| University of Stavanger <br> The Faculty of Arts and Education <br> MASTERS THESIS |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Study programme: <br> Master's Degree Programme in Literacy Studies | Spring term, 2022 Open |
| Author: Adelina Osmani | (signatur author) |
| Supervisor: Torill Irene Hestetræet |  |
| Title of thesis: Students' relationship to reading: A Study on Reading Experiences and Habits in English of a Group of Norwegian Upper Secondary School Readers. |  |
| Keywords: reading habits, reading experiences, extensive reading, reading motivation, digital reading, learners' beliefs. | Pages: 95 <br> + attachment/other: 27 <br> Stavanger, May 11 ${ }^{\text {th, }} 2022$ |

## Acknowledgements

First of all, I would like to thank my supervisor Torill Irene Hestetræet for the helpful advice, supervision, and feedback that she has given me during the writing process of this master thesis.

It would not have been possible for me to conduct this study without the teacher and the students from Vg 2 that participated and contributed to this study. I am grateful that they took time to share their experiences and beliefs.

Finally, I would like to thank my family for believing in me, and especially my parents for providing support and encouragement during the writing process. Last, but certainly not least, I would like to extend my gratitude to my husband for providing praise, motivation, and love throughout this process.


#### Abstract

Reading plays a vital role in the lives of the students, both academically and for the students' personal growth. This study explored the English reading experiences and reading habits of a group of eight upper secondary school students in Norway. The objectives of the study were to identify the students' motivation for reading, beliefs regarding reading, their reading practices. The study was underpinned by various theories on reading, language acquisition and motivation. This was a mixed methods case study research, and the data was collected using two data collection tolls: a reading log, and semi-structured interviews. The sample for the study was eight students from a Vg2 English class. It was found that students value reading, and while the reading practices and habits of the students varied, it showed that many of them are in the habit of regular reading. The findings of the study indicated that the students were most interested in reading fictional books, reading on the internet, and on social media. While some of the students enjoyed reading related to school, academic books were generally less popular among the students. The main motivation for reading for many of the students were gaining knowledge and reading for pleasure. The study recommended the use of extensive reading in the classroom as it motivates the students to read.


## List of abbreviations

VG2 - Upper secondary level 2
LK20 - Norwegian National Curriculum for Knowledge Promotion 2020
NSD - Norwegian Centre for Research Data

OECD - Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PISA - Programme for International Student Assessment

UDIR - The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training
ESL - English as a second language
L1- First language
L2- Second language

## Table of contents

1. Introduction ..... 7
1.1 Research questions ..... 7
1.2 Thesis outline ..... 8
2. Background ..... 9
2.1 English as a second language in Norway ..... 9
2.2 Reading in the Norwegian classroom ..... 10
2.3 The English subject curriculum. ..... 12
2.4 Previous research ..... 13
3. Theoretical Background ..... 16
3.1 Krashen's input theory ..... 16
3.2 Definition of reading ..... 18
3.2.1 Bottom-up strategies ..... 19
3.2.2 Top-down strategies ..... 20
3.2.3 Integrated strategies ..... 21
3.3 Extensive reading and intensive reading ..... 22
3.3.1 Extensive reading ..... 22
3.3.2 Intensive reading ..... 25
3.4 Digital reading ..... 26
3.4.1 Audiobooks ..... 29
3.5 Reading motivation ..... 31
3.6 How teachers teach reading ..... 33
3.7 Connection between L 1 and L 2 reading ..... 35
3.8 Extramural English ..... 41
3.9 Learner beliefs ..... 44
4. Methodology ..... 46
4.1 Introduction ..... 46
4.2 Mixed methods research ..... 47
4.3 Quantitative research ..... 47
4.3.1 Logs ..... 48
4.4 Qualitative research ..... 49
4.4.1 Sem-structured interviews ..... 50
4.5 Participants ..... 52
4.6 Data analysis ..... 54
4.7 Ethical issues ..... 55
4.8 Storage and disposal of data ..... 56
4.9 Validity and reliability ..... 57
5. Research findings ..... 59
5.1 Reading practices ..... 60
5.2 What reading means to the students ..... 65
5.3 What English reading means to the students ..... 66
5.4 What inspires and motivates the students to read ..... 68
5.5 Reading practices ..... 71
5.6 Digital reading ..... 74
5.7 Reading related to school ..... 77
5.8 Extramural reading ..... 80
5.9 Reading profiles ..... 81
5.9.1 Reads everything and always ..... 81
5.9.2 Gives low priority to reading ..... 83
5.9.3 Reading based on interests ..... 85
5.9.4 Gender related reading ..... 86
6. Discussion ..... 89
6.1 Motivation ..... 89
6.2 Digital reading ..... 91
6.3 Reading related to school ..... 94
6.4 Extramural reading ..... 95
6.5 Limitations ..... 97
7. Conclusion ..... 99
7.1 Reading motivation ..... 99
7.2 Reading practices ..... 99
7.3 Reading beliefs ..... 100
7.4 Contributions and implications for further research ..... 101
Reference list ..... 102
Appendices ..... 114

## 1. Introduction

The aim of this thesis is to investigate the reading habits and reading experiences in English of a group of Norwegian students. The present study uses a mixed methods research method to look into the students' relationship to reading, and to answer the research questions. Reading and texts are a part of everything we do, and many and different reading events take place throughout everyday life. It is necessary to have a relatively good reading base to participate in the reading requirements of our modern information society. It appears, however, that the demands for high reading competence, that is, the ability to read well, only increases in our modern information society. Learning how to read well, promoting the student's reading ability, and facilitating and motivating reading is very important and essential in order to assist the students to do well in school, and in their leisure time. The ability to read well is a prerequisite for good academic learning in school as well as in society in general, a society in which we are surrounded by large volumes of written material on a regular basis. Students in the program for specialization in General Studies can choose to study International English as one of their elective subjects. There is significant emphasis on reading in the English subject curriculum. Regarding the students in upper secondary school, there are often large variations in what the students read and how much they read. This applies both in relation to school, at home and in the many other types of social contexts they find themselves in. There are differences between the students, and also between the girls and boys in their reading habits and experiences. It is therefore important that we need greater awareness and further information about what kind of reading practices and reading events the students participate in. we need insight into the students' beliefs about reading, what makes them read, and what they get out of reading.

### 1.1 Research questions

The thesis will investigate the reading habits and reading experiences in English of a group of upper secondary school readers. Getting the students' perspective on their experiences of reading is essential to understanding what and how they read, and further to improve the teaching of reading in the English subject and the implementation of the new LK20 curriculum. The researcher will therefore conduct a mixed methods research study with a
group of eight Vg 2 students from two classes about their experiences and relationship to reading.

The main aim of the thesis is to map Vg2 ESL learners' experiences reading in English. The thesis will therefore address the following research questions:

- What motivates Vg 2 students to read in English?
- What English reading practices, both on paper and digitally, do Vg2 ESL students have in school and in their spare time?
- What beliefs do Vg2 students have concerning reading in English and the significance reading has on their lives?


### 1.2. Thesis outline

Chapter 2 presents the background of the present thesis and is divided into four main sections: English as a second language in Norway, reading in the Norwegian classroom, the English subject curriculum, and previous research. Chapter 3 presents the theoretical background, the literature and research that is relevant to the present thesis. This chapter is divided into nine main sections: Krashen's input theory, definition of reading, extensive and intensive reading, digital reading, reading motivation, how teachers teach reading, connection between L1 and L2 reading, extramural reading, and learner beliefs. A description of the method used to acquire the data will be presented in Chapter 4. This chapter describes mixed methods research, quantitative research, qualitative research, the participants, data analysis, ethical issues, storage and disposal of the data, and validity and reliability. Chapter 5 contains the research findings. The findings from the quantitative and qualitative data collection are presented in this chapter. The data is also categorized into different reading profiles. The research findings will be discussed in chapter 7 , including limitations of the study. Chapter 8 concludes with a brief conclusion, along with suggestions for further research, the contribution, and teaching implications.

## 1. Background

The aim of this chapter is to give some insight into the school system in Norway, ESL teaching in Norway, and more specifically the subject of English in upper secondary school with the aspects of reading in International English. Section 2.1 presents English as a second language in Norway and explains the reasons as to why the researcher has chosen to present English as a second language in this thesis. Section 2.2 deals with Reading in the Norwegian classroom, while section 2.3 is devoted to the English subject curriculum.

### 2.1 English as a second language in Norway

Reading depends on whether it is a first, second or foreign language. Norway is among the countries that have traditionally considered English a foreign language. Currently, it can be argued that English is a language that is viewed as either foreign or second in Norway (Brevik \& Rindal, 2020). Anderson et al. (1986) explain the difference between the two, stating that "a second language is typically one that is learned or acquired and spoken in a country where it is used by native speakers as their L1" (p. 71). He further staters that a "foreign language is one that is not used as an L1 by the majority of the population of a country" (p. 71).

Brevik and Rindal (2020, p. 33) explain that L2 and FL are two terms that describe how English is used and its status in communities of speakers. Moreover, they state that those who learn English in Norway do not fit into the standard categories of L1, ESL, and EFL (Brevik \& Rindal, 2020, p. 27). However, there are many aspects of English in Norway that are relevant to an evaluation of ESL status, according to Brevik and Rindal (2020, p. 28). The first aspect, according to Graddol (1997) Norwegians are highly proficient in English, and the subject is required in school for 11 years. This means that English literacy develops alongside Norwegian literacy (Graddol 1997, in Brevik \& Rindal, 2020, p. 28). Bruthiaux (2003) further asserts that there is "a set of countries where English is widely taught as a second language while being no one's primary language" (p. 172). However, the English subject in Norwegian schools is not included in the curriculum of the foreign languages; it has an individual curriculum, which means that English is viewed as more prominent in comparison to the other foreign languages.

It has become more difficult to distinguish between L2 and FL. Another scholar (Crystal, 2012) commented on this matter:

The distinction between 'second language' L2 and 'foreign language' use has less contemporary relevance than it formerly had. There is much more use of English nowadays in some countries of the expanding circle, where it is 'only' a foreign language (as in Scandinavia and the Netherlands), than in some of the outer circle where it has traditionally held a special place.
(Crystal, 2012, p. 67).

Norwegian students seem to be caught between learning English as a foreign and second language based on the information above. Keeping in mind that the majority in Norway have Norwegian as their L1, and English is taught from first grade and the overwhelming encounter with English daily, it has therefore been decided to use the term L2 when referring to the learners of English in my dissertation. There is however one exception: the terms foreign language and English as a foreign language will be used throughout the thesis when these terms have been used in studies or texts.

### 2.2 Reading in the Norwegian classroom

The current Norwegian National curriculum LK20 has given more prominence to reading than previous curricula. Reading and reading comprehension processes have received more attention and have been of international interest since the first Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) tests in 2000. With the publication of PISA 2000, the scores confirmed the assumption that Norwegian students were mediocre in reading, mathematics, and science. According to the PISA scores, Norwegian students aged 15 perform around the OECD average when it comes to reading. This can be seen in figure 1 where it shows the PISA reading scores in Norway from 2000 to 2018.


Figure 1. Average PISA reading scores in Norway from year 2000 to 2018.
PISA results in 2000 showed that Norwegian students were approximately on average, and then declined in 2003 and further in 2006. The scores improved after 2006. The reason for this is that scores resulted in several policy initiatives to develop reading proficiency. One of the initiatives implemented in Norwegian elementary and secondary schools in 2006 was the Knowledge Promotion reform. Reading as a basic skill was integrated into the national curriculum. The reform aimed to develop basic skills in all pupils, to better prepare them to take part in the 'knowledge society' (KD, 2006). The curriculum for the Knowledge Promotion that was introduced in 2006 has since been revised in 2020. In this current curriculum there is more emphasis on reading skills and strategies and reflection on one's own learning and the content of different types of texts both on paper and digitally (KD, 2019).

When it comes to reading in Norway, there is a significant gender difference in the results of the PISA (2018); considerably more boys than girls have difficulty with reading. Girls differ significantly in their reading, reading engagement, and reading habits, and a majority of boys don't read for leisure as a regular activity (PISA, 2018). The OECD has ranked Norwegian teenagers, both girls and boys, second worst when it comes to reading engagement. Based on the PISA results, $40 \%$ of teenagers did not read in their leisure time in 2009, compared with $50 \%$ in 2018 (PISA, 2018). In addition, reading on a screen has increased. While there has been an increase in online reading, there has been a decrease in reading books. Reading longer texts online could be considered replacing reading long texts in a book.

Norway's PISA (2018) data showed that in general, socioeconomic backgrounds do not have as much impact on student performance as they do in many other countries. On the other
hand, parental background can have an impact on a child's reading engagement. When it comes to reading engagement, one can assume that those who are interested in reading on paper originally came from homes that did indeed have shelves full of books, and from homes that seen their parents reading books, or those who had received books as gifts.

### 2.3 The English subject curriculum

Norway has a high regard for English, it is the only foreign language that is compulsory, and it is taught from the first grade. There is a national curriculum that guides the teaching of English from grades 1 to 10 . A national final exam can be administered to the pupils at the end of lower secondary school to test their English proficiency. Within the second year of their wider study programme, students can choose from the different specializations offered by General Studies. Students in the second and third years can choose to study International English as an optional programme subject. After completing the subject of International English, the students may then choose from the subjects of Social Studies English or English Literature and Culture in the third year. There is a written and an oral assessment in this subject area. Students may be required to sit for a written or oral examination at the end of the school year. Statistics from the Ministry of Education show that less than ten per cent of the students choose International English in the second year, and it shows that the number of students choosing this subject in 2020-2021 was 7,073 (Udir, 2021)

In addition to oral skills, digital skills, numeracy, and writing, reading is one of the five basic skills that must be integrated throughout the curriculum. Reading in English is defined by the Ministry of Education as "Reading skills in the English programme subjects involve the reading of varied and complex texts with fluency and comprehension, and increasingly being able to critically reflect on and assess different types of texts" (LK20, English subject curriculum). Through fluent reading of texts, pupils can explore, discuss, and gain knowledge from a variety of sources. In the new English subject curriculum it is emphasized that the students should choose texts based on their interests and that these should contribute to the joy of reading and the acquisition of language (LK20).

This indicates that extensive reading is becoming more important in the classroom than it used to. The aims in upper secondary school which applied to the participants in this study are that the students have to be able to understand and explore demanding texts, as well as to select reading strategies that are appropriate for the purpose (LK20, English subject
curriculum). The subject curriculum in English provides information concerning the theoretical and practical competence aims for English throughout the first grade to tenth grade, as well as the first year for general studies at upper secondary school. This is something that reflects Krashen's (1985) input theory (see section 3.1), as well as Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development theory on how to guide learners from what they already know to what needs to be learned. As a consequence of the input hypothesis, learners acquire language by encountering material that is somewhat more challenging than what they already know. This is something the students naturally do as they transition from one grade to the other. Krashen (1985) proposed the language input hypothesis as the process of reaching a linguistic competence level that is one step beyond the learner's current one (Krashen, 1985, cited in Mitchell et al., 2019, p. 55). Initially, the learner will acquire this knowledge subconsciously. As a result, if a learner is at stage ' i ', then he or she acquires what belongs to level 'i + 1' when presented with comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985, cited in Mitchell et al., 2019, p. 55). Similarly, Vygotsky's zone of proximal development "(...) is the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). In spite of having similarities with Vygotsky's theory, Krashen's hypothesis relates only to language acquisition. The zone of proximal development relates to all subjects and learning. Reading proficiency in English as a second language is a very important skill, and the LK20 English subject curriculum places great emphasis on it.

