English subject.” Teacher 2 said, “I don’t think it is any more prevalent in English than, for example, Norwegian, which is the easiest subject to compare it to. At the same time, I feel that both writing and reading should be prioritised equally in these subjects. Additionally, I don’t feel that the new curriculum facilitates reading any more than previous iterations of the English curriculum.”.

6 Discussion

This thesis aims to shed light on the attitudes of lower secondary school pupils and teachers in the context of the Norwegian educational system towards extensive reading in the English classroom. To do this, we formulated three research questions. In this chapter, we will address these research questions and discuss the findings and results presented in the previous chapter together with the theory presented in chapter 2.

6.1 What Attitudes and Motivations Do Pupils Have Towards Reading Broadly and Reading Extensively?

As addressed in 3.3.1, the term attitude was operationalized to make our thesis statement more researchable. Guided by previous research we operationalized attitudes by measuring: self-concept as a reader, value of reading and reading habits. Self-concept as a reader and value of reading were selected as subscales in accordance with the Motivation to Read Profile (Gambrell et al., 1996). Since extensive reading is strongly related to intrinsic motivation, we thought using a profile meant for motivation was appropriate. Attitudes and motivation are interconnected and affect each other. Therefore, we deemed it suitable to use the MRP to uncover pupils' attitudes and motivations towards reading broadly and extensively.

Finding 1 shows that pupils find reading to be a boring activity. As presented in 2.4 ,extensive reading refers to reading due to a personal desire to read. When pupils in our study report that they do not enjoy reading, it suggests they do not read voluntarily. This indicates a negative attitude towards extensive reading/reading for pleasure. This is concerning due to the many positive language acquisition aspects of extensive reading. Since extensive reading relies on a desire to read, these results suggest that most pupils are not motivated to read.

Finding 3 further supports the notion that the pupils in our study are not motivated to read. Using Schoch's (2019) scoring of the MRP, 48.1% of scores could be considered negative while 51.9 % were positive. This finding is not as conclusive as Finding 1 since 51.9% of scores can be considered positive, and therefore, a slight majority is considered motivated to read. However, almost half of the pupils assess themselves as not motivated to read. Comparing our results with other studies that have also used the MRP, our mean score is 9% and 7.5% lower than those of Schoch (2019) and Kelley & Decker (2009) (see Table 14). This

indicates that our distribution of scores is slightly lower than other comparable studies, which suggests that our participants are less motivated to read.

There can be many reasons for this attitude towards reading. These results suggest that the pupils are not exposed to enough compelling input. This could explain why many are not motivated to read, simply because what they read is not interesting or relevant to them, thus making it more difficult to be intrinsically motivated. Krashen (2011b) cites reader autonomy and self-selected reading as two essential components of compelling input. Reader autonomy refers to a need for freedom, making pupils feel they are the initiators of their behaviour (De Naeghel et al., 2014). This inherent need for freedom can be seen in light of Ryan & Deci's (2000b) self-determination theory. Ryan & Deci (2000b) demonstrate strong links between intrinsic motivation and the three psychological needs: relatedness, competence and autonomy. If these needs are fulfilled, one increases the possibility of intrinsic motivation.

Reader autonomy demands freedom of choice in what to read; this implies that for reader autonomy to be truly achieved, there must be a wide and accessible amount of input. As presented in Figure 13, 78.9% report that the library does not have many interesting books. Furthermore, Table 12 shows a correlation between the subscales of MRP and pre4. This indicates that school resources affect reading motivation. Since so many participants reported dissatisfaction over the selection of books, this suggests that reader autonomy is not fully achieved.

Since motivation relies heavily on inherent needs and beliefs, attitudes will greatly affect an individual's impetus. Roe (2020) reported that attitudes towards reading affect reading habits and are a key indicator of reading achievement. The results presented in Table 10 suggest that self-concept as a reader and the value of reading in correspondence with Eccles's (1983) expectancy-value theory can be used as indicators of reading habits. Out of all the variables in our questionnaire, total reading motivation was the most reliable indicator of reading habits, with the highest Spearman rho score. However, as outlined in Finding 2, the participants' reading motivation was skewed towards self-concept rather than the value of reading. This suggests that a focus on improving reading motivation should emphasize the value of reading since, for most, reading abilities are not the primary obstacle to their reading motivation. Therefore, a prioritized focus on the value of reading could lead to greater reading motivation, which in turn would lead to increased reading habits. This point will be discussed further in 6.3.