### 2.4 Previous research

The aim of this thesis is to enter a scholarly discussion about L 2 reading experiences in upper secondary school. Research in second language reading has been examined by many. Still, there are few research studies that have been carried out on reading in Norway with upper secondary pupils. However, someone who contributed to the research on reading comprehension is Brevik (2015). Her PhD dissertation (2015) examined classroom teaching practices and readers' reading behaviors in order to understand how these contribute to the development of reading comprehension in an L2. She used a mixed methods approach to study the practices involved in developing reading comprehension. Brevik (2015) combined two qualitative articles and one quantitative in order to get a deeper understanding of reading
instruction, reading strategies and reading proficiency (Brevik, 2015). She found that even though using reading strategies did not transform students into good readers, it did help in developing reading comprehension. In addition to that, Brevik found that teachers who used reading instructions enhanced the students' reading comprehension (Brevik, 2015).

Another intent to contribute to research on L2 reading is the master's thesis written by Brattetveit (2018). Her qualitative study investigates the teaching and learning of reading in English in Norwegian upper secondary schools. The findings were that the teachers in the study mostly relied on textbook texts and there was limited additional reading. The classes in her study relied mostly on intensive reading, and disregarded extensive reading and its benefits (Brattetveit, 2018).

A research project examining Norwegian EFL learners' English reading experiences is the topic of the master's thesis written by Byberg (2015). She conducted this research on lower secondary school students. The findings show that the learners had a positive view on extensive reading. She found that the learners lacked motivation and rarely read books. However, the participants of the study expressed that they had a positive attitude towards reading more in English if they had the possibility of choosing a book.

A survey was conducted in 2015 by the Norwegian Reading Centre regarding a large-scale extensive reading program in the upper secondary school in Haugesund, that has been organized for students (Preston et al., 2015). During the first 20 minutes of the day, students were free to read before the regular classes began. Program objectives included enhancing the students' reading abilities and increasing their enjoyment of reading. The findings were impressive, and significant improvements in test scores could be observed (Preston et al., 2015). It has been documented that reading for pleasure, or extensive reading, as advocated by Krashen (2004), contributes to the development of reading competences and offers many avenues for implementation in the classroom. Due to students' heavy dependence on digital devices and the internet today, establishing a wide variety of reading materials available could be an interesting way to foster reading pleasure, while covering a wide range of ESL competencies.

This brings us to the present thesis, in which the researcher investigates English reading habits and reading experiences in a group of Norwegian Vg 2 students. The contribution of the present study is to consider the ESL learners' experiences, habits and beliefs in reading in English. The study seeks to contribute to the growing research field by exploring it from the
students' perspective, whereas, in the mentioned studies, there has been an emphasis on the teachers. The researcher uses both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The method of using logs in the study is something that is not commonly used in other studies, and is an important contribution of the current study. It is a useful way to collect data that, in addition, provides inside into the reading habits of the participants. Reading is prioritized in the renewed curriculum (KD, 2019). There is an emphasis on the link between language learning and reading, and students' interests have received greater attention. The students in this current study use LK20. This new English subject curriculum may reflect some structural changes, both in the students' reading and learning and the teacher's teaching, which is something that the thesis will investigate.

## 2. Theoretical Background

This chapter in the thesis discusses theories and methods related to reading and language learning. This chapter starts with Krashen's in put theory. Section 3.2 presents the definition of what reading is and how it works, as well as different reading strategies. This is followed by various reading approaches and reading methods in section 3.3 with intensive and extensive reading. With the growing use of digital media, the growing number of digital information and documents, and the vast amount of time spent reading on the internet, the next section, 3.4 , will be about digital reading. Section 3.5 will be about reading motivation. Section 3.6 will be about how teachers teach English, as it is a critical aspect of reading. The relationship and connection between L1 and L2 reading is examined in section 3.7.
Extramural English is discussed in section 3.8. Learner beliefs is discussed in section 3.9 as the students' perceptions, beliefs and attitudes play an important role in their success. Learner's beliefs are used as a framework to study reading beliefs of the students in the present study. The final section discusses extramural reading and its effect on the students.

### 3.1 Krashen's input theory

One of the most influential theories of the acquisition of second languages is Krashen's input hypothesis (Krashen, 1985). Krashen (1985, p. 4) argues that Comprehensible Input plays the most significant role in learning a foreign language. $\operatorname{Krashen}(1985$, p. 2) describes the process of acquiring a level of language proficiency that is one step higher than what the learner currently has. In other words, Krashen argues that learning a language is different from learning, for instance, geography. The knowledge of it cannot be gained by reading a book about it. The process of acquiring a language is unconscious. That unconscious process cannot function without comprehensible input. This is the key component of that process. Comprehensible input is defined as English that is easy to understand. Furthermore, language input consists of language that learners hear, for instance, podcasts, audiobooks, and conversations. It also includes language that is read, for example, books, articles, and other written material. Krashen (1985) emphasizes that learning a new language cannot be gained by reading or listening to any kind of material (Krashen, 1985, in Mitchell et al., 2019, p. 55). Listening to material that is understandable is important. Choosing language input that is just slightly higher than your own language level facilitates language acquisition (Mitchell et al.,

2019, p. 55). For example, many studies have confirmed that children who grow up in a more diverse linguistic environment will be able to master their own native tongue with greater proficiency (Verhoeven, 2011, p. 665). The best predictor of vocabulary development in adulthood is reading, more so than any other activity (Anderson, 1986). The benefits do not end with reading; studies have found that children who heard more stories at a young age demonstrated a higher level of linguistic competence (Niklas et al., 2016). It is evident from these findings that language exposure and linguistic ability are associated, which supports the input hypothesis. It seems that the language input is another factor that is contributing to the improvement of language ability, according to some studies. Research has shown that reading improves vocabulary and spelling more effectively than practice exercises (Greaney, 1980; Krashen, 1989). According to these results, language acquisition is most likely influenced by exposure, rather than instruction. The same applies to acquiring a second language (Krashen, 1989). Another report shows that second language learners frequently acquire grammar rules without formal instruction, proving the possibility of non-teaching language acquisition (Cook \& Newson, 2007). Languages can also be taught using approaches such as the Natural Approach (Krashen, 1983) or Total Physical Response (Asher, 1969), which provide comprehensible input. Although the target language is not necessarily taught explicitly in these programmes, students still learn it through significant input, demonstrating that profound learning occurs without direct instruction.

Krashen (2011) goes on to suggest that input must also be compelling as well as comprehensible. This implies that it should also be interesting. Certainly, being exposed to comprehensible information is important, however, Krashen (2011) states that if learners are not interested in the material, they will not pay attention to it. The input given in the learning process should be interesting so that they pay attention. Krashen (2011) argues that the input given to learners should be interesting so that they pay attention, further explaining: "but interest may be not enough for optimal language acquisition. It may be the case that input needs to be not just interesting but compelling" (Krashen, 2011). A compelling input will make you forget you are reading it in another language because it is interesting. There are a number of examples he provides of students who became avid readers after finding Englishlanguage reading material that they really enjoyed (Krashen, 2004, p. 22-24).

Video game players have also shown to be able to make substantial progress in English, not because they were trying to learn the language, but because they liked playing video games,
which happen to be in English (Brevik et al., 2016). It is therefore clear that learning a language through video games is highly effective precisely because these games offer a great deal of comprehensible input, as well as compelling input. Krashen (2011) argues that those activities which you are interested in and continue to do, regardless of whether they are challenging, form the basis for acquiring a language. In addition, he asserts that listening to compelling stories or reading compelling books, watching captivating movies, or conversing with fascinating individuals is not merely another route or alternative: "it is possible that compelling input is not just optimal: It may be the only way we truly acquire language" (Krashen, 2011).

### 3.2 Definition of reading

Reading is often thought of as a logical activity concerned with thoughts and ideas, tone and themes, metaphors and motifs. Wolf (2008) explains that we were never born to read; we develop a brain circuit to be able to read, it is not something we are born with (p.3). Reading was invented only a few thousand years ago, and our species' intellectual evolution has been altered as a result (Wolf, 2008, p. 3). Reading is not hardwired or does not have an associated gene; it is a cultural invention that involves invasion of the cortex (Wolf, 2018, p.17). According to Wolf (2018, p. 17) the brain is able to rearrange its original parts, such as the structure, when it is faced with something new to learn, as well as using some of its existing neuronal groups to accommodate the particular needs of the new function. She states that "the brain is able to go beyond its original, biologically endowed functions, like vision and language, to develop totally unknown capacities such as reading" (Wolf, 2018, p. 16). The brain connects and sometimes repurposes older and more basic structures in order to form new pathways. Thus, the language and vision genes are rearranged in the reading circuit to produce the ability to read, they do not produce it by themselves.

The process of automatic word recognition when reading forms the basis for top-down processing (Hellekjær, 2008). This thesis presents reading in English as a second language, involving readers who already know how to read in their first language. These students can call upon their L1 reading skills when reading in the L2 (Koda, 2004). This ability to use L1 reading skills in L2 reading depends upon the readers' proficiency and background information in the second language. Students whose L2 proficiency is below a certain level are unable to transfer these skills to the L2, even if they are fluent readers in the L1 (Alderson,
2000). Alderson (2000) states that "second-language knowledge is more important than firstlanguage abilities" (2000, p. 39).

There are two broad categories of strategies readers use, which are bottom-up and top-down approach. Identifying sentence mechanics, such as vocabulary and grammatical features, is the basis for bottom-up strategies. In each sentence, the reader considers how the words fit together. The top-down approach involves analyzing the text as a whole, which includes context, writing purpose, and rhetorical structure. The readers have to use their background knowledge about the subject and the writing structure when these strategies are used (Brown, 2007; Carrell, 1987). Several studies have been conducted to determine which strategies people use. Researchers, such as Abbott $(2006,2010)$, found that different languages used different strategies. For instance, Mandarin speakers tend to use bottom-up strategy when reading in English, while Arabic speakers prefer top-down. Martin (1979) argued that a topdown model best describes how people read. In other research, however, it has been demonstrated that people employ a combination of both top-down and bottom-up strategies (Kurby, Britt, \& Magliano, 2005). In addition to the disagreement about which strategies people use more often, there is also disagreement among scholars as to whether top-down, bottom-up, or integrated strategies are most effective for improving reading comprehension. There is a growing body of evidence indicating that top-down and bottom-up approaches can be combined into an integrated approach (Brown, 2007; Celce-Murcia \& Olshtain, 2000).

### 3.2.1 Bottom-Up Strategies

Reading is often described as an interactive, but primarily a bottom-up process that also employs top-down processes (Alderson, 2000). In bottom-up process the text is the center, and it involves readers recognizing the written words along with other relevant grammatical information. Typically, bottom-up approaches involve the reader beginning with the printed word, recognizing graphic stimuli, decoding them to sound, recognizing words, and decoding the meanings (Alderson, 2000, p. 16). The subprocesses in each component occur independently and build on each other. Higher-level subprocesses, however, cannot feed into lower-level processes. For example, Alderson (2000) explained that "identification of meaning does not lead to letter recognition" (p. 16). Traditionally, bottom-up is usually associated with behaviorism in the 1940s and 1950s, as well as phonics-based reading instruction, in which it is argued that children must first acquire recognition of letters in order to learn to read (Alderson, 2000, p. 17). According to Brown (2007), bottom-up processing
involves readers first identifying linguistic signals such as "letters, morphemes, syllables, words, phrases, grammatical cues, or discourse markers" (p. 358). Abbott (2006) investigated the use of bottom-up and top-down reading strategies among Arabic and Mandarin speakers of intermediate English as a Second Language. Arabic ESL learners may have greater success in using top-down strategies than ESL learners from non-alphabetic L1 backgrounds such as Chinese. Abbott (2010) distinguishes between the two L2 reading processes, stating that "bottom-up reading comprehension strategies are data-driven, whereas top-down strategies are conceptually or hypothesis-driven" (p.15). When the reading process is data-driven, the readers decode letters by letters and words by words within the text and then reassemble the pieces to form understanding. Top-down strategies being concept-driven or hypothesis-driven means that the reader does not need to use all of the textual cues. The two reading strategies will be discussed in the sections below.

### 3.2.2 Top-Down Strategies

Research has shown that the knowledge the reader brings to the text is important (Alderson, 2000, p. 17). The models that emphasize the importance of this knowledge are based on schema theory. Schema theory explains how knowledge and information are acquired and interpreted by activating schemata, which are brain networks of information that act as filters for incoming information (Hudson, 1982; Carrell \& Eisterhold 1983).

A top-down processing approach is closely associated with schemas in second language acquisition. Goodman (1967), for instance, describes reading as a psycholinguistic guessing game, in which the reader tries to predict what a text means based on the minimal textual information available, but as much as possible by using their existing knowledge. A top-down approach is defined by Brown (2007) as "conceptually driven processing in which we draw on our own intelligence and experience to understand a text" (p.358). Bottom-up processing is different from top-down processing because it decodes smaller bits of words and sentences in a text to create meaning instead of decoding the large picture of the whole text. Abbott (2006) distinguishes the two methods; "bottom-up reading comprehension strategies are data-driven, detail-oriented strategies, whereas top-down strategies are conceptually driven, big-picture oriented strategies" (p. 635). Several studies have found that cultural factors play a role in whether learners choose between bottom-up or top-down strategies (Rao, 2003; Eskey, 2005; Abbott, 2006; \& Abbott, 2010). The reader's prior knowledge, or schemas, is drawn upon
when they interpret a text top-down. Rao (2003) explains that "the more world-knowledge that a reader brings to the text, the less dependent he or she is upon purely linguistic information such as grammatical, syntactic and semantic clues, thus making his or her reading process more efficient" (p. 31-32). Essentially, Rao (2003) suggests that all inputs are mapped to some existing schema, and all aspects of that schema must coexist with the information input (p. 32). In other words, top-down processing refers to the learning process in which the learner integrates the new information into their existing schemas. When these schemata are relevant, the reader is able to successfully read. Schank (1978) explains the top-down approach as follows:

We would claim that in natural language understanding a simple rule is followed. Analysis proceeds in a top-down predictive manner. Understanding is expectation based. It is only when the expectations are useless or wrong that bottom-up processing begins.
(Schank, 1978, p. 94).
Despite this, many psycholinguists are questioning the usefulness of schema theory in explaining comprehension processes (Alderson, 2000, p. 17). Schema theory, however, does not provide a clear picture of how understanding takes place, even though it clearly provides a impetus to research into the products of understanding, both for first- and second-language learners.

### 3.2.3 Integrated strategies

Bottom-up and top-down approaches do not adequately capture the reading process, and a better model is an interactive model, in which the reading components interact with one another (Alderson, 2000, p. 18). Rumelhart's (1977) model, for instance, incorporates feedback mechanisms that enable both linguistic and world knowledge (linguistic input and visual input) to interact. Multiple knowledge sources interact continuously and simultaneously in his model to produce a final hypothesis about the text. Alternatively, the interactive compensatory model developed by Stanovich (1980) considers that the degree of interaction between components may be affected by knowledge deficits in individual components. As a result, readers with poor word recognition skills may compensate for their lack of skills using top-down knowledge. When it comes to L2 reading, Brown (2007) mentions that all three
different approaches, top-down, bottom-up, and integrated, are effective. As much emphasis as he places on bottom-up and top-down reading strategies as cornerstones of L2 reading strategies, he points out that recent studies emphasize the use of a combination of these two approaches. Based on all of the studies concerning integrated approaches, they suggest that integrated instructional approaches are more effective than traditional methods involving separate bottom-up and top-down instruction and can thus enhance students' proficiency. There is no doubt that both bottom-up and top-down approaches to reading are important, that they interact in complex ways, and that their proportions will vary depending on the text, the reading purpose, and so on.