Finding 4 suggests that pupils do not read regularly. These results further supports the notion of decreasing reading habits in the last 20 years, as reported by PISA (Roe, 2020). Hayles (2007) offers a possible explanation for this regression in reading habits. She states that we are in the midst of a shift in cognitive modes, from deep attention to hyper attention. Deep attention refers to the ability to concentrate over longer periods of time, typically used in classroom activities. Hyper-attention is characterised by a low tolerance for boredom and seeking constant levels of stimulation (Hayles, 2007). Hayles (2007) speculates that this shift is caused by the rapidly developing mediascape, which has led adolescents to become acclimatised to the multitasking and faster-paced style that is encouraged in social media designs. This is somewhat reflected in what the pupils answered about their preferred platform for reading. A majority answered that they preferred digital texts compared to analog texts. This preference for digital texts suggests Hayles's hypothesis that adolescents have become acclimatised to digital media.

This acclimation of digital media does have some positive implications for Norwegian adolescents. Compared to two decades ago, young generations are exposed to significantly more English extensive input. Elley and Mangubhai's (1981) study found that daily exposure to English input via reading increased language proficiency. As shown in Figure 18, a majority of 54% answered that they read most in Norwegian. However, 40% of pupils report reading most in English, which is extremely encouraging to read as an aspiring English teacher. This result suggests that pupils are voluntarily exposing themselves to an extensive amount of English input, which research has proven to be beneficial in second language acquisition.

Chomsky (1957) posited that all humans have an innate language acquisition device (LAD) to give a possible explanation to account for the richness of language, given the system's limitations. Similarly, Krashen (1982) and Grabe (2022) draw parallels between language acquisition and implicit learning. Krashen’s (1982) input hypothesis proposes that we acquire language by interacting with and understanding language that contains structures that are slightly too advanced relative to the current language proficiency. While Grabe (2022) states that reading is strongly related to implicit learning. Through reading, we are exposed to an extensive amount of input that will subconsciously and gradually acquire knowledge of the language (Grabe, 2022). All three linguists stress the importance of input in language acquisition. Therefore, it is encouraging that many pupils willingly expose themselves to

extensive English input because this positively affects their English language proficiency. This point will be discussed further in section 6.3.

6.2 Teachers' Views on Working with Extensive Reading

To research how teachers view extensive reading as a tool to enhance pupils' skills in English, the research question: *What are teachers' thoughts on working with extensive reading in the English classroom?* was formed. The goal was for us to understand and get some insight into whether the teachers have considered the potential benefits of using extensive reading in the classroom. Also, we wanted to explore whether teachers in our study find extensive reading beneficial in the current English curriculum.

Teachers' Attitudes Towards Extensive Reading

When we began interviewing the teachers, we believed it necessary to begin with their thoughts and experiences with reading for pleasure. As we covered in finding 5, teacher 1 reported that she had on-and-off periods and mainly read newspapers or googled fun facts. On the other hand, teacher 2 reports that he frequently listens to audiobooks and previously was very interested in reading fiction. Both mentioned that reading extensively has numerous benefits, including improving vocabulary, language fluency, and creativity. When we relate this to Grabe's (2022) remarks on how extensive reading can aid language development through implicit learning in second language acquisition, it becomes apparent that the teachers recognise this. They also recognise that they have experienced the benefits of reading extensively, namely an improved vocabulary.

Motivating Pupils Is Essential to Getting Pupils to Read

As reported in Finding 3, the pupils assessed themselves as unmotivated to read. Roe (2020) stresses the significance of teachers in nurturing a love of reading and states that current reading instruction is an area of improvement in school. Given the significance of the teacher's role in motivating pupils, we asked the teachers, "What and how do you motivate your pupils to read?". As outlined in 2.6, Ryan & Deci (2000b) propose that there are three needs behind self-determining behaviour. Both teachers seemed to emphasise the need for relatedness when motivating pupils to read. They mentioned that the theme of a book is very important for motivating pupils. If the pupils can relate to the characters or situations in a book, it will be more interesting and give them a reason to read. Teacher 2 mentioned *The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-time Indian* as an example of providing relatedness to the

pupils. He noted that because of the relatable situations and characters, the pupils became more invested.

Autonomy was also discussed in the interviews. One teacher mentioned that a choice between methods such as role-playing, listening to an audiobook, or silent reading could increase motivation. Ryan & Deci (2000a, p. 56) stress that being able to choose based on one's own inherent interests and acting accordingly could increase both skills and knowledge. Furthermore, they note that the three needs behind self-determining behaviour are closely related to intrinsic motivation. Since extensive reading is dependent on an intrinsic motivation to read, therefore facilitating the three psychological needs is essential to effectively promote extensive reading in the classroom.