### 3.3 Extensive reading and Intensive reading

Different reading approaches and reading methods are used when reading. Extensive reading (ER) and intensive reading (IR) are two prevalent reading approaches to language learning.

### 3.3.1 Extensive reading

Copious amount of research has been done on extensive reading, and it has shown the benefits that extensive reading has for developing language skills, including reading comprehension (Anderson et al. 1986; Elley, 1991), vocabulary (Elley, 1991), reading fluency (Elley \& Mangubhai, 1983), and reading motivation (Day \& Bamford, 1998). Extensive reading is generally considered to be a valuable tool in EFL learning. Palmer describes the process of extensive reading as "rapidly reading book after book" (Palmer in Day \& Bamford, 1998, p. 5), focusing on the content and message of the text. ER is termed 'book flood' by Elley (1983), as he conducted several studies where the learners were flooded with reading material. One scholar that strongly promotes extensive reading is Krashen (1988). Krashen (2004) refers to ER as free voluntary reading. He emphasizes that research shows a connection between extensive reading and comprehension, further arguing that we learn to read by reading (1988, p. 291). Brown (2009) proposes that extensive reading should be a part of the curriculum and that adding it to textbooks has a significant advantage as it adds credibility to extensive reading and encourages students to read extensively (2009, p. 240). Some teaching suggestions that Brown includes are, for example, allowing students to select
what they want to read and reading for pleasure, information, and understanding (2009, p. 243). Extensive reading can be defined as reading many books quickly focusing on the content (Day \& Bamford, 1998, p. 5). Day \& Bamford (1998, p. 8) presented some characteristics to extensive reading to provide a clearer understanding of what it entails. Some of those characteristics include: reading materials that are easy to read, learners choose what they want to read, reading is private and silent, and reading speed is usually faster. Simensen (2007) defines extensive reading, stating that it is "silent reading and reading for pleasure and enjoyment. A global understanding of the text, i.e., without grasping every part of $i t$, is normally used in extensive reading. Thus, to some extent, 'extensive reading' is a concept comparable to 'skimming'" (Simensen, 2007, p. 149). This type of reading is how most people read when they read a novel in their free time. This type of reading is done fast and efficiently, without stopping at unknown words; the main focus is to understand the overall message and meaning of the text. It means that while it is a practical approach to reading, the more profound meaning and understanding of the text may sometimes be lost to the reader. Another concern regarding extensive reading is the "cost, lack of time, monitoring students' reading, managing the library of books, guiding students to choose appropriate books, and getting students engaged in reading" (Brown, 2009, p. 240).

Extensive reading is vastly beneficial and inclusive as it includes all learners regardless of reading ability by the use of differentiated reading material. Nation (1997, p. 13) points out certain benefits of the extensive reading approach. He (1997) explains that due to the individual nature of reading, learners with different reading proficiency are able to read at their own pace (1997, p. 13). Additionally, it allows learners to choose what to read according to their interests, increasing their motivation for reading, thereby promoting positive attitudes towards reading (1997, p. 13). Another benefit is that extensive reading offers a way for students to learn outside of the classroom (1997, p. 13). Language learners are shown to benefit from extensive reading because it is used to improve reading fluency, as well as to increase vocabulary and syntactic knowledge. In the books flood studies by Elley (1991, p. 408), he found that children are able to improve reading and listening comprehension when exposed to well-illustrated and interesting books, and that it resulted in "gains in reading proficiency and positive affect" (Elley, 1991 in Day \& Bamford, 1998, p. 34). The students in the study developed "very positive attitudes toward books as they raised their literacy levels in English" (Elley, 1991, p. 397).

A key component of ER is Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis because the focus is on how linguistic competence develops over time. The ultimate comprehensible input is extensive reading. The Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 2004, p. 26) suggests that extensive reading (ER) provides a significant source of comprehensible input; thus, students can acquire language by reading on their own. Due to the large amount of input provided, ER is often preferred. The pleasure hypothesis is also included in the theoretical framework of ER. According to Krashen (1982, pp. 59-77), activities that provide a sense of enjoyment are those that facilitate language acquisition. Reading books outside of the classroom has been shown to be enjoyable. Mason (2006, p. 2-5) reports that the participants in ER studies showed a positive attitude toward reading. Participants were motivated to engage in activities that they found enjoyable and interesting. The concept of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985, p.2) suggests that learners acquire language when they comprehend messages. In Krashen's view, context aids learners in understanding unfamiliar grammar. Reading allows learners to construct meaning more effectively, so the more they read, the more they learn. As long as learners read consistently and appropriately over an extended period of time, ER will improve their reading skills, according to Grabe (2009). In support of this, Day and Bamford (1998) argue that language acquisition only occurs when the text is neither too difficult nor too easy. Further, if the material is easy to manage and easy to comprehend, it will improve students' confidence when reading. They also state that "struggling with difficult or uninteresting text is not the way to build reading fluency" (1998, p. 92). This indicates that if the learners find what they read to be pleasurable, they are more likely to read more books, which can assist in improving their English language skills and as well as improving their reading skills.

Vellutino and Salon (2003) argue that "Fluent reading depends heavily on a great deal of practice in reading, spelling and writing. It also depends on reading and rereading material at an appropriate level of difficulty." (Vellutino and Salon, 2003, cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 310) Norwegian ESL classes have students with a wide range of skills and competencies, like most classrooms. Students will be exposed to vocabulary, lexical patterns, and lexical phrases that are not found in textbooks.

Charboneau (2016) and Hellekjær (2007) argue that extensive reading can improve the quality of reading instruction in Norway. The textbook tradition in Norway is strong, according to Charboneau (2016). A study by Drew et al. (2007) on teachers' experiences with primary EFL teaching in Norway and the Netherlands, has similar findings. Participating Norwegian
teachers stated using the textbook exclusively seven out of ten times. Hellekjær (2007, p. 5) argues that a lower level of reading proficiency is due to deficiencies in the Norwegian ESL curriculum. Hellekjær (2007) also mentions that one of the reasons for the low scores on national tests is due to the lack of focus on extensive reading, which would help pupils develop the ability to read in a variety of ways depending on the purpose for reading.

### 3.3.2 Intensive reading

The other reading approach that is more associated with reading in the classroom is intensive reading (IR). As Renandya and Jacobs (2002, p. 296) indicate, reading material is one of the important factors that differentiate ER from IR. A process of intensive reading does not involve overloading the readers with large amounts of reading material, as in extensive reading (Hafiz and Tudor, 1989, p. 5). On the contrary, in intense reading (IR), learners read short texts and concentrate on specific elements in them. It is about the intensive work with the language and the text (Day \& Bamford, 1998, p.5). Intensive reading in the second language classroom focuses on the text in detail, for example on translation, grammar, vocabulary, identifying the style, and the information between the lines. Some activities in intensive reading can include using reading strategies, such as looking up unfamiliar words in the dictionary. Intensive reading is characterized by the following: the reader reads for complete understanding. Grammar and rules are emphasized in reading. Also characteristic of IR is the use of dictionaries, and direct instruction on strategies. The purpose of intensive reading is "to arrive at an understanding, not only of what the text means, but how the meaning is produced" (Simensen 2007, p. 149). Analysis of the text is the main focus. One problem with intensive reading in the classroom is that students tend to use this way of reading in other reading situations (Hellekjær, 2007). This approach to reading does not work in all situations, as it takes too much time. If the students read every text intensively, they will not read enough texts, resulting in a poor vocabulary and insufficient reading proficiency (Hellekjær, 2007). Other researchers, such as Day et al. (2011, p. 12) have also described a number of problems associated with the use of IR as a teaching method. A learner may, for example, translate short passages into their first language before translating each word by word, which could make the reading experience unpleasant for the reader. Another example involves comprehension work and comprehension strategies, that is, reading a text and using
various strategies to help understand it. The problem with translation and comprehension strategies and comprehension approaches is that they do not increase reading skills, as Day et al. (2011) explains: "Translation is different from reading - translation is not reading, and reading is not translation" (p. 12). Day et al. (2011) state that intensive reading "confuses learning to read with reading to learn. In general, reading strategies help us when we read to learn; but they are not much help when students are learning to read" (p. 13).

Though extensive reading and intensive reading offer different benefits for students, they can still be used together in the classroom. Both Nuttall (2005) and Drew and Sørheim (2009, p. 76) are in agreement that both approaches are considered appropriate for classroom use. A balanced approach is advocated by Drew and Sørheim (2009, p. 76), as they argue that integrating various approaches is beneficial in order to stimulate the process in learning a language. Palmer emphasized the importance of both types of reading and called it a 'multiple line of approach' of language study (Palmer in Day \& Bamford, 1998, p. 5).

### 3.4.Digital reading

With the advancement of the 21 st century, the use of digital devices by young people is increasing. The growing use of digital media, the growing number of digital documents and information, and the amount of time people spend reading on digital media have an acute effect on reading. Mlay et al. (2015) found in their study that the participants spent most of their leisure time on the internet, especially on social media. The use of digital resources has become more common throughout the years, and especially during the coronavirus pandemic when many students had to use digital books and resources instead of hard copy textbooks. The influence that digital technologies and media have had on reading is the target for researchers from a range of disciplines, including education and literacy studies. Access to digital information and devices offers people convenience, flexibility, it is often cheaper than print materials, and it allows learning both in and out of school.

Chen et al. (2013) explored the effects of reading e-books and concluded that e-books help EFL learners with motivation, reading comprehension, and vocabulary. The findings in his research indicate that e-books are practical when it comes to extensive reading, as they stimulate reading attitude and reading comprehension. E-books and other digital devices make
extensive reading easier because they enable readers to read whenever and wherever they want, as they always have access to a library. Several studies have revealed that reading text on a screen can have adverse effects. A meta-analysis of reading on paper compared to screens revealed that reading from a digital screen negatively affects reading comprehension (Clinton, 2019). This indicates that digital reading has some challenges. According to scholars and research, reading on paper supports comprehension more than reading from a screen (Singer \& Alexander, 2017).

Singer \& Alexander (2017) investigated reading comprehension when reading digital and paper articles. There was a clear preference for digital texts among the students, and they predicted better comprehension when reading digitally. While the mediums did not affect their understanding of the main idea, the students did miss details and relevant information when reading on the digital format. According to a recent Norwegian study, young people prefer reading on a computer screen over reading a printed book or magazine (Monitor, 2019). There is a clear difference between the younger and older pupils in the study. While the oldest in the survey prefer paper books, the youngest are more enthusiastic about digital devices. In the 4th grade, 46 percent answer that they disagree that they learn better with a textbook on paper. The number drops to 35 percent in the 9 th grade - and 18 percent in the second year of upper secondary school. The students in upper secondary school believe that they learn best by using paper, when it comes to reading and writing. However, the younger students, in $4^{\text {th }}$ and $7^{\text {th }}$ grade, on the other hand, prefer to use a computer.

The preference for e-books is probably related to recognition. E-books have more in common with the digital devices young people use all the time, than any paper book has, when it, for example, comes to scrolling from page to page and the ability to change font size. Baron (2015) found that 90 percent of university students in the U.S., Germany, and Japan prefer hard copy over electronic copies if the cost were the same. $92 \%$ of respondents would prefer hard copies for lengthy texts (p. 87). One clear difference that can be witnessed in the different studies is that younger students are more inclined to read on screens, while older students prefer to read on paper. In addition, digital reading makes students more prone to distraction and multitasking. The oldest students in the Monitor study (2019) who spend the most time on the computer are the ones who experience the most distraction. According to Baron, 92 percent of American and Japanese participants surveyed reported that reading in printed copy was the easiest method of concentration, and the results were 98 percent in Germany (Baron, 2015, p. 89). In comparison to reading on paper, 85 percent of American
students said they were more likely to multitask while reading on screen (Baron, 2015, p. 88). Daniel \& Woody (2012) found similar results and suggested that with digital devices, students demonstrated significantly higher multitasking behaviors. In the same vein, Rosen et al. (2013) found that students switched between tasks, on average, three times during a 15minute study period while using electronic devices. Collectively, these studies suggest that although learning is the primary objective, adapting practices and cognitive shortcuts are used when using technology.

Research has shown that readers' reading behavior is changing as they use digital devices in new ways. Specifically, Liu's (2005) study found that digital screen readers used shortcuts such as searching for keywords and selectivity more frequently. Liu (2005) states that the "screen-based reading behavior is characterized by more time spent on browsing and scanning, keyword spotting, one-time reading, non-linear reading, and reading more selectively, while less time is spent on in-depth reading, and concentrated reading" (2005). The mindset that people have when reading plays a significant role. The screen is often related to casual surfing, meaning that when people use digital devices to read, they may rush through without genuinely grasping the text. They were less likely to spend a lot of time on in-depth reading and were more likely to read a text only once. This raises concerns about academic performance. The brain is then trained to process information faster and less thoroughly due to the frequent exposure to fast-paced digital media. This indicates that digital reading is no problem when one must skim through a text, and for example, scan for headlines; however, it is better to read longer and complicated texts on paper in order to retain the details.

Mangen et al. (2013) conducted a study with 10th graders about the benefits of reading printed text and reading on a computer screen. According to the study, reading texts in print is better for comprehension than reading them on a screen. Students were divided randomly into two groups of 72. They each received two texts, one fiction and one factual. The two texts were read by one group on a standard computer screen, while the other group read them on paper. After reading the text, the teens were asked questions to demonstrate their understanding. In the results, computer screen readers had understood less than those who had read on paper. Both in factual prose and in fiction, this disparity can be observed. Mangen et al. (2013) discuss a variety of possible causes. One obvious difference between a computer screen and a piece of paper is that a piece of paper is made of material. A book feels heavy and has a texture, the edges of the page are clearly visible, and you can see where it begins
and ends. Your fingers can easily navigate through the pages. A mental map of the entire text is formed as a result of this direct, perceptible experience (Mangen, 2013). The brain is therefore better able to deal with something that can be touched and seen. Research has proven that mental maps are particularly helpful when dealing with long texts (Hou et al., 2017). Mental maps are useful and important to be able to navigate long texts quickly. In order to be able to see, understand and reflect on the contexts and relationships, it is necessary to be able to navigate between different parts of the text. When reading on a screen, this physical experience is almost absent, as only one or two pages are displayed at a time. It has been established that scrolling impairs a reader's ability to form an effective mental map (Hou et al., 2017, p. 87; Eklundh, 1992, p. 77, 81). On a screen, your experience of text length is determined by the scrollbar, the page number, or other indirect markers. As such, the text and the surface no longer constitute a coherent whole. Hou et al. (2017, p. 87) states that the "spatial flexibility and instability of the text presentation makes it hard for readers to reconstruct the physical layout of the text, which interrupts mental map formation". In contrast, the paper condition permits the construction of a mental map depicting the text's structure due to its fixed structure. Consequently, cognitive maps might explain why text presented on screens is more difficult to understand than text presented on paper. Hou et al. (2017, p. 87) do also conclude that because the screen text is immaterial, it is possible that the "medium materiality mechanism... account for the observed difference in the study". As a result, the medium would play a role in reading comprehension. The physical properties of a book are more indicative of its content than those of a screen. Although text on a computer and a tablet looks the same, regardless of whether it is a novel or a comic, a book has different physical characteristics that can affect your reading style. As an example, a thick textbook in mathematics looks, as well as feels, very different from a crime paperback, both in terms of size, weight, and shape. On the other hand, digital devices do not present such material differences.