Ørevik (2020) presents reading as a route to learning. Through reading, one organically encounters the various nuances and different aspects of language. The teachers also mentioned experiencing this firsthand when reading for themselves. Both believe that reading will positively affect language proficiency. However, they stressed the importance of balancing reading and writing and that both skills will benefit language proficiency. From their statements, it seemed that even though they were aware of the benefits of extensive reading, intensive reading was still prioritised in class. However, they both mentioned reader autonomy as a tool to improve motivation among pupils. We interpret some of the answers to suggest that the teachers believe that extensive reading is best achieved at home due to the difficulty in facilitating the intrinsic motivation required in extensive reading in the classroom.

Another important point is that teachers are required to assess the pupils. In an already time-consuming job, it is challenging to assess something as abstract as extensive reading. This is in addition to how the current educational institutions are structured to align more with intensive reading, making it challenging for teachers to facilitate extensive reading. Spear-Swirling, Brucker, and Alfano (2010) believe that it is the school's responsibility to provide extensive reading to children. Swirling et al. (2010) further explain that early mastery of reading skills increases the likelihood of engaging in extensive reading activities for enjoyment, which in turn facilitates later growth in reading ability (Spear-Swirling, Brucker & Alfano, 2010)

Teachers Need to Consider the Pupil's Reading Habits

As covered in Finding 1 and Finding 3, pupils report that they find reading boring and are unmotivated to read. Teacher 1 mentioned that she has noticed that when reading, pupils want shorter texts, preferably with multimodal aspects included. Teacher 2 also states that reading does not offer the pupils enough mental stimuli, making it difficult to motivate them to read. These statements can be seen in light of what Hayles (2007) describes as a shift in cognitive modes from deep attention to hyper-attention. While deep attention has long been the norm in classrooms, a rapidly developing mediascape has put educational institutions at a crossroads. Adapt the current structures to accommodate the pupils in those structures or adapt the pupils to fit the current structures in place. Teacher 1 suggested that engaging pupils in reading can be achieved by the use of multimodal texts. If hyper-attention is the cognitive mode of the future, incorporating multimodal aspects in reading seems to be an effective way of adapting teaching methods to meet the needs of students. Teacher 2 emphasises somewhat the other approach. Both mention that positive reading experiences are essential in promoting positive attitudes towards reading. This is done by teaching the pupils tools to read more effectively, such as different reading strategies.

6.3 Are Teachers Aware of the Pupils' Attitudes and Motivations Towards Extensive Reading When Planning English Teaching Sequences?

We have previously discussed the pupils' attitudes and motivations towards reading broadly and extensively and the teachers' thoughts on working with extensive reading in the English classroom. To connect these two research questions and answer our thesis question, we need to look at both; hence, we formed the research question: *Are teachers aware of the pupils' attitudes towards reading?*

As covered in Finding 1, 69% of pupils answered that they find reading boring, which coincides with what the teachers have observed in their classes. The teachers noted that "most of my pupils don't like to read". They believe that for most pupils, the volume of the texts is the main obstacle, which is amplified if the text does not relate or appeal to their interests. As presented in Finding 3, teachers report that the motivation drops significantly when pupils are presented with longer texts. This, in addition to other observations, has led the teachers to conclude that the general reading motivation is low both in their own and other classes.

Teacher 2 has observed an increase in poor readers. In his achievement model, Eccles (1983) explains how expectancies affect an individual's behavioural choices. Eccles (1983) suggests that expectancies are shaped most by the self-concept of ability and value placed on a task. Self-concept of ability relates to the belief in one's own competency to complete a task. Therefore, an increase in poor readers would result in less mastery, which at length will diminish the belief of one's own competency, which will affect an individual's behavioural choices, making them less motivated. Eccles's (1983) achievement model emphasises the importance of positive reading experiences because those will affect the expectancies. As presented in Finding 1, teacher 2 proposed that the lack of reading motivation could be attributed to their reading abilities when he stated that the pupils do not have enough reading strategies to read effectively. He proposed that if they had them, the reading experience would also be much more pleasant, which would lead to more reading motivation. Teacher 1 also emphasized reading abilities and mentioned that learning reading strategies gave the pupils tools to navigate text in order to make reading more pleasurable. Both teachers seemed to focus on the self-concept part of reading motivation, which is reflected in the distribution of reading motivation (see Figure 9). This could indicate that reading value is overlooked in the classroom and can suggest that focusing on the value of reading could increase reading motivation.

The teachers noted that pupils who prefer English over other subjects are often more motivated to read in English. As presented in Figure 18, 40% reported that they read most in English. In addition, a majority of 83% reported that they did not find reading in English difficult (see Figure 19). This could indicate that many pupils have a good belief in their own competency to read in English; this could explain the teacher's observation that many of those who prefer English are more motivated to read in English. This observation could also be explained by the other expectancy in Eccles's (1983) achievement model, task value. Eccles (1983) divides task value into three components: attainment value, interest value and utility value. It is possible that students are more motivated in English because the tasks in this subject are better suited to their needs, or because the tasks are inherently interesting, or because they believe that completing these tasks will help them achieve their future goals, such as learning English as a language.

Chomsky (1957), Krashen (1982) and Grabe (2022) emphasize the significance of extensive input in language acquisition. Even though the frequency of reading is somewhat low as showcased in Finding 4, many pupils report that when they read, they prefer reading in

English. This result is encouraging since exposure to extensive English input will positively affect language proficiency. Both teachers identify a link between language proficiency and reading habits; those who prefer reading in English are often the pupils with the most advanced/highest language proficiency.

As outlined in Finding 1, the teachers note that their pupils are not very interested in reading, and the pupils report the same in the questionnaire. As mentioned in Finding 4, this interest in reading is reflected in their reading habits, where a surprising 26% report that they never read. McGeown et al. (2015) suggest that in the context of measuring literacy experiences, we must look at it more comprehensively than just accounting for time spent on reading books. The point can be made that our interpretation of the reading differs from the pupils. It could be that the pupils interpreted reading as solely time spent on books handed out at school. However, digital activities such as scrolling on social media, texting and browsing the internet encompass reading in a different way than hard copy books. We are surrounded by texts every day; therefore, not encountering text in a day is almost impossible at this point. Therefore, the reading habits result should perhaps be taken with a certain reservation. Teacher 2 made the point that social media, such as TikTok, is a platform where many pupils get their daily English input but noted that there is a difference between pupils who only get input through these platforms and those who additionally read books.

6.4 Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research

Our findings derive from the data we have collected throughout our study. Because the data was collected from participants by using the non-probability sampling purposeful sampling method. In total there were 52 pupil participants and two teacher participants. One potential limitation of the study is that the findings may not be representative of the entire population due to the sampling method used. Therefore, the generalisability of the study should be considered in light of this issue. Another limitation of the study can be said to be the pupils understanding of the term reading. As we discovered from the data collected through the questionnaire, 40 pupils reported that they either never read, or spend very little time reading during leisure time. As we have covered numerous times during this master's thesis, reading is not solely related to reading a hard copy book, but encountering text in general such as, scrolling through social media, reading news online, browsing the internet is also reading.

Therefore, we can say that some of the questions in the questionnaire could be misinterpreted by the pupils.

This study is a mixed methods study where both pupils' and teachers' attitudes towards extensive reading are presented. A way to move forward and further investigate this topic would be to conduct a study on how Norwegian English teachers promote reading in their classrooms. By using a quantitative approach with a questionnaire and having a broader, more representative selection of teachers. If such a study were to be conducted, it could shed some light on how a teacher's attitudes towards reading influence how pupils view reading as an activity and whether a teacher can foster positive reading habits in school. It would be possible to include parts of the Motivation to Read Profile as well in the questionnaire to account for reading attitudes among the teachers as well, but this would maybe require more time and economic aspects than a master's thesis allows for.

7 Conclusion

The aim of this study was to investigate the attitudes and motivations towards reading among lower secondary school pupils while providing insight into the teacher's perspective. We have explored w*hat attitudes do lower secondary school pupils and teachers in the context of the Norwegian educational system have towards extensive reading in the English classroom?*

The decision to use a mixed-method design was driven by the need to comprehensively address three different research questions. They are the following:

1. *What attitudes and motivations do pupils have towards reading broadly and reading extensively?*

2. *What are teachers' thoughts on working with extensive reading in the English classroom?*

3. *Are teachers aware of the pupils' attitudes and motivations towards extensive reading when planning English teaching sequences?*

A quantitative tool like the questionnaire was used for RQ1, and it was deemed necessary for its ability to provide a wide scope of data on pupils' attitudes and motivations towards reading. For RQ2, a qualitative approach was considered more suitable. This is because interviews as a method can provide greater insight into the teacher's perspective on extensive reading. It also allows for better control over the information gathered, such as the possibility of asking follow-up questions to clarify earlier answers. RQ3 utilizes both methods and compares the teachers' responses from the interview with the pupils' answers from the questionnaire.

To answer RQ1, pupils reported that they were unmotivated to read and thought of it as boring. 48.1% of scores from the MRP were scored negative, meaning that almost half of the participants reported that they were not motivated to read. Additionally, 69% of pupils answered that reading was boring. These two findings indicate that many pupils do not enjoy reading, which suggests they do not partake in extensive reading. This indicates a negative attitude towards extensive reading. This was reflected in Finding 4, which suggests that pupils do not read regularly, with 26% reporting that they never read. Furthermore, Finding 2 shows that the pupil's reading motivation is skewed towards the self-concept as a reader subscale.