### 3.4.1 Audiobooks

People listen to more audiobooks than ever before, and the audiobook market is growing. According to The Norwegian Publishers Association's reader survey for 2020, the number of audiobook listeners is rising rapidly, and book readers who listened to audio books increased by $6 \%$ to $29 \%$ in 2019 (NPA, 2020). Audiobooks can be easily accessed and used by students
and teachers to learn foreign languages. The use of audiobooks can also encourage independent reading (O'Day, 2002). Additionally, Hill (2001) noted that reading and listening at the same time can also help learners to increase their reading speed, as it helps learners to shift from word-by-word reading to a more rapid style.

Listening to audiobooks provide appropriate scaffolding for independent L2 reading, and it can be a practical means of providing fluent and effective reading instruction to individuals who are struggling with this aspect of their learning (Beers, 1998). Beers (1998) states that audiobooks "act as a scaffold that allows students to read above their actual reading level" (1998, p. 31). This is consistent with Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development theory, in that individual learners can reach higher levels with expert guidance. In this way, audiobooks may serve as a better learning aid, helping learners reach greater heights than they could achieve on their own. Audiobooks can also attract students' attention and interest, so they can read more and enjoy a larger amount of material. As such, this reflects Krashen's input hypothesis (2011). Listening to audiobooks offers a great deal of compelling input, and when the input given is interesting, they end up paying attention. Accordingly, previous studies have found positive results when audiobooks are incorporated into reading instruction (Beers, 1998).

In English, the normal speech rate is approximately three words per second or 165 to 180 words per minute, regardless of the genre (Buck, 2001). Due to such a rapid pace, listeners may not have enough time to think about what is being said and must therefore be completely automated in their listening process. Buck (2001, p. 27) distinguished between controlled and automatic processes in L2. In the former case, the learning is slow because the activity requires particular attention to control, such as when L2 learners are learning a new linguistic system (Buck, 2001, p. 27). In the latter context, it is necessary to perform a cognitive task without control over attention, similar to the scenario in which listeners listen to their native language. It includes the ability to process the language automatically in real time (Buck, 2001, p. 29). In general, the more automatic a listener's processing is, the more likely they will comprehend. The act of listening requires knowledge of linguistic input, such as phonology, and syntax, as well as non-linguistic input, such as background knowledge. Listeners who are confident in interpreting linguistic input do not rely on background knowledge or co-text information, which is a process known as bottom-up processing. In contrast, top-down processing is when the listener is less confident in his or her ability to decode the linguistic input and seeks additional sources of information as a means to improve
comprehension (Field, 2008, p. 133). Listeners use top-down and bottom-up processing at different times, and there is no conclusive evidence when they will be doing so; however, there is general agreement that the two have important roles and must be interdependent in the listening process (Field, 2008, p. 132).

### 3.5 Reading motivation

Taking into consideration a reader's personal goals, values, and beliefs with regard to the topics, processes, and outcomes of reading is one way of describing reading motivation (Guthrie \& Wigfield, 2000, p. 405). The complexity of this construct is reflected in this definition, since both reading and motivation are intricately defined. Researchers and scholars agree that motivation plays a crucial role in explaining people's behaviors and actions. Nevertheless, there appears to be disagreement in the literature regarding the nature of motivation, its mechanisms, and how to perfect it (ref?). It comes from the fact that human behavior is such a complex and unpredictable phenomenon caused by environmental influences. Motivating behavior has been characterized as a complex construct by many theories that attempt to define it. Clearly, it can be seen that no single approach to motivation can provide a comprehensive understanding of what motivation is. According to the study conducted by Mlay et al. (2015), the participants were motivated to read for self-growth, inspiration, to gain information and knowledge, to keep up with trends for entertainment, for spiritual growth, and for pleasure.

Traditionally, motivation theory is related to behaviorism, and is described as based on the principle of setting up and sustaining behavior by reinforcement (Brophy, 2004). As described by Brophy (2004, p.4), a reinforcer is anything that encourages or maintains the performance of a behavior. In many fields, motivation is defined as the ability of individuals to push themselves to accomplish their goals. However, when people lack motivation, they are reluctant to do something they are required to do; therefore, it is necessary to motivate them. Brown (2007) defines motivation for a behaviorist perspective as "quite simply the anticipation of reward" (2007, p. 168). An individual's behavior is influenced by their previous experiences gaining rewards for particular behaviors as well as their need to acquire new positive incentives. In this approach, the factors affecting performance are external factors such as education, family, and teachers.

Motivation was also considered by some researchers as part of personality. A need for achievement is described by McClelland et al. (1953) as the desire of individuals to attain goals (Child, 1977). Therefore, the necessity for achievement can be defined as one's need to satisfy his or her need. The study by McClelland et al. (1953) explains that individuals are motivated by their previous experiences and their history to meet a need. Those who surpass high expectations regard new learning environments and challenges as beyond their present abilities, but are able to achieve them if they exert the necessary effort. Their tasks are usually challenging but not overwhelming. According to Skehan (1989), those with low achievement have had unsupportive experiences because they failed. However, they take on very easy tasks or extremely challenging tasks because, in the former case, failure is unlikely, while failure is acceptable in the latter case. Atkinson (1957) asserts that there are two aspects to attainment, "motivation toward success and motivation toward avoidance of failure" (McDonough, 1986, p.152). McDonough (1986) argues that people may behave differently both when they seek success and when they seek to avoid failure, even if they have the same need for achievement (p. 152)

Ryan and Deci (2000) refer to two types of motivation, explaining "between intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and extrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome" (p. 55). Intrinsic motivation can be defined as "the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence" (Ryan \& Deci, 2000, p. 56). The students can develop intrinsic reading motivation and read because they perceive it as satisfying or rewarding (Schiefele et al., 2012). According to Guthrie (2008), there are numerous studies that demonstrate that intrinsic motivation leads students to read more. Students who read for personal reasons, such as interest, pleasure, or favorite topics, read a lot and tend to attain high levels of achievement. Contrary to that, students who read only for external reasons, such as grades, rewards, and recognition, do not read as much. According to Vallerand et al. (1989), intrinsic motivation consists of three main components. Knowledge acquisition is the first sub-component of intrinsic motivation. According to them, it is the satisfaction and enjoyment one gets when engaging in activities that enable new perspectives to be acquired or explored (p. 324). In addition, achievement is also a major part of intrinsic motivation. According to Vallerand et al. (1989, p. 325), intrinsic motivation is when people are motivated to accomplish something purely for personal pleasure, to overcome a challenge, or to create something new by themselves. Furthermore, intrinsic motivations also include
emotions, as individuals engage in activities in order to gain pleasure, excitement, and entertainment (Vallerand et al., 1989, p. 325).

The second type of motivation is called extrinsic motivation. In their definition of extrinsic motivation, Ryan and Deci (2000) identify it as "a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome" (2000, p. 60). The motivation of these types of tasks is frequently related to external factors (Vallerand et al., 1989; Ryan \& Deci, 2000). In other words, extrinsically motivated individuals engage in the activity to achieve results separate from the activity itself, including a reward, avoiding guilt, or gaining approval (Deci et al., 1996, p.167). The reason for this is that the tasks "are performed not out of interest but because they are believed to be instrumental to some separable consequence" (Deci et al., 1991, p.328). Similarly, another example is that when an individual acts as a result of external approval, this action is also extrinsically motivated, except that this individual will feel having the option of choosing another course (Ryan \& Deci, 2000).

### 3.6 How teachers teach reading

A critical aspect of reading is the teaching of it. Reading in the classroom is often exclusively intensive, which impacts the students reading outside of the classroom, resulting in slow reading even when this is not essential (Hellekjær, 2005). Keeping in mind the average PISA reading results and the preference for intensive reading in the classroom, there is good reason to be critical about L1 reading in Norwegian classrooms. As there is a connection between L1 and L2 reading, it is safe to assume that the situation for English is not much better; and the results of the doctoral study by Hellekjær (2005) confirm that. Hellekjær investigated English reading in upper secondary level, and his findings were that the Norwegian EFL curricula require little reading, and subsequently, the students read very little English. Hellekjær confirms that the low results can be explained by the way the students are reading, as they read slowly for detail and are diverted by unknown words (2005). Another interesting finding is that the advanced English course in upper secondary school does not help or improve the students' reading proficiency (2005). The problem is the neglect of teaching reading and reading strategies, both in Norwegian and in English.

According to research, strategy instruction improves reading comprehension. Grabe (2008) highlights the significance of reading strategy instruction, stating that it is important for students "to develop a repertoire of effective strategies to support comprehension" (2008, p. 207-208). The teacher teaches the reading strategies by engaging in dialogue with the students to help them understand the text as they are reading it. "The integration of text understanding, discussion around a text, and strategies to build comprehension require that the strategies identified are actually effective" (p. 207). When it comes to reading strategies, it is clear that there are many similarities between strategies in L1 and L2. However, there are some features that are specific to L2. These include mental translation, the impact of L1 transfer, and the potential metacognitive advantage of the L2 learner (Grabe, 2008, p. 208). These strategies provide the students with a better and more precise understanding and allow them to incorporate it for better comprehension.

There is an abundance of research on the teaching of reading. Smith and Elley (1997) point out that the way to achieve good reading instruction is to have an interaction between the teacher, the students, and the materials. The teaching practices with the most effective results include when teachers engage students in on-task behaviors, engage in modeling for students, and engage in student-reading instruction. Taylor et al. $(2005 ; 2000)$ discovered that teachers favored a teaching style based on coaching instead of telling. Coaching is defined as "the teacher prompting/providing support that will transfer to other situations as students are attempting to answer a question or to perform a strategy or activity. The teacher's apparent purpose is to foster independence, to get a more complete thought or action rather than to simply get a student to answer" (Taylor, 2005, p. 52).

In accordance with the regulations, teachers are required to teach students strategic reading and learning, as its principles and associated competency objectives mandate it. A teacher must teach students the reasons, the methods, and the timing of certain strategies common to effective readers in order to develop students into strategic, active readers. In contrast to introducing and focusing on one strategy at a time, Duke et al. (2011) state that "teaching students comprehension routines that include developing facility with a repertoire of strategies from which to draw during independent reading tasks can lead to increased understanding" (p. 63). Reading strategies build upon each other, so in order to make the most of the text, effective readers will use multiple strategies while reading.

In strategy instruction, responsibility is usually gradually released. The work of Pearson and Gallagher (1983) illustrates the process by which the students gradually take over
responsibility for the use of strategies from the teachers. The teacher's role is to transition from modeling and direct instruction of strategies to indirect instruction. By guided practice, the teacher scaffolds the students' use of strategies in the classroom based on their needs and provides them with support. Finally, students become more responsible for their strategy use as the teacher releases control, thus leading to students' independence (Pearson \& Gallagher, 1983, p. 338; Duke et al, 2011, p. 64-66; Brevik \& Rindal, 2020, p. 150).

### 3.7 Connection between L 1 and L 2 reading

Although there are differences between L1 and L2 reading, it has repeatedly been stressed that the development of second and foreign reading skills and language skills is connected to the skills and knowledge in one's first language. The connection of skills between languages has been reported in numerous studies (Grabe, 2009; Clarke, 1980). In a study on L2 reading, Clarke (1980) argued that reading skills from the first language transfer to the second language. However, he states that the transfer can be restricted by limited L2 language proficiency (p. 206). Alderson (1984) questioned whether poor L2 reading skills were due to poor L1 skills and too low L2 language proficiency (Alderson, 1984 in Grabe, 2008, p. 146). Carrell (1991) discovered that reading skills and language proficiency in the first language were crucial in forecasting the second language reading skills.

L2 reading is more complex than L1 reading due to the fact that it is crosslinguistic in nature. Koda (2007) states that

Unlike first language reading, second language reading involves two languages. The dual-language involvement implies continual interactions between the two languages as well as incessant adjustments in accommodating the disparate demands each language imposes.

> (Koda, 2007, p. 1).

In L2 research, transfer has long been regarded as an important theoretical concept. Although transfer is central, the concept is not universally understood (Koda, 2007, p. 16).

Traditionally, learners have relied on L1 linguistic knowledge to transfer their knowledge. For example, Krashen (1984) proposed that transfer was, in part, the result of learners' reverting to old knowledge when new knowledge is not yet developed. Edwards stated that
"literacy and cognitive skills can be transferred from one language to another and do not need to be learned afresh for each new language" (Edwards, 2009, p.59). As such, skills acquired in an individual's first language can be transferred to their second language, facilitating their ability to read in the second language. Learning to read at the L 2 level involves more than just L1 transfer; it is about developing L2 language proficiency, exposure to L2 language, exposure to L2 print, and the development of L2 processing skills that most of the issues related to L 2 reading can be linked to. It is well recognized that L 1 transfer has a significant role to play, with research oriented toward the notion of 'learning to read with languages' over the past decade (Grabe, 2009, p. 129). From this perspective, it appears clear that L2 reading is not simply someone learning to read in another language. Instead, L2 reading is about learning to read using a language (Grabe, 2009, p. 129).

L1 and L2 reading differ in a number of ways, and students approach it differently depending on whether they are reading in their first or second language. Some of the differences are linguistic and processing differences, developmental and educational differences, and sociocultural and institutional differences between L1 and L2 (Grabe, 2009, p. 130). The students' L2 lexical, grammatical, and discourse knowledge in L2 reading varies greatly, as do the linguistic resources they use for comprehension in L1 and L2 reading. The L2 reader is, however, typically at a disadvantage in a number of ways in comparison with the L1 reader. An L2 speaker's oral language will typically be less developed. Also the speaker will have a lesser understanding of the language, fewer background knowledge pieces, a more limited vocabulary set, and more limited reading exposure than someone speaking an L1. When children begin to learn how to read in their L1, they typically have an oral vocabulary of 5,000 to 8,000 words (Cunningham, 2005); usually, learners have a smaller L2 vocabulary. (Grabe, 2009). Developing implicit knowledge of L2 morphology, syntax, and sound combinations takes many years for L2 learners (Grabe, 2009, p. 130). The processing of a text may differ significantly due to the language differences. The ability to predict which combination of L1 resources will facilitate or interfere with L2 reading is not clear either.

Furthermore, even though L1 and L2 reading differ in terms of language, there are other, more contextual aspects that are very important. There are also developmental and educational differences in L1 and L2 reading (Grabe, 2009, p. 133). Academic reading requires L 2 readers to have a much greater store of reading experiences than basic language processing. Among the reading abilities that L 1 reader possess are: identifying main ideas,
integrating information across a text and across texts, focusing selectively on key information and evaluating information in relation to background knowledge (Grabe, 2009, p. 134). The skills and experiences they have gained from their L1 reading practice are also applied in their L2 reading. L2 readers' comprehension development is impacted by their academic experiences and reading experiences combined and makes it different from L1 learners' L1 experiences. Another difference between L1 and L2 reading is the amount of contact the readers have with print (Grabe, 2009, p. 134). While L1 learners often encounter a multitude of words in everyday situations, L2 readers are often restricted to the classroom for their exposure to texts, and these often are short passages in textbooks produced for L2 classes (Charboneau, 2016). Most L2 readers will struggle to gain as much exposure to reading as L1 readers easily do as academically oriented learners (Grabe, 2009, p. 134).