This suggests that the pupils are more confident in their reading ability than the value placed on reading. This also indicates that the pupil's low reading motivation primarily stems from the value attributed to reading instead of poor reading abilities. This suggests that a focus on increasing the value placed on reading should be prioritised over improving the pupil's self-concept as a reader.

RQ2 was researched by performing a qualitative interview with current English teachers in lower secondary school. The teachers made it clear that their pupils are not thrilled to read books and texts in class. On multiple occasions in the interviews, they mentioned that the pupils were neither motivated to read nor liked reading as an activity. We interpreted some of the answers to suggest that the teachers believed that extensive reading is best achieved at home due to the difficulty in facilitating the intrinsic motivation required in extensive reading.

RQ3 needs to be seen in coherence with the other research questions. It was researched by looking at the findings from both the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the study. The findings from the questionnaire are in accordance with much of what the teachers report in the interviews. Even though many pupils report that they find reading to be boring and are not motivated to read, there are exceptions. The questionnaire reports that some pupils prefer to read in English and that most pupils have little trouble understanding English texts. The study’s findings suggest that teachers are mostly aware of the attitudes towards reading, and the reading habits of their pupils. The emergence of digital technology has, among other things, led to a shift in cognitive modes that challenges the traditional conceptualisation of reading, which has put English teachers at a crossroads to convert the pupils to the traditional concept of reading or to adapt the reading to fit the pupil's needs. We believe that adapting the reading to fit each pupil is imperative to fully experience all the advantages of extensive reading due to its close relation to intrinsic motivation.

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Appendix 1 - Questionnaire

Nettskjema

Spørreundersøkelse rundt holdninger og lesevaner 2

Hvilket klassetrinn går du på?

- 8. trinn
- 9. trinn
- 10. trinn

Vennene mine synes at jeg er en...

- En veldig god leser.
- En god leser.
- En OK leser.
- En svak leser.

Å lese en bok er noe jeg liker å gjøre.

- Aldri
- Nesten aldri
- Noen ganger
- Ofte

Når jeg kommer til et nytt ord jeg ikke vet hva betyr, så kan jeg...

- Nesten alltid finne ut hva det betyr.
- Noen ganger finne ut hva det betyr.
- Nesten aldri finne ut hva det betyr.
- Aldri finne ut hva det betyr.

Vennene mine synes at lesing er...

- Veldig gøy
- Gøy
- OK å gjøre
- Ikke gøy i det hele tatt

Jeg leser...

- Ikke like godt som vennene mine.
- Omtrent like godt som vennene mine.
- Litt bedre enn vennene mine.
- Mye bedre enn vennene mine.

Jeg forteller vennene mine om gode bøker jeg har lest.

- Jeg gjør aldri dette.
- Jeg gjør nesten aldri dette.
- Jeg gjør dette av og til.
- Jeg gjør dette ofte.

Når jeg leser på engelsk for meg selv, så forstår jeg...

Alt jeg leser.
Nesten alt jeg leser.
Nesten ingenting av hva jeg leser.
Ingenting av hva jeg leser.

Folk som leser mye er...

Veldig interessant
Interessant
Kjedelig
Veldig kjedelig

Jeg er...

En svak leser
En OK leser
En god leser
En veldig god leser

Jeg synes at bibliotek er...

En veldig god plass å tilbringe tid.
En god plass å tilbringe tid.
En kjedelig plass å tilbringe tid.
En veldig kjedelig plass å tilbringe tid.

Jeg bekymrer meg over hva andre synes om lesingen min...

Ofte
Noen ganger
Nesten aldri
Aldri

Jeg synes at å bli en god leser er...

Ikke veldig viktig
Litt viktig
Viktig
Veldig viktig

Når læreren min spør meg spørsmål om det jeg har lest så...

Kommer jeg aldri på noe å svare.
Kommer jeg nesten aldri på noe å svare.
Kommer jeg noen ganger på noe å svare.
Kommer jeg alltid på noe å svare.

Jeg synes at å bruke tid på å lese er...

Veldig kjedelig
Kjedelig

Flott
Veldig flott

Lesing er...

Veldig enkelt for meg
Rimelig enkelt for meg
Litt vanskelig for meg
Vanskelig for meg

Når læreren min leser bøker høyt så synes jeg det er...

Veldig flott
Flott
Kjedelig
Veldig kjedelig

Når jeg er i en gruppe å snakker om bøker jeg har lest så...

Hater jeg å snakke om egne ideer.
Liker jeg ikke å snakke om egne ideer.
Liker jeg å snakke om egne ideer.
Elsker jeg å snakke om egne ideer.

På fritiden så bruker jeg...

Ingen av tiden min til å lese.
Veldig lite av tiden min til å lese.
Noe av tiden min til å lese.
Veldig mye av tiden min til å lese.

Når jeg leser høyt er jeg en...

Svak leser
OK leser
God leser
Veldig god leser

Når jeg får bøker i gave så blir jeg...

Veldig glad
Glad
Skuffet
Veldig skuffet

Læreren min er opptatt av at jeg leser.

Helt enig
Litt enig
Litt uenig
Helt uenig

Læreren min er opptatt av HVA jeg leser.

- Helt enig
- Litt enig
- Litt uenig
- Helt uenig

Vi snakker om bøker på skolen.

- Helt enig
- Litt enig
- Litt uenig
- Helt uenig

Skolebiblioteket har mange bøker jeg har lyst å lese.

- Helt enig
- Litt enig
- Litt uenig
- Helt uenig

Jeg får råd eller tips om bøker fra enten lærer eller skolebibliotekar.

- Helt enig
- Litt enig
- Litt uenig
- Helt uenig

Man kan lære mye av å lese.

- Helt enig
- Litt enig
- Litt uenig
- Helt uenig

Det betyr ingenting for min framtid om jeg er god til å lese.

- Helt enig
- Litt enig
- Litt uenig
- Helt uenig

Lesing gjør at man får bedre resultater på skolen.

- Helt enig
- Litt enig
- Litt uenig
- Helt uenig

Det er viktig for meg å gjøre det bra på skolen.

- Helt enig

Litt enig
Litt uenig
Helt uenig

Å lese på engelsk gjør meg bedre i engelsk.

Helt enig
Litt enig
Litt uenig
Helt uenig

Jeg leser vanligvis

Hver dag
Flere dager i uken
En gang i uka
Et par ganger i måneden
Aldri

Jeg leser mest på

Norsk
Engelsk
Annet språk

Jeg synes det er vanskelig å lese bøker på engelsk.

Helt enig
Litt enig
Litt uenig
Helt uenig

Hvor godt liker du å lese?

På en skala fra 1-5.
Der 1=lite og 5=mye.

Hvilken plattform liker du å lese på?

På skjerm (PC, mobil, tablet osv.)
Fysiske tekster (Papir, bøker osv.)
Annet
Foretrekker ingenting

Appendix 2 - Interview Guide

Intervjuguide

Egne holdninger til lesing:

Hvilke tanker har du rundt lesing på fritiden? Er du selv flink til å lese på fritiden? (Spørre om egne lesevaner)

Hvordan forholder du deg til lesing i engelskundervisningen, er det noe som prioriteres?

Hvilke holdninger til lesing oppfatter du er i dagens skole? / i egen klasse?

Hvordan opplever du at dagens læreplan i engelskfaget legger opp til lesing i engelskfaget?

Tanker om elevers holdninger til lesing:

Hvordan tror du at elevers holdninger til lesing kan påvirke deres faglige utbytte?

Hvordan opplever du motivasjonsnivået til dine elever med tanke på lesing i engelskfaget?

Hvilke lesevaner opplever du at elevene dine har i klasserommet?

Extensive reading i klasserommet:

Har du hørt begrepet extensive reading før, i så fall hva legger du i det begrepet?

Extensive reading involves learners reading texts for enjoyment and to develop general reading skills.

Hvilke tanker har du om å jobbe med extensive reading i engelsk-klasserommet,

Opplever du at læreplanen i engelsk legger opp til jobbing med extensive reading sammenlignet med andre fag sine læreplaner?

Når du planlegger leseaktiviteter i engelskundervisningen, tar du hensyn til holdninger elever kan ha til enten valgt metode, format eller tema, i så fall hvilke typiske tilpasninger gjøres det?

Hva er dine tanker til extensive reading som språkutviklingsverktøy i engelskfaget?

Hvordan tilrettelegger du for utvikling av leseferdigheter?

Opplever du at du kan bidra til å skape positive holdninger til lesing blant egne elever? I så fall, hvilke strategier har du til utvikling av positive holdninger?

Kartlegging av holdninger/MRP:

Ser du som lærer et fagdidaktisk potensiale i motivasjonskartleggingsverktøy rettet mot motivasjon for lesing i engelskfaget?

Har du hørt om eller jobbet med motivation to read profile før, eller brukt lignende verktøy for å kartlegge lesevaner og holdninger?