L2 reading development is influenced by factors other than available linguistic resources, educational experiences, and developmental cognitive experiences (Grabe, 2009, p. 137). Cultural contexts and societal factors also play a role in L1 and L2 differences. According to Grabe (2009, p. 137), the types of texts that are commonly produced and read, the reasons why people read texts, the approaches to reading texts, and the literacy experiences that learners accumulate shape the development of L2 reading. In L2 and L1 contexts, all of these experiences will differ due to their social and cultural backgrounds. Our sociocultural background affects our expectations about reading when we learn to read in our L1. Cultures differ in terms of how much text is everywhere versus how much text does not pervade the environment. Grabe (2009, p. 138) gives examples of how texts are viewed in different cultures: some cultures view texts as throwaways because so much text is available. Other cultures do not make use of texts so frequently and value books, even when the texts are outdated. The written word is highly valued in some cultures (Grabe, 2009, p. 138). In a society or culture given, a reader is accustomed to these patterns of variation and to how texts are used. L2 readers' experiences with texts in social life often differ significantly from their L1 reading experiences. They must recognize these differences and adjust to them, or else they will have a difficult time reading the material.

Background knowledge in the form of cultural orientation also influences L2/FL reading (Barnett, 1989; Johnson, 1982). Research on the role of background and prior knowledge has largely been based on Carrell's (1987) paradigm. As writing systems in different parts of the world differ greatly, learning to read an L2 presents different challenges. As readers learn to read a particular writing system, neural pathways develop in their brains to accommodate the
demands (Birch \& Fulop, 2021, p.55). This means that readers L1 systems and infrastructure is designed to meet the demands of the writing system being used. During the period of learning to read in the L2, the linguistic infrastructure that is developed in the L1 is transferred to the process of acquiring reading in L2. According to Koda (2005, p. 75) there is a qualitative difference in the linguistic strategies used by L2 readers from diverse L1s when reading an L2, and this difference is clearly related to differences in the L1 writing system used by each of them. When L2 systems are missing, learners fall back on L1 systems (Koda, 2008, p. 70-71; Krashen \& Terrell, 1983). In the process of transferring linguistic characteristics from L1 to L2, we see positive, negative, or neutral change (Birch \& Fulop, 2021, p. 55).

When learning a second language, people rely on their knowledge of their first language because their second language knowledge is inadequate. If sufficient L2 proficiency is achieved and the skills and terminology of the L2 have been mastered, then any transfer effects should disappear. Consequently, L1 knowledge will not influence the L2. Jiang et al. (2019) state that interlanguage is "theoretically conceived as the product of interaction between two linguistic systems, the native language (NL) and the target language (TL)" (2019, p. 86). It corresponds to learners' attempts to construct a new Linguistic Infrastructure that gradually approaches the infrastructure of the target language.

Based on Cummings (1979)'s explicit focus on the development of cognitive strategies and vocabulary learning, Cummings (1979) assumed there was a common cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) that would provide both L1 and L2 readers with reading skills. The assumption was that people who are fluent readers in their first language are capable of reading in their second language as well if they possess cognitive academic language proficiency and strong cognitive abilities. Consequently, those who lack CALP skills in their second language are also likely to have difficulty reading their first language. Learning a second language should therefore always be followed by becoming proficient in the learners' L1 and developing their CALP before learning the L2. Learners could quickly add a second reading system to their L1 system once they have mastered L1 cognitively and academically. This perspective was however not supported by verifiable evidence (Birch \& Fulop, 2021, p. 57).

Alderson (1984) questioned whether poor L2 reading skills were due to poor L1 skills and too low L2 language proficiency (Alderson, 1984). To stimulate better empirical research and pedagogical practice, Alderson (1984, p. 4) discussed two hypotheses that was set forth in a study by Cummings (1976) regarding learner variables. The developmental interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 1976) implies that the competence in an L2 is dependent on the competence in the L1. Reading ability is implicated in the developmental interdependence hypothesis, which claims that poor reading ability in a second language is related to poor reading ability in the first language (Alderson, 1984). A poor L1 reader will have difficulty reading well in their L 2 , but a good L 1 reader will have no issues in their L 2 language. The developmental interdependence hypothesis shares the same perspective as the CALP point of view. The problem with reading in a L2 is attributed to the general difficulties the readers have with reading.

The second hypothesis, the linguistic threshold hypothesis, has to do with language proficiency. In the linguistic threshold hypothesis, reading difficulties in a second language are attributed to an insufficient understanding of the L2 (Alderson, 1984). Readers who are good in their L1 will read well in their L2 once they have reached a certain level of proficiency. In this hypothesis, reader proficiency in both languages is equal, so that learner proficiency in the second language or language problems cause learners to be poor readers. Clarke (1980) examined the transferability of reading skills according to proficiency in a second language. The hypothesis suggests that a reader's L1 reading skills need to be at a threshold level of proficiency in L2 reading in order for L1 reading skills to affect L2 reading skills. Clarke (1980) observed native Spanish students in the classroom with English as a second language and observed their L1 and L2 reading abilities. Those proficient in the L1 could understand the text semantically, while those who were less proficient relied on syntactic clues. On the other hand, the gap between good and poor L1 readers decreased in L2. Because they did not possess sufficient L2 language proficiency, their L1 reading behaviors could not be transferred to their L2 reading behaviors.

Earlier in history, reading was not thought of as a task that involves phonemic, syllabic, morphemic, or orthographic awareness and processing strategies, which we now consider to be very important (Birch \& Fulop, 2021, p. 57). Researchers in the field of reading are now in agreement that, although significant variables affect learners, they also confront challenges due to the differences in writing systems (Birch \& Fulop, 2021, p. 57). Because of this, one
cannot simply divide L2 literacy acquisition problems into reading problems and language problems. Writing system variables must also be taken into account. The earlier developmental interdependence hypothesis and the linguistic threshold hypothesis are reinterpreted by Koda (2005). However, writing system variables are emphasized. Koda (2005, p. 72) states that L2 readers who come from a variety of L1 cultures use qualitatively different linguistic strategies to read the same target language. Their L1 writing system varies structurally, which is what explains the diversity. Reading is therefore a complex interaction between readers' L1 Linguistic Infrastructure and L2 print. It is in some sense a language issue as learners develop different reading systems after learning to read their L1. In some ways, it is a reading issue, as readers try to utilize the same infrastructure in their first language to read their second language. To summarize, failing to read L2 is often a problem with writing systems.

In order to acquire a language, learners construct a unique type of natural language as they go through the process of learning the second language (Birch \& Fulop, 2021, p. 68). The infrastructure consists of a mix between two linguistic infrastructures which compete or cooperate. While the first language has a hardwired and complete infrastructure, the second is fragmented. From learning and practice, neural pathways and connections are built to become fluent in L2 reading (Birch \& Fulop, 2021, p. 68). Researchers have found that there are commonalities in how hybrid interlanguage systems perform and transfer, especially when it comes to reading. There are two hypotheses presented by Perfetti et al. (2007) about what happens to the L 1 reading system to support L 2 reading. The first hypothesis is assimilation. There is no need to change the L1 system itself for it to be assimilated to the L2 writing system and orthography (Perfetti et al 2007). The activation patterns of the brain will continue to show the same pattern as those of the L1, and low-level processing strategies will remain the same. Those writing systems that are similar will facilitate the exchange of information, and those that are very different will cause interference in the process. When reading a later writing system, the brain uses its L1 processing network as it is, with no adjustments. Alternately, there is the accommodation hypothesis where the L1 reading system could be modified or adapted to incorporate L2 writing features (Perfetti et al 2007). As a consequence, linguistic infrastructure changes to accommodate the needs of the L 2 writing system as a result of brain activation patterns matching the L2 print input. If readers become more adept at reading their second language, then interference will disappear. Put simply, accommodation is the process readers go through when faced with a new writing system, and the brain adapts its linguistic infrastructure.

### 3.8 Extramural English

Today, students also read English extramurally. Extramural English refers to when learners come in contact with English outside of the classroom (Sundqvist, 2009). It refers to activities conducted outside of the classroom in which one engages with English-related material. As Richards (2015) points out, an effective second language learning program must consider two factors: "what goes on in the classroom and what goes on outside of the classroom" (p. 5). Out-of-class learning is defined by Benson (2001, p. 61), as "any kind of learning taking place outside of the classroom and involves self-instruction, naturalistic learning and self-directed naturalistic learning".

Extramural English is an activity that has to be initiated by the learner, and Sundqvist (2009) emphasizes that "no degree of deliberate intention to acquire English is necessary" (p. 25). However, that does not necessarily mean that deliberate intention is excluded. Sundqvist (2009) clarifies that learners may come in contact with English extramurally without purposeful intention, and they will engage in an unexpected extramural English activity without realizing it. There are however also learners who are active users of extramural English with the purpose of strengthening their L2, and these learners are, according to Sundqvist (2009, p. 26) "taking charge of their own L2 learning". There are almost an unlimited number of opportunities to engage in extramural English. Some activities can for example be reading books, watching movies, using social media, playing videogames or even communicating with English speaking people. Extramural English activities are those that provide students with an opportunity to practice English outside the classroom. A student who is utilizing social networks such as Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, or any other website that provides exposure to the English language is also considered to be using extramural English.

Sundqvist $(2008,2011)$ has worked many years with extramural English. In recent years, she has worked with Sylvén (2012, 2014 \& 2016) to develop extramural English studies further. Sundqvist \& Sylvén (2014) conducted a study on 112 students between the ages of 10 and 11, and found that learners spend more time watching television and playing digital games than they do reading. In their study, gender is found to play a substantial role in how learners engage with extramural English activities. The majority of male learners prefer gaming, whereas a large number of female learners prefer watching movies. There are differences in the types of games that girls and boys play. Sundqvist (2009) found that games about
shooting, role-playing games, or sports usually appeal to boys, while girls prefer games about fashion and romance, such as The Sims.

Brevik et al. (2016) found that among over 10,000 students throughout Norway, there was a small group of around 500 students who had a completely different language profile than all the others (Brevik et al., 2016). This group read extremely well in English but they were among the weakest in Norwegian. It was also discovered that the majority of these students were male. These students who would have been considered weak readers if only their reading skills in Norwegian had been examined, read so well in English that there can be no problem with their reading skills. In interviews with some of the young people, Brevik et al. (2016) confirmed that their good English skills were a result of the fact that they played a lot of videogames, where English was used to read instructions and communicate with others. The young people themselves said that their English skills were due to extensive use of English in their free time, and the reason that emerges most clearly is online gaming. In this instance we see that these videogames have offered a great deal of comprehensible input, as well as compelling input to the students. The videogame players are able to make such substantial progress in English, because it is an activity which they are interested in, which forms the basis for acquiring a language (Krashen, 2011).

There is now an easier and wider access to English than previously. According to Hult (2003), the English language holds a prestigious position. For example, it serves as a means of communication for the European Union. High-status interactions, international business communication, and higher education use English extensively. In many countries, English is now the language of choice for foreign language instruction, Crystal (2003) explains. Nonnative speakers of English choose to learn this language in order to advance on the international stage.

There has been a dramatic increase in students' access to extramural English with the use of information technology (Sundqvist, 2009). The globalization and advancement of technology have made English more accessible. The English language is constantly present in our lives through social media, the internet, video games and movies. The Norwegian media authority (2020) presents a study that shows that $97 \%$ of young people from the age $9-18$ have access to a smartphone. Having more technology at their disposal also means that children and teens have better chances of coming into contact with extramural English. The availability of technology has allowed millions of people to simultaneously connect, creating a fast-paced
culture where new content is uploaded every minute. Today, many individuals have significantly improved their skills in English thanks to an extremely massive exposure to the language.


Figure 2. The languages used in different digital platforms among Norwegian 9-18 year old's (The Norwegian media authority, 2020)

From the statistics presented by the Norwegian media authority (2020), it shows that more than six out of ten Norwegian 9-18-year-olds say that English is the language most commonly used when watching YouTube, playing videogames, or watching TV, movies, or series, whereas Norwegian is the language most commonly used when reading news. It is interesting to see that the students mostly read news in Norwegians; this may indicate that the students are more comfortable reading formal texts in their L1, while they prefer to use English when using the informal platforms.

Because most youths are exposed to technology and different media platforms before attending school, they already have a good understanding of the English language. This makes it even more necessary for English educators to know the background and interests of students. English educators can use this information to help their students improve their English skills. A common activity among peers is the use of the Internet, and it is expected to remain a popular activity for many years to come. English becomes the medium of communication through the Internet, which affords students a chance to interact with people from around the globe. Dörnyei (2005) states, however, that students participate in extramural English activities not for the sake of learning English, but rather for their own enjoyment.

### 3.9 Learner beliefs

A significant role in student success and learning can be attributed to the perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes they bring to the learning process (Breen, 2001). Learning a second language may lead to students having solid beliefs about the language, its difficulty, how they can learn it, and how reading and learning strategies can be used. The pedagogical process can enhance and engage learners by providing opportunities for learners' contributions to have a positive impact (Breen, 2001; Arnold, 1999). Students' beliefs are crucial to their understanding and how they approach learning an L2 (Kalaja et al., 2017, p. 222). According to Kalaja et al. (2017), learner beliefs refer to the "conceptions, ideas and opinions learners have about L2 learning and teaching and language itself (p. 222). Learner beliefs have been defined as "the relatively stable information human thinkers have about their own cognitive processes and those of others" (Wenden, 1998, p. 516). Learning a language is motivated by learners' belief that they are in control of the process and can grasp new material. In order to understand language learners' motivations, attitudes, and behaviors, it is essential to predict how they think they will improve. The learners who perceive themselves as more in control of their learning process study more and perform better in class. In other words, a belief in how much control one feels is itself an attitude and belief.

It has become increasingly important for researchers in the field of second language acquisition to analyze beliefs about language learning, as a result of assumptions such as: "success depends less on materials, techniques, and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom" (Stevick, 1980, p.4). Stevick (1980) argues that learners' beliefs influence learners' learning processes. Several studies have found that learner beliefs influence their choice of learning strategies (Park, 1997; Yang, 1999). Researchers have used quantitative methods to test and compare learners' beliefs in different populations and compare beliefs within them based on this conception of learner beliefs as mental representations. The Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory questionnaire (Horwitz, 1988) is a more commonly used research instrument. This research instrument aims to investigate learners' beliefs in five significant areas. These areas include the difficulty of learning language, foreign language aptitude, the nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies, and motivation and expectations (Horwitz, 1988, p. 284).

A main assumption underlying L2 motivation has been geographical variation, Dörnyei \& Clément (2001) argue that "geographical variation has been one of the main assumptions underlying L2 motivation research during the past four decades that the social milieu in which
language learning takes place exerts a profound influence on L2 motivation" (2001, p. 403). The social influences that occur during the process of learning a foreign language can be predictably observed when language learners have similar social characteristics. Additionally, the beliefs and attitudes of language learners are affected by the beliefs and attitudes of those around them. Teachers, classmates, parents, and friends are among the different people and groups that language learners interact with. Learning languages might be motivated or demotivated by the learners' beliefs about these groups when they start learning languages. The values they form from these beliefs and opinions may be integrated into their belief system for language learning. In their study, Clark and Hawkins (2010) identified a number of factors that are important to creating a desire to read, a sense of reading pleasure, and a positive attitude about reading in young readers, including parents who encourage reading, children who see their parents reading, as well as family conversations about reading. Vygotsky (1978) also argues that learning occurs in a collaborative environment as learners interact with their surroundings, and in the development process cultural tools are important for mediating the social and cultural engagement of learners. This means that having people, for example family or friends, as avid readers that push the learners to read, provide them with benefits of a skilled partner who can operate within their zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978).