Hvilke fordeler eller ulemper ser du med å bruke slike kartleggingsverktøy?

Appendix 3 - SIKT Approval Form

Vurdering av behandling av personopplysninger

Referansenummer
338858

Vurderingstype
Standard

Dato
24.10.2023

Tittel
Viktigheten av lesing på fritiden

Behandlingsansvarlig institusjon
UiT Norges Arktiske Universitet / Fakultet for humaniora, samfunnsvitenskap og lærerutdanning / Institutt for lærerutdanning og pedagogikk

Prosjektansvarlig
Christopher Loe Olsen

Student
Bendik Schönfelder

Prosjektperiode
11.10.2023 - 01.11.2024

Kategorier personopplysninger
Alminnelige

Lovlig grunnlag
Samtykke (Personvernforordningen art. 6 nr. 1 bokstav a)

Behandlingen av personopplysningene er lovlig så fremt den gjennomføres som oppgitt i meldeskjemaet. Det lovlige grunnlaget gjelder til 01.11.2024.

Meldeskjema

Kommentar
OM VURDERINGEN
Sikt har en avtale med institusjonen du forsker eller studerer ved. Denne avtalen innebærer at vi skal gi deg råd slik at behandlingen av personopplysninger i prosjektet ditt er lovlig etter personvernregelverket.

FORELDRE SAMTYKKER FOR BARN
Prosjektet vil innhente samtykke fra foresatte til behandlingen av personopplysninger om barna.

FØLG DIN INSTITUSJONS RETNINGSLINJER
Vi har vurdert at du har lovlig grunnlag til å behandle personopplysningene, men husk at det er institusjonen du er ansatt/student ved som avgjør hvilke databehandlere du kan bruke og hvordan du må lagre og sikre data i ditt prosjekt. Husk å bruke leverandører som din institusjon har avtale med (f.eks. ved skylagring, nettspørreskjema, videosamtale el.)

Personverntjenester legger til grunn at behandlingen oppfyller kravene i personvernforordningen om riktighet (art. 5.1 d), integritet og konfidensialitet (art. 5.1. f) og sikkerhet (art. 32).

MELD VESENTLIGE ENDRINGER
Dersom det skjer vesentlige endringer i behandlingen av personopplysninger, kan det være nødvendig å melde dette til oss ved å oppdatere meldeskjemaet. Se våre nettsider om hvilke endringer du må melde: https://sikt.no/melde-endringar-i-meldeskjema

OPPFØLGING AV PROSJEKTET
Vi vil følge opp ved planlagt avslutning for å avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet.

Lykke til med prosjektet!

Appendix 4 - Information and Consent Form

Vil du delta i forskningsprosjektet

Viktigheten av å lese på fritiden

Dette er et spørsmål til deg om å delta i et forskningsprosjekt hvor formålet er å se på hvilke holdninger elever og lærere har til lesing. I dette skrivet gir vi deg informasjon om målene for prosjektet og hva deltakelse vil innebære for deg.

Formål
Vi skal skrive en masteroppgave der vi skal se på hvilke holdninger elever og lærere har til lesing på fritiden, vi blir å undersøke dette ved å sette søkelys på engelskfaget og lesing på engelsk. Vi skal gjennomføre en spørreundersøkelse blant elever og et intervju med lærere. Vår problemstilling er skrevet på engelsk og for at vi skal unngå feil ved å oversette skriver vi den på engelsk her.

Problemstillingen er som følger: «*What attitudes do lower secondary school pupils and teachers in the context of the Norwegian educational system have towards extensive reading in the English classroom?"*

Hvem er ansvarlig for forskningsprosjektet?
Universitetet i Tromsø Norges arktiske universitet er ansvarlig for prosjektet.

Prosjektansvarlige er studentene Bendik Schönfelder og Andreas Kristoffer Rognmo, og veileder Christopher Loe Olsen.

Hvorfor får du spørsmål om å delta?
Du får spørsmål om å delta fordi du er i gruppen som vi skal forske på, altså elever som går på ungdomsskolen og lærere som underviser på ungdomsskolen. Utvalget er et bekvemmelighetsutvalg som vil si at vi har kontaktet skoler og lærere som vi har tidligere bekjentskap til enten via praksis eller andre instanser. For å få flest mulig deltakere har vi også spurt skoler der vi ikke har noen tidligere erfaringer fra, men som befinner seg i Tromsø kommune.

Hva innebærer det for deg å delta?
(Til elever) Metode nummer en er et spørreskjema der vi spør om blant annet tidligere erfaringer med lesing på fritiden, hvordan du opplever det å lese på engelsk og hvilke holdninger har du til lesing. Spørreundersøkelsen vil ta ca 15 minutter å gjennomføre og det er helt frivillig å delta. Svarene vil bli registrert elektronisk. Foresatte vil også få muligheten til å se spørreskjema på forhånd ved å ta kontakt på telefon eller e-post til prosjektansvarlig.

(Til lærere) Metode nummer to er et intervju der vi skal samle inn data som omhandler tidligere erfaringer med lesing, hvorfor det er viktig/ ikke viktig å lese på fritiden og vet lærere hvilke holdninger elever har til lesing. Intervjuet vil være mellom 20 minutter og 40 minutter. Det er helt frivillig å delta og intervjuet vil bli tatt opp og registrert elektronisk.

Det er frivillig å delta
Det er frivillig å delta i prosjektet. Hvis du velger å delta, kan du når som helst trekke samtykket

tilbake uten å oppgi noen grunn. Alle dine personopplysninger vil da bli slettet. Det vil ikke ha noen negative konsekvenser for deg hvis du ikke vil delta eller senere velger å trekke deg. For elever som velger å ikke delta i spørreundersøkelsen vil prosjektansvarlige i samråd med lærer lage et alternativt opplegg, da spørreundersøkelsen vil bli gjennomført i skoletiden.

Ditt personvern – hvordan vi oppbevarer og bruker dine opplysninger
Vi vil bare bruke opplysningene om deg til formålene vi har fortalt om i dette skrivet. Vi behandler opplysningene konfidensielt og i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

- Det er kun studentene Bendik Schönfelder og Andreas Kristoffer Rognmo og veileder Cristopher Loe Olsen som vil ha tilgang.
- Vi kommer til å sikre at ingen uvedkommende har tilgang til dine personopplysninger, dette gjør vi ved å erstatte navn og kontaktopplysninger med en kode som lagres på en egen navneliste adskilt fra øvrige data. I tillegg vil vi lagre data på en kryptert forskningsserver.
- Vi benytter oss av UIT sitt eget spørreskjema «*Nettskjema*». Og til intervjuet har UIT også en egen app som heter «*Nettskjema-diktafon mobilapp*».
- Dere som deltakere vil ikke kunne bli kjent igjen i publikasjonen da alt av personopplysninger vil bli erstattet med en kode som kun studentene har tilgang til.

Hva skjer med personopplysningene dine når forskningsprosjektet avsluttes?
Prosjektet vil etter planen avsluttes 1. november 2024. Etter prosjektslutt vil datamaterialet anonymiseres og slettes.

Hva gir oss rett til å behandle personopplysninger om deg?
Vi behandler opplysninger om deg basert på ditt samtykke.

På oppdrag fra Universitetet i Tromsø har Sikt – Kunnskapssektorens tjenesteleverandør vurdert at behandlingen av personopplysninger i dette prosjektet er i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

Dine rettigheter
Så lenge du kan identifiseres i datamaterialet, har du rett til:

- innsyn i hvilke opplysninger vi behandler om deg, og å få utlevert en kopi av opplysningene
- å få rettet opplysninger om deg som er feil eller misvisende
- å få slettet personopplysninger om deg
- å sende klage til Datatilsynet om behandlingen av dine personopplysninger

Hvis du har spørsmål til studien, eller ønsker å vite mer om eller benytte deg av dine rettigheter, ta kontakt med:

- Bendik Schönfelder
  E-post: bsc013@UIT.no
  Telefon: 97677689
- Andreas Kristoffer Rognmo
  E-post: Aro130@UIT.no
  Telefon: 97744408
- Christopher Loe Olsen
  E-post: Christopher.L.Olsen@UIT.no
  Telefon: 77645125

- Vårt personvernombud:
  Annikken Steinbakk
  E-post: personvernombud@UIT.no
  Telefon: 77646952

Hvis du har spørsmål knyttet til vurderingen som er gjort av personverntjenestene fra Sikt, kan du ta kontakt via:

- Epost: personverntjenester@sikt.no eller telefon: 73 98 40 40.

Med vennlig hilsen

Christopher Loe Olsen *Bendik Schönfelder & Andreas Kristoffer Rognmo*
(Forsker/veileder)

Samtykkeerklæring

Jeg har mottatt og forstått informasjon om prosjektet *Viktigheten av å lese på fritiden*, og har fått anledning til å stille spørsmål. Jeg samtykker til:

- ☐ å delta i Spørreundersøkelse (Elever)
- ☐ å delta i Intervju (Lærere)

Jeg samtykker til at mine opplysninger behandles frem til prosjektet er avsluttet

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(Signert av prosjektdeltaker, dato)