How people interpret and respond to new information is determined by their preexisting beliefs about the topic. Likewise, students studying a second or foreign language do not come to class without knowing about the learning process. Several students have preconceived ideas about learning a second language (Horwitz, 1987). Preexisting beliefs likely affect learning processes because these beliefs influence learners' approaches and behavior (Horwitz, 1987). Research suggests that some beliefs may benefit learners, while others suggest that some beliefs may negatively impact language learning. Learning outcomes are more likely to be improved for learners with a positive attitude and realistic language-related beliefs than for learners who harbor negative attitudes and mistaken beliefs, as Mantle-Bromley (1995) suggested. In a similar vein, Mori (1999) argued that positive beliefs could compensate for learners' limited abilities. As a matter of concern, Horwitz (1987) expressed his concern that certain erroneous beliefs or misconceptions might make it more difficult for learners to master a new language. Ellis (2002) conducted a study with adult learners of German in London. The findings of this study showed that learners' beliefs are closely connected to the difficulties they experience while learning.

## 4 Methodology

### 4.1 Introduction

Research methodology does, according to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), determine which specific tools the researcher uses to conduct a study, stating that the "general approach the researcher takes in carrying out the research project, to some extent, this approach dictates the particular tools the researcher selects" (2005, p.12). Henning et al. (2005) also define methodology as "the coherent group of methods that complement one another and that have the 'goodness of fit' to deliver data and findings that will reflect the research question and suit the research purpose" ( 2005, p. 36). The purpose of this chapter is to provide a detailed review of the data collection and methodology for this study. This chapter elaborates on the research methods and design utilized in this study, including the strategies and instruments used for data collection as well as methods used to analyze the data. In order to demonstrate how the study was conducted, all stages and processes involved in the study are presented. The research questions of the study aim to find out what motivates the students to read, the reading practices that the student have, what beliefs the students have concerning reading and the significance that reading has on their lives.

For the purposes of answering the research questions, mixed methods were employed, i.e., both qualitative and quantitative data were collected. The qualitative data consisted of semistructured interviews with eight Vg 2 students. The quantitative data consisted of logs, collected in the form of numbers within pre-defined categories. The present study is a case study. A case study is a detailed investigation of a single person, group, or event (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 151). The study of one case should allow one to generalize its findings to many others. It is difficult to generalize the results of case studies to a larger population due to the subjective nature of their results (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 153).

Throughout this chapter, the research aims are addressed, and the methods used to achieve them are explained. Therefore, the chapter has been divided into sections that address specific aspects of the research. It starts with an overview of the research methods that are used in the study. The next section deals with sampling and the data analysis procedures. Section 4.7 deals with the ethical issues associated with the research. Section 4.8 explains the storage and disposal of the data, and section 4.9 is about the validity and reliability of the study.

### 4.2 Mixed methods research

The study employed mixed methods research (MMR), combining a qualitative interview and quantitative logs. I will use both of these methods to arrive at a more reliable conclusion about the research issue. According to Ivankova \& Greer (2015, p. 65), MMR is used "as an effort to be as inclusive as possible", and it is further defined as "research in which the investigator collects and analyzes data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study or a program of inquiry" (2015, p. $65)$. Qualitative research can be defined as research that "uses words as data, collected and analysed in all sorts of ways" (Braun \& Clarke, 2013, ch. 1, no pagination) and quantitative research, in contrast "uses numbers as data and analyses them using statistical technique (Braun \& Clarke, 2013, ch. 1, no pagination). Johnson and Christensen (2012, p. 51) emphasize the strength of mixed methods research by saying that the different approaches to research have different strengths and weaknesses and that this approach helps to improve the quality of research. Using several research methods with such different strengths and weaknesses within a study can decrease the likelihood that you will miss important information or make mistakes. The main purpose of combining methods, according to Sandelowski (2003), is to obtain a deeper understanding of the complex target phenomenon. The objective is to gain an exhaustive and comprehensive understanding of this complex phenomenon by looking at it from different perspectives. Studying a problem with mixed methods broadens the scope of the investigation and improves the ability to draw conclusions (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 45). The data collection and analysis are based on reading logs and semistructured interviews with the upper secondary school students. The qualitative data consisted of individual semi-structured interviews with eight Vg 2 students. The quantitative data consisted of the everyday reading practices of the students, given in hours and minutes, through the reading logs.

### 4.3.Quantitative research

In quantitative research, numbers are one of the most important characteristics. Dörnyei (2007, p. 32) emphasizes that the use of numbers is an opportunity for the researcher, but it also imposes some limitations. Research numbers can be both effective and ineffective at the same time because they are meaningless unless an explanation is given to the circumstances in which the numbers were gathered and the reasons for their presentation. It is therefore
important to explain the variables and give reasons for their existence, especially with regards to their boundaries (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 32). To collect accurate data for quantitative research, it is necessary to specify the categories and values before launching the study, which indicates that the description and questions used for the study must be precise and not vague (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 33). Consequently, participants in quantitative research usually spend more time than in qualitative research (Dörnyei, p. 2007).

### 4.3.1 Logs

The diary method, more specifically logs, was used as a method of data collection. The diary method in language learning research has been defined as "a regular record of language learning-related activity which is kept by the learner, together with some form of review of that activity in order to inform future action" (Murphy, 2008, p. 199, cited in Rose, 2019). As a method of data collection, the diary method describes ways in which participants record their own opinions, thoughts, and behavior regarding a certain study topic (Rose, 2019). Using the diary method for L2 research is a good way to collect data, especially when students are participants in the study (Rose, 2019, p. 349). Since the study is about the students' relationship to reading, logs help get a direct tap into the students' everyday reading practices, which can otherwise be difficult to achieve with other data collection methods (Rose, 2019, p. 349; Dörnyei, 2007). Rose (2019) states that a log is a "constrained type of diary method that is used to collect very specific information surrounding a research construct" (p. 350). A diary method generally requires participants to invest considerable time, and if they do not see the point of maintaining their diary, the data set is likely to contain omitted or incomplete data (Rose, 2019). It is therefore important for the researcher to keep in mind to not overwhelm the participants with time demands. Researchers face a number of challenges when collecting data with this method, including the fact that the participants do not complete their logs. In this case, data may be unreliable, and the study may be incomplete. In applied linguistics, this method of using logs has not yet been widely adopted. According to Bartlett and Milligan (2015), most research methodology texts fail to incorporate diary methods much or at all, despite their obvious benefits (Bartlett \& Milligan, 2015, cited in Rose, 2019, p. 357).

The data was collected in the form of numbers of hours and minutes within pre-defined categories. The logs were filled in prior to the interviews, and the students that wrote the log also participated in the interviews. The duration of the log was two weeks. The log contained quantitative data, which means their reading is given in hours and minutes. The reading activities were divided into categories: reading material at school, homework, fiction, nonfiction, magazine, comic book, social media, television, and others. Reading for school and reading for pleasure, as well as reading in Norwegian and reading in English, was distinguished in the logs. As logs often require the participants to record the information on the go (Rose, 2019, p. 350), especially now that digital reading is so accessible, the log structure was easy so the students could record their reading with quick measures. They were also provided with small notebooks, small enough for the participants to carry them around easily.

Example of what the reading log looks like:

| Monday |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Reading (what type of reading) | Time spent (hours / minutes) | Norwegian or English (N / E) |
| Reading in school |  |  |
| Homework |  |  |
| Homework |  |  |
| Facebook |  |  |
| Fictional novel |  |  |
| ETC. |  |  |

### 4.4 Qualitative research

Qualitative research is, according to Dörnyei (2007), "fundamentally interpretive, which means that the research outcome is ultimately the product of the researcher's subjective interpretation of that data." (2007, p. 38). Dörnyei (2007, p. 40) observes that qualitative research has traditionally been considered an effective method for exploring new areas as well as an effective tool for understanding complex situations. Data collection processes in qualitative research generate mostly open-ended, non-numerical data that are analyzed primarily by non-statistical approaches (Cohen et al., 2007).

In this study, the qualitative data was collected through interviews. The focus of this thesis is to have an understanding of "the meaning people have constructed, that is, how they make sense of their world, and the experiences they have in the world" (Merriam, 1998, p. 6). This relates to learner beliefs, as it was important to understand the students' reading habits and relationship to reading, and so a qualitative approach was well suited to this study's purposes. The purpose of qualitative research is to understand social reality, according to Leavy (2014, p.2). Leavy (2014) argues further that a qualitative approach is
"used to explore, describe, or explain social phenomenon; unpack the meaning people ascribe to activities, situations, events, or artefacts; build a depth of understanding about some aspects of social life...of people in naturalistic settings; explore new or underresearched areas; or make micro-macro links..."
(Leavy, 2014, p. 2).
Leavy's (2014) argument relates to learner beliefs, as he argues that it is important to unpack what people think about certain activities. Nieuwenhuis (2007, p.51) posits that the qualitative approach focuses on the meanings and interpretations of the participants in their natural environment. Nieuwenhuis (2007, p.51) argues that the methodology of qualitative research does not place much emphasis on developing statistically valid samples, or on evaluating hypotheses through data analysis. However, through qualitative research, it is possible to describe and explore the phenomena with the intention of examining the views that are imparted by the participants within their naturally occurring context. The qualitative approach, therefore, permits a more in-depth examination of data. Through semi-structured interviews, a deeper understanding of the reading habits, beliefs and experiences of the participants was accomplished.

### 3.4.1 Semi-structured interviews

Interviewing is a common method of obtaining data both in education and in applied linguistics (Dörnyei, 2007). The process of conducting an interview consists of asking questions to interviewees (Johnson and Christensen, 2012, p. 198). An interview is an interaction between two people, in this case on a defined topic in which participants can express their opinions about the world in which they live (Cohen, 2011, p. 409). Thus, an
interview is an effective tool for collecting data. In this study, semi-structured interviews were used. According to Braun \& Clarke (2013), semi-structured interviews are the most common among the different types of one-to-one interviews (Rolland et al., 2019, p. 280; Braun \& Clarke, 2013). Not just following a straightforward guide for the interview and leaving room for additional questions and topics creates diverse responses and more relevant information. For this reason, semi-structured interviews fit the purpose of the study at hand. One-to-one semi-structured interviews were conducted with the eight Vg 2 students (see appendix A ).

Such interviews are conducted by using an interview guide with pre-prepared questions but leaves room to explore topics raised by participants (Rolland et al., 2019, p. 280). Dörnyei (2011, p. 137) writes that an interview guide can be helpful to a researcher in various ways. For example, it makes sure that every aspect of the domain is covered, and nothing is overlooked. Additionally, by using an interview guide, the researcher has a list of good probe questions, and some suggestions regarding how to proceed. The interviews were organized a few weeks after the start of the project and were a follow-up to the logs. The organized interview guide (see appendix A) is divided into four categories. These categories include: reading beliefs, reading practices and experiences, in school/extramural reading, and reading strategies. Dividing the questions into different categories allowed for a more structured interview guide, making it more orderly and logical for both the interviewee and the researcher. The categories ensure that the relevant and important questions and themes are covered. The questions were open-ended questions, subject to follow-up questions, concerning the students' experiences with reading. The questions included: what does reading mean to you, who often do you read, what are your thoughts about getting to choose texts to read in class, and how do you incorporate reading strategies into your classroom reading (see appendix A for interview guide). The individual interviews allowed the students to feel more comfortable. The choice was made to conduct individual interviews so that the pupils had the opportunity to share their personal experiences without fear of judgement from the other students in the class. The recorded interviews provided the researcher with information about the students' reading preferences, reading habits and experiences.

The individual interviews were conducted during their English classes. The researcher and the students' teacher agreed that it was more convenient to conduct the interviews during their classes as the students would be in one place. The interviews were conducted in a small room near their classroom. The interviews lasted for about 15-12 minutes. Norwegian was the
language used during the sessions. Norwegian was chosen because of the possibility of language barriers, as well as the possibility of obtaining more elaborate answers. All of the students are native Norwegians, so the use of the L1 was seen as an advantage. Dörnyei (2010) emphasizes the advantages of conducting research conversations in the respondent's mother tongue, stating, "the quality of the obtained data increases if the questionnaire is presented in the respondents' own mother tongue" (2010, p. 49).

The interviews were audio-recorded and later transcribed. The audio-recorder allowed the interview to go more smoothly, as the researcher focused on the students to encourage them to elaborate on their thoughts. Prior to the interviews, the students were made aware, once again, that the study was voluntary, and they could withdraw at any point.

The interview was piloted prior to the actual interview. The pilot for the interview was a useful way to see how the interview questions worked. Some questions were too similar and had to be edited or cut out, and some questions were added after the pilot interview.

### 4.5 Participants

There are, according to Mckay (2006), two crucial things to the selection of the participants: the participants need to be related to the research purpose, and they must be representative of the target population. Similarly, Patton (2002), asserts that in purposeful sampling, participants are selected whose characteristics are similar to those of the targeted population. Furthermore, Shenk and Brown (2007) suggest that the researcher selects the participants with the answers or insights they are looking for. Consequently, the size of the sampling is very small. Due to the fact that aim of this thesis is to explore ESL students' relationship to reading, the selected informants were eight Norwegian Vg-2 ESL students. The participants are from one class. The criteria for choosing these participants were that the students are from a Vg2 English class, that they are 17-19 years old, and that they speak Norwegian.

The sampling of the informants was influenced by the fact that the English subject in $\operatorname{Vg} 2$ is optional. There is reason to believe that since the Vg 2 students have chosen the English subject, they have more interest in the subject. Compared to Vg 1 or lower-secondary school students, the Vg2 students read more and are better acquainted with the reading strategies. An
application was sent to the Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD) and approved. The participants in the study read and signed an information sheet, permitting them to participate in the study (see appendix C). In order to select informants for the study, schools and teachers were contacted, and the students were selected through the teacher.

The study employed convenience sampling as the sampling strategy. This is, according to Dörnyei (2007, p. 98), the most common sampling type in L2 research. This is a convenience sample because, in this study, certain practical criteria are met, such as geographic proximity, availability at a particular time, easy accessibility, and willingness to volunteer (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 98). While the plan was to include students from two different classes, the researcher, due to time limitations, decided to only include eight participants from one class. This also affected the sampling criteria for choosing the participants, and it became more of a convenience sample, as all the students that volunteered had the chance to participate in the study. Even though the participants were all from the same class, there was still a variety of students, as they all are from different classes since English is a subject they have chosen, and one of the participants was from Vg 3 but had chosen to take the Vg 2 English class. There was also a variety of genders in the study, with half of the participant being girls, and the other half boys. In the study, certain practical criteria are met, such as geographic proximity, availability at a particular time, easy accessibility, or willingness to volunteer (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 98). However, the sample is not purely convenient; at least in part it's purposeful, as the informants possess certain key characteristics that relate to the study. The characteristics include that the informants are in a Vg2 English class, they are in the same age group, and they speak Norwegian, as the interviews are conducted in Norwegian.


Figure 3. The number of participants in the study, divided by boys and girls.

### 4.6 Data analysis

The data analysis process is an important component of the study. According to Cohen et al. (2011), qualitative data analysis "involved organizing, accounting for and explaining the data; in short, making sense of data in term of the participants' definitions of the situations, noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities" (2011, p. 461). Analyzing data serves as a way of communicating to others what has been observed and learned through new insights.

Qualitative data analysis often involves interpretation, and it should be noted that qualitative data is often subject to multiple interpretations (Cohen et al. 2011, p. 461). Qualitative and quantitative data analyses are equally important. Data analysis should be used according to its intended purpose. Though certain details are provided when considered relevant, the primary goal in quantitative data analysis is "to explain the concepts that underpin statistical analyses and to do this in as user-friendly a way as possible" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 501). The findings from the logs are used to look at the students' reading practices. The data material from the logs and from the interviews are used and organized into reading profiles.

The interview guide has been divided into categories, making it easier and more organized when analyzing the data. The findings are also divided into categories similar to the interview guide. The process of category construction involves grouping similar things into categories that seem appropriate (Saldaña, 2011). Cohen et al. (2011, p. 475) stress the difficult task of reducing great quantities of written data to manageable and understandable scale is one of the problems of qualitative data analysis. Content analysis is one method of doing so, a process by which all the words in a text are grouped into fewer categories (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 475). Cohen et al. (2011) states that "categories are usually derived from theoretical constructs or areas of interest devised in advance of the analysis (pre-ordinate categorization) rather than developed from the material itself, though these may be modified, of course, by reference to the empirical data" (2011, p. 475). The logs were analyzed first, then the interviews. The data from both research instruments were then integrated to provide a collective answer to the research questions. All the data was then coded. Coding is, according to Gibbs (2007) "how you define what the data you are analyzing are about" (2007, p. 38). Kerlinger (1970) defined coding as "the translation of question responses and respondent information to specific categories for the purpose of the analysis" (Kerlinger, 1970, cited in Cohen et al., 2011, p. 480). The coding relates to the above mentioned categories. The data was interpreted in relation to the research questions. In the context of the research question, it can illuminate
data by revealing patterns in the responses and by exposing meanings contained in the collected data. The data from the semi-structured interviews are structured into themes and categories.

### 4.7 Ethical issues

In conducting research, ethics play a crucial role. The concept of ethics refers to distinguishing between right and wrong. While conducting the research and collecting the data, the researcher had to take into account the different ethical issues involved. Dörnyei (2007) states that research in education "concerns people's lives in the social world and therefore it inevitably involves ethical issues" (2007, p. 63). Participants' interests and the researchers' interests may conflict, so it is very important to remember that there is more to life than research (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 64). Ethics is not just concerned with those with whom one is directly involved. Research can also have an impact on a broader group of people (Hammersley and Traianou, 2012, p. 5). According to Hammersley and Traianou (2012) a study could also damage an organization's reputation (2012, p. 5). It was therefore very important for the project to be approved by the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD) (see appendix C). Ethics in research and the protection of personal data are governed by national laws. It is therefore mandatory for researchers to follow this procedure when conducting research in schools in Norway to protect the students from ethical violations. Participant dignity and rights are important, and NSD stresses the importance of voluntary participation.

First on the agenda was to obtain the written consent of the participants. An application was sent to the Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD) and approved. The researcher obtained active consent, which involves the informants signing a consent form to take part in the research study (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 70). Dörnyei (2007) explains that active consent ensures that the participants know their rights, and that it protects the researcher from any accusations (2007, p. 70). The participants of this study read and signed a consent form (see appendix C). The information and consent form provides the students with information about the purpose and aims of the study, it explains the tasks that the participants are expected to perform, and it explains that the participants are entitled to withdraw from the study at any time. Anonymity
is another basic dilemma in education research, and according to Dörnyei (2007, p. 65) the participants should ideally remain anonymous (2007, p. 65). It is essential that respondents' right to privacy is respected and that they are within their rights not to participate in the study or to withdraw without explanation (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 68). Dörnyei (2007, p. 68) stresses that it is the researcher's responsibility to ensure that confidentiality is fully assured, and it is important not to promise more than what can be achieved. Confidentiality and anonymity were assured to the informants. The researcher informed participants, both verbally and in an information letter, that the study was anonymous and that their identities could not be revealed. The participants are anonymous and they were given pseudonyms for anonymity and confidentiality. The names have been chosen at random and have no correlation with the informants. The information letter was in line with NSD guidelines, and a template made by them was used. Moreover, the letter stated that the students could withdraw themselves at any time and that their participation was voluntary. They were reassured that the opinions they expressed and any data they provided would be kept confidential. The researcher also informed the eight students that the audio files would be used exclusively by the researcher, and that they would be deleted after the thesis was completed. Audio recordings can be a threat to anonymity and confidentiality as it allows the identification of the participants even after the research has ended (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 65). The collected data was collected and stored carefully, in order to prevent abuse of data.

### 4.8 Storage and disposal of data

The audio recordings were stored on a device that was not connected to the internet. The audio files were transferred and stored in a password-protected computer. The audio recordings were removed from the recorder when they were transferred and deleted when the interviews where transcribed. In the meantime, the data was stored and kept in a locked cabinet at all time during the process. All data must be stored in cryptic form, so that no one has access to the data. The notebooks with the logs and the consent forms were also stored in a safe and locked cabinet. After they were scanned and stored digitally, the notebooks were shredded. Both written material and audio files were coded. The code key was written by hand and stored locked up and separate from other project information. All data was deleted at the end of the project.

### 4.9 Validity and reliability

The principle of validity and reliability has been dismissed by some qualitative researchers, who argue that such principles belong mainly to positivistic research (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 49; Salner, 1989). Salner (1989) challenges this assumption, arguing that the meaning and content of validity and reliability apply to qualitative research as well, although possibly with a different connotation and implication from the positivistic tradition. Validity in qualitative studies assesses the truthfulness of the research results (Kothari, 2004, p. 73). The term is defined by Hammersley (1990) as: "By validity, I mean truth: interpreted as the extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers" (1990, p. 57). Kvale (1989, p. 78) elaborates on Hammersley (1990) by stating that validating knowledge ensures their truthfulness, strength of empirical evidence, and plausibility of interpretations. Validity is addressed in this study through the transparency of the design of the study, how it is built to answer the research questions, the process for analyzing the data, and finally, the degree to which the results and conclusions are consistent with the theory and are in keeping with the empirical data. The way in which the data is gathered, and its trustfulness is typically referred to as reliability. Robson (2002) explains that reliability in qualitative studies is mostly about "being thorough, careful and honest in carrying out the research" (2002, p. 176). The ways in which the interviews are conducted, as well as the way in which the questions are formulated and it is established rapport with interviewees, pertain to this issue (Cohen et al., 2007). The researcher has improved the reliability of this study by doing a pilot interview with the semi-structured interview guide. The aim of the pilot interview was to discover any unclear or confusing questions. The interview guide was also discussed with the supervisor and fellow students in the master's program. The reliability was also improved by conducting the interviews in the first language, making the data more reliable. In order to prevent misunderstandings due to having to listen and answer questions in English, the purpose was to ensure that every participant understood the questions the same way.

Validity in quantitative research refers to how well an instrument measures what it should measure and performs as expected (Heale \& Twycross, 2015). Since it is infrequent for an instrument to be $100 \%$ accurate, validity is usually measured in degrees. To validate an instrument, it is necessary to collect and analyze data. There are numerous statistical tests and measures available to assess the validity of quantitative instruments. Pilot testing is generally needed to measure the validity of quantitative instruments. The content validity of an instrument relates to its appropriateness (Paltridge \& Phakiti, 2015, p. 30). Paltridge \& Phakiti
(2015) states that "The validity of a research instrument is related to how accurately the instrument yields information about the aspect under investigation" (Paltridge \& Phakiti, 2015, p. 30). In other words, the measured must provide the researcher with the information they are seeking. Paltridge and Phakiti (2015) further assert that "the validity of a research instrument includes considering the theory underlying the behaviors to be measured, the characteristics of the instrument, the manner in which it is used to collect the data, and its reliability" (Paltridge \& Phakiti, 2015, p. 31). In this study, the researcher piloted the log prior to the main study. Logs are more valid as they are less dependent on long-term recalls, and they can capture sporadic and intermittent behavior more accurately. Therefore, logs make excellent tools for self-reported measurements. Consistency can be viewed as reliability. The instrument needs to be capable of measuring the desired outcomes consistently. Paltridge and Phakiti (2015) define the concept of reliability as "closely related to validity in the sense that a quantitative study cannot be valid if it uses unreliable data to analyze and answer its research questions" (Paltridge \& Phakiti, 2015, p. 31). It is often the reliability coefficients of data or measures of internal consistency which give us a sense of the reliability of that data (Paltridge \& Phakiti, 2015, p. 31). This research study aims to get an insight into the students' reading practices and reading habits, and the logs as a data collection method is a valid instrument to achieve this.

An integrated mix of quantitative and qualitative research methods were used for this study, and a deeper understanding of the research topic was achieved through the use of the two methods. By using several measures of data collection, the validity of the research study is enhanced. It is recommended by Yin (1994) to incorporate multiple sources to provide a more trustworthy and accurate case study. To ensure that researcher bias was minimized, the researcher used overlapping methods of data generation. Prior to the study, the log and semistructured interview were informally piloted on a student that fit the criteria of the participants in the study in order to simulate the main study. Cohen et al. (2007, p. 133) define validity in mixed methods research as an essential key to effective research and state further that validity has recently taken many forms such as honesty, depth, richness, and scope of the data achieved, the participants approached, and the objectivity of the researcher. Dörnyei (2007, p. 45) asserts that one strength of mixed-method research is its ability to generate evidence for the validity of research outcomes by combining the findings. The two research methods have contributed to the validity of this case study.

## 5. Research findings

In this chapter, the findings will be presented and the analysis of the student' reading habits and reading experiences of the Vg 2 students.

As stated in the research questions, the aim of this thesis is to map Vg2 ESL learners' beliefs and experiences with reading in English. The researcher will therefore analyze the students' habits, attitudes, and experiences toward reading practices in school and in their spare time, the reading strategies that the students use, motivations, their beliefs concerning how their reading contributes to ESL learning and the significance that reading has on their lives.

This chapter starts with presenting the findings from the logs, in section 5.1. In sections 5.2 to 5.8 the findings from the semi structured interviews will be presented. The results from the interviews are somewhat categorized based on the interview guide.

| Categories from the interview guide | Categories presented in the result chapter based on <br> the interviews |
| :--- | :--- |
| Reader's beliefs | 5.2 What reading generally means for the students |
|  | 5.3 What English reading means for the students |
|  | 5.4 What inspires and motivated the students to <br> read |
| Students' reading experiences and practices | 5.5 Students' reading practices |
|  | 5.6 Digital reading |
| In school reading and extramural reading / <br> reading strategies | 5.7 Reading relate to school |
|  | 5.8 Extramural reading |

Section 5.2 to 5.4 are based on the questions the students were asked in the category 'reader's beliefs' from the interview guide. Section 5.2 is about what reading generally means for the students. Section 5.3 is about what English reading means for the students. Lastly, section 5.4 is about what inspires and motivates the students to read. The next category from the interview guide is about the students' reading experiences and practices. Section 5.5 and 5.6 are related to this category. Section 5.5 is about the students' reading practices, and section 5.6 is about digital reading. Section 5.7 and 5.8 are related to the last two categories from the interview guide. The last two categories, 'in school reading and extramural reading' and
'reading strategies' are related to each other, and where therefore combined. Section 5.7 is about reading in school, and section 5.8 is about extramural reading.

### 5.1 Reading practices

The eight participants in the study were asked to $\log$ all their reading for two weeks, including the weekends. The students wrote down the different reading practices every day during those two weeks, including what they read, the time they spent on reading, and whether it was in Norwegian or in English. Table 1 below shows six different reading practices that have been divided into categories in relation to what the students have written in their logs. These include reading material in school, homework, fiction, social media and the internet, television and videogames, newspapers, and other texts. The Table below shows the amount of time each of the students have spent on reading combined during the two weeks, and the data has been rounded up to full and half hours, and minutes are not included.

| Students | Reading <br> material in <br> school / <br> homework | novels | Social <br> media / <br> internet | Television/ <br> Videogames | Newspaper | Other | Combined <br> reading |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Betina | 51 h | 22.5 h | 29 h | 2 h |  |  | 104.5 h |
| Lars | 16.5 h | 17.5 h | $18,5 \mathrm{~h}$ | 8 h |  |  | 60.5 h |
| Erik | 3 h | 7.5 h | 7 h |  |  | 0.5 h | 1.5 h |
| William | 4.5 h | 3.5 h | 7 h | 2 h | 19 h |  |  |
| Sofia | 18 h |  | 7 h |  | 0.5 h |  | 25.5 h |
| Julie | 39.5 h | 28 h | 25 h |  |  |  | 91.5 h |
| Vera | 21 h | 3 h | 26 h | 10 h |  | 60 h |  |
| Per | 13 h | 6.5 h | 17.5 | 3 h | 0.5 h | 3 h | 43.5 h |
| Average | $\mathbf{2 1 ~ h}$ | $\mathbf{1 1 ~ h}$ | $\mathbf{1 7 ~ h}$ | $\mathbf{3 ~ h}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 ~ m i n}$ | $\mathbf{0 , 5} \mathbf{h}$ | $\mathbf{5 3} \mathbf{~ h}$ |

Table 1 Stundets' combined reading practices from the two-week period in English and Norwegian.

The table above shows the combined reading in hours, both English and Norwegian, that the students have read during the two weeks. There are considerable differences in the reading habits of the students. There are some students that read significantly more during the two weeks. One student in particular that stands out is Betina. She read a combined 104.5 hours
during the two weeks, 87 hours more than the student that read the least. Betina stands out as a student that reads a significant amount both in regard to reading material in school and homework, and outside of school. The students who have logged that they have read the least during the two weeks are Erik and William. These two students have also read the least amount of school material and homework.

Betina has read the most in regard to school and homework, with 51 hours during the two weeks. Julie does also stand out as one of the students that has read a significant amount of reading material related to school, with 39.5 hours during the two weeks. Erik has read the least during the two weeks in this category, with only three hours. Two girls in the study have read the most and the least number of hours of fictional literature. Julie has read the most when it comes to fictional novels, with 28 hours, and Sofia has not read any novels during the two weeks. Betina, Julie and Vera are among the students that have read the most on social media and the internet. Erik, William and Sofia have read the least in that category, with only 7 hours each. Vera has read the most on television and videogames, with 10 hours, and three of the students have not read anything in this category. Only three of the students have read newspapers during the two weeks, these students include William, Sofia and Per. William and Per are the only students that have read any other texts during the two weeks.

| English | Reading <br> material in <br> school / <br> homework | Novels | Social media / <br> internet | Television/ <br> Videogames | Newspaper | Other | Combined <br> reading |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Students | 19 h | 22.5 h | 17 h |  |  |  | 58.5 h |
| Betina |  | 17.5 h | 17 h | 8 h |  |  | 42.5 h |
| Lars |  | 7.5 h | 7 h |  |  |  | 14.5 h |
| Erik |  | 3.5 h | 2.5 h | 1 h |  | 1.5 h | 8.5 h |
| William | $1,5 \mathrm{~h}$ |  | 6 h |  |  |  | 8 h |
| Sofia | 2 h | 9 h | 28 h | 20 h |  |  | 57 h |
| Julie | 9 h | 3 h | 14.5 h | 10 h |  |  | 35.5 h |
| Vera | 8 h |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Per | 5 h | 6.5 h | 12 h | 3 h |  | 29.5 h |  |

Table 2. Students' English reading practices according to the logs.

When it comes to English reading in school and homework, Betina stands out among the students as the student that spends a substantial amount of hours more. Julie and Vera do also read quite a lot when it comes to material in school or homework, with eight and nine hours.

It is evident from table 2 that there are two students that have logged they have not spent any time on English reading in school and homework, those students are Lars and Erik. The others are relatively similar when it comes to English reading related to school, here the variations are between $1.5-5$ hours.

Two categories that stand out in the students' reading practices in English are novels and social media and internet. It is important to note that the students were in the middle of a reading project. The students all chose a novel to read in their English class, however, the researcher started with the data collection towards the end of their project. The students were asked during the interview whether the logs were a good reflection of their reading, and most of the students agreed that the logs reflected their reading practices. The only student that expressed that the reading project had an effect on the log was Per. Per expressed that he does not normally read a lot of novels. However, the only category that somewhat did not represent his reading practices in a correct way. It is therefore important to keep in mind that that piece of data is not reliable. Per did log that he read for six and a half hours of a novel during the two weeks. When it comes to English novels or fiction, it may be seen from the table 2 that there is a difference of 28 hours between Julie who has logged the most, and Sofia who logged the least. Julie read fictional literature for 24 hours during the two weeks, while Sofia did not read any. Apart from Julie, Betina has also spent many hours reading English fiction, she logged 22.5 hours, only 5.5 hours less than Julie. Both the girls expressed during the interviews that they highly enjoy reading novels. Lars stand out among the boys as reading the most fiction. He logged 17.5 hours. He mentioned in his interview that he enjoys reading novels and fiction in his spare time. Sofia has only logged 2 hours in this category, which fits with what she said in the interview as she said that she does not normally read a lot of fiction in her spare time.

The other category that stands out in the students' English reading practices is their reading on social media and the internet. All the students, with the exception of William, have logged that they read more in English on social media and the internet than in Norwegian. Lars has logged that he spends 17.5 hours reading on social media and the internet. He is also the only student that has logged videogames. He has spent eight hours reading English while playing. In this category it is William who has read the least with two and a half hours, and Julie read the most in this category with 20 hours. Vera is the only girl that logged that she read English on television. She read subtitles on movies and tv-shows for 10 hours during the two weeks.

William and Per are the only students that have logged that they have read other shorter texts in English during the two-week period.

| Norwegian | Reading <br> material in <br> school / <br> homework | Novels | Social media / <br> internet / | Videogames/ <br> television | Newspaper | Other | Combined <br> reading |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Students | 32 h |  | 12 h | 2 h |  |  | 46 h |
| Betina | $16,5 \mathrm{~h}$ |  | $1,5 \mathrm{~h}$ |  |  |  | 18 h |
| Lars | 3 h |  |  |  |  |  | 3 h |
| Erik | 3 h |  | $5,5 \mathrm{~h}$ |  | $0,5 \mathrm{~h}$ |  | 9 h |
| William | 3 h |  | $0,5 \mathrm{~h}$ |  | 17,5 |  |  |
| Sofia | 16 h |  | 1 h |  |  |  | $35,5 \mathrm{~h}$ |
| Julie | $30,5 \mathrm{~h}$ |  | 5 h |  |  | $24,5 \mathrm{~h}$ |  |
| Vera | 13 h |  | 11,5 |  | 0,5 |  | 14 h |
| Per | 8 h |  | $5,5 \mathrm{~h}$ |  |  |  |  |

Table 3. Students' Norwegian reading practices according to the logs.

It is clear that the students prefer to read in English extramurally. The students read far less Norwegian reading material outside of school. Most of the students, excluding William and Sofia, have read more English reading material than Norwegian material. When it comes to reading in school and homework, it is clear that the students read more reading material in Norwegian than in English. As the students primarily read English in only one subject, the English subject, and they read Norwegian in all the other subjects in school, this data does not come as a surprise. There is a considerable difference between the English and Norwegian reading in this category. In comparison to English, all the students have logged that they have read in school or for homework. Betina has read the most when it comes to this category, she has read for 32 hours during the 14 days. She is the student that stands out in this category in both English and Norwegian, and she also expressed that she reads in class and prepares for all the subjects. Lars did not read any amount in English class, however, in Norwegian he has read 16.5 hours. Two students that have read the least in this category are William and Erik with three hours each. These two students did not read a lot of reading material in school or homework in English either. Most of the students also read in Norwegian on social media or the internet. However almost all, with the exception of William, read less in Norwegian than in English in this category. William, Sofia and Per are the only students that have read news during the two weeks, both only read for half an hour each, and both in Norwegian. Table 4
below shows the range of variance in the number of reading hours in the various reading practices the students have logged during the two weeks, given in full and half hours.

| Reading <br> practices | Reading <br> material in <br> school / <br> homework | Novels / <br> fiction | Social <br> media / <br> internet | Television / <br> Videogames | Newspaper | other |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Variation | $3 \mathrm{~h}-51 \mathrm{~h}$ | $0 \mathrm{~h}-28 \mathrm{~h}$ | $7 \mathrm{~h}-29 \mathrm{~h}$ | $0 \mathrm{~h}-10 \mathrm{~h}$ | $0 \mathrm{~h}-0,5 \mathrm{~h}$ | $0 \mathrm{~h}-1.5 \mathrm{~h}$ |
| Variation <br> (English <br> reading) | $0 \mathrm{~h}-19 \mathrm{~h}$ | $0 \mathrm{~h}-28 \mathrm{~h}$ | $2.5 \mathrm{~h}-20 \mathrm{~h}$ | $0 \mathrm{~h}-10 \mathrm{~h}$ |  | $0 \mathrm{~h}-1.5 \mathrm{~h}$ |
| Variation <br> (Norwegian <br> reading) | $3 \mathrm{~h}-32 \mathrm{~h}$ |  | $0 \mathrm{~h}-12 \mathrm{~h}$ | $0 \mathrm{~h}-2 \mathrm{~h}$ | $0 \mathrm{~h}-0.5 \mathrm{~h}$ |  |

Table 4. Variation in reading on the different reading practices.

Table 4. shows that reading at school and homework has a variation of three hours which is the lowest number of hours, to 51 hours which is the highest number. There is a difference of 48 hours between the student who reads the most and the one who has read the least at school and for homework during the two weeks. In this reading practice, Betina is the student with the highest number and Erik with the lowest. The variation in reading fiction and novels this week is from 0 hours to 28 hours for these eight students, meaning that the student that read the least did not read anything in this category during the two weeks, while the student that read the most read for 28 hours. Here, there is a difference of 28 hours between Julie who has read the most and Sofia who has not read any novels or fiction during the two weeks. In the same table you can see that in the reading practice of social media and the internet, there is a variation of seven hours with Erik, William and Sofia who have read the least, to Betina with 29 hours. Here the variation is twenty-two hours. Table 4 shows that the variation in reading on television and videogames goes from 0 hours to 10 hours, where most of the students did not read anything in this category, and Vera who logs the most time on this reading practice. The variation between the least and the most time spent reading newspapers is half an hour. Most of the students did not log that they read any newspapers, while William, Sofia and Per
each read half an hour in this category. The last reading practice in table 4 shows the variation on various short texts, with William and Per being the only students that read other shorter texts. Per read for 3 hours, and William for 1,5 hours, and the rest of the students logged zero hours.

### 5.2 What reading means to the students

The results from the interviews indicate that the students in the current study say reading have two main meaning to them, namely to either gain knowledge to read for pleasure. In the students' experience, Norwegian reading is associated with schoolwork while English reading is associated with their interests and something they do during free time. When the students described what reading meant for them, they mostly talked about being able to make use of the information or extract the meaning content in different types of texts. When they talked about what reading means to them, they also talked about the benefit and pleasure they get from different types of literature. The students in the current study all have their own thoughts and opinions concerning what reading means to them. When asked to describe this, the students report that they read different text materials often, a lot, or regularly. "Reading for me means a lot of different things. It is both a way to get information and knowledge, but it is also something I do to have a good time in everyday life", says Julie. Furthermore, many of the students say that they read texts regularly; they explain that they read texts in books and newspapers and read material they have in their various school subjects. Lars says that reading for him means learning in general and extracting information from different types of texts. He also emphasizes the importance of sharing information, and he says that reading is "learning, and sharing information, sharing experiences that we can learn from each other". Most of the students believe that being able to extract information from news articles, the internet, and in novels and books that they read every day is vital in order to be able to utilize it in their own work; they believe that this is an essential thing about being able to read. Many of the students talk about how reading can be so much, and some of them convey that reading is involved in most of what they do throughout the day. In addition to texts such as fictional books, newspapers, the internet, or reading material in school, the students also mention that there is reading in other aspects of their everyday life. William says that there is a lot of text around him and that he does not always think about it; he explains that "there is a lot of
reading shorter text, such as reading on walls, or signs, and Instagram and things like that". While most of the students convey that the gathering of information when reading is significant, for many, it is also the joy and the experience, and reading for the sake of entertainment, that they place great emphasis on. "Reading means a lot to me. I like to do it as a hobby, and I think it's a lot of fun, even though it's not something I do very often", says Sofia. Although several of the students, like Sofia, say that they read literature only for the experience and entertainment, some add that reading for them is almost always something that gives both understanding and meaning, even if it has the entertainment aspect to it.
"I read and am inspired to read for learning. If I want to find out something or learn something or if I am curious about something, then that inspires me to read. I can also learn something from just a good story, like to build a creative mindset", says Lars.

Some of the students also express that they get inspired by reading and that they use reading as a way to escape from everyday life. Julie and Betina especially convey that they use reading as a way to deal with things and experiences in their lives. The girls use reading, and especially fiction, as a escape from reality. Both of the girls are fond of reading fantasy novels, and they both read a large amount of fiction in their spare time.

All the students expressed that reading is essential to them and that reading is the ability to absorb large amounts of written texts in different types of text genres. These students will soon be finishing upper secondary school, and they believe that having good reading comprehension is crucial for them to do well in life. They are fully aware that they live in a society that is almost overflowing with texts and large amounts of information material. In order to make use of all the text they encounter every day, they must be able to read very well. In order to read very well, the students believe that reading a lot, often and in different genres and literature types, is one of the most important things for becoming a good reader. At the same time, they must be able to extract meaningful information and utilize the content of the texts so that it gives them understanding and meaning.

### 5.3 What English reading means to the students

There was a consensus among the students that they read more in English than in Norwegian, and most expressed that they prefer reading in English. Some of the students explained that
there is more English reading material to choose from when asked why they prefer to read in English. Among those explaining this was Lars: "I think I read more in English than I read in Norwegian. Also, I think I actually prefer to read in English, I think it's just because there's more to read. There is also a lot of original material in English, and I prefer the original over the translated". Many other students share the same view that they prefer reading original English text material over translated text. "I feel that books lose a little when they are translated into Norwegian, so I feel that I get more details and emotions when I read in English", says Julie. It was evident from the interview and the logs that the students prefer to read English extramurally. Betina explained that when she reads outside of school, she prefers to read in English, and when it pertains to class and school, she prefers to read in Norwegian. She explains that "if I am going to read something for fun then it is better in English, because the vocabulary is better in English. The sentences fit and sound better in English once written in English. But if I am going to read something I do not know much about, such as science and other subjects in school, it is a little better in Norwegian". In the students' experience, Norwegian reading is associated with schoolwork while English reading is associated with their interests and something they do during free time. Per explains that "I read English more in my free time, and if I read Norwegian it is more for school- when I read English it is more about my hobbies and things I am interested in. then I don't feel like oh no now I have to sit down to read, I am more engaged in English". Likewise, William primarily reads Norwegian reading material connected with his studies. In addition, he explains that he enjoys reading in English because he gets a different perspective on the world. He says, "I feel that it gives a better worldview, because normally it is authors from other countries, and not Norwegian authors, so it is a different view of the world and other cultures".

In today's multicultural and globalized world, the students in the current study feel that they must be able to read English effectively to function. In the course of the interview, Sofia, one of the students, stated that she must be able to read English in order for her to do well both in life and in school. She says, "it is important because it is the international language, and if we are going to study it is usually in English, so then it's good to know English". Lars also said something similar, and he expressed that it is crucial to read English because "a lot of research is published in English". There is an awareness among students that English reading is necessary in today's society. The students declare that they encounter English text everywhere, so understanding it and reading it well are fundamental skills. Per exclaims that "English is a lingua franca or a language that everyone can use and understand. So I think it is
important for everyone to be able to read English". Willam also explains that "English is a worldwide language, and everyone should be able to speak English. I get a broader vocabulary from reading. Anyone can communicate with other people, and the message will come across if you can understand and read English". The students all express that they read a lot of English text material, and they also convey the importance of reading English. They all seem to understand and agree that reading in English is necessary for success. Most of them also believe that in order to gain an understanding of the world, reading is essential. Furthermore, increasing their comprehension of English through reading allows them to access a vast library of useful information.

### 5.4 What inspires and motivates the students to read

Based on what the students in this study has said about what inspires and motivates them to read, there are some clear factors that many of them have in common. These factors include being inspired by family members, friends, school or teachers, their interests, and knowledge

Many of the students in this study say that much of what they read, they read by their own accord. The vast majority of the student's express willingness, desire and joy to read, and they acquire a lot and different types of literature themselves. The students have parents or others in their environment who recommend literature, and several family members who inspire them to read. Several of the students express that their parents motivate them to read, either by persisting them to read or by watching them read growing up. Betina explains that «my mom reads a lot, so I have always seen her read, and then I have wanted to read myself". She has always seen her mother read, and there has always been books in her home, she therefore believes that this has had a big impact on her being so motivated to read herself. She expressed that her parents have influenced her to read so much and to like it so well. Both her parents are very fond of reading. Her mother is American and reads mostly English books. She recommends English books to Betina, and she keeps both Betina and herself in mind when she buys books. Her father reads more Norwegian books, however, she expressed that he does not read as much fiction, and they have different taste in books. It is evident that her interest in English literature comes from her mother, and her mother's expectation that she reads as much English as Norwegian is about her wanting Betina to master both languages equally well. While Sofia has watched her parents read throughout her childhood, she
explains that "they have not exactly inspired me, they have been more fussy about it". She explains that it has always been important for her parents that she spends more time reading than watching television. William has the same experience as Sofia, he has grown up watching his parents read, and while he does not share the same desire to read as his parents, he says that "my mom and dad always force me to read".

Other students explained that their siblings inspire and motivate them to read. Per and Vera are among the students that have older siblings that inspire them to read and recommend them books to read. Vera's sister pushes her to read fictional novels. "Sometimes she reads books that she thinks I will like and makes me read them as well, and then we talk about the books afterwards", Vera says. She explains that her sister recommends her books and shares her books with her or buys her books to read. Per also exclaims that his sisters are a driving force when it comes to getting him to read fictional books. He says that he reads some of the novels that his sisters recommend, but it is mostly when he has time, on holidays or weekends. He explains that "I sometimes try to read books because I think that if they can do then I can do it too". While his sisters read a lot, and there are many books around him at home, he seems to have different interests than his sisters and is not interested in reading their recommendations. Vera did also express that her sister motivates and inspires her to read more. She says "my sister recommends books that she thinks I will like. She knows me so well and she knows what I like, so when I read those books that she recommends, I tend to like them". She did exclaim that she does not normally read fictional novels, and the only times she does if when her sister recommends her books that she finds to be interesting.

Other things that inspire the students to read are recommendations from friends. "I have been a little inspired by my friends. They sometimes read English books and talk about them, and sometimes I read them as well", says Erik. When he sees his friends share fun reading experiences, it seems that he is inspired because he wants to be a part of this. Other students, such as Betina and Julie, say that they also do the same thing themselves. They read and talk to friends about what they have read. These students say that book recommendations from friends have a great influence on them. Furthermore, if the books they read are very good, they recommend them to their friends. Per explains that he also has a friend that recommends him books and tries to make him read. He says «I have a friend who always says "read this book", so I sometimes read one or two chapters, but then I stop. So there is a friend who always pushes me to read". Per made it clear in his interview that he mostly enjoys reading about his interests, such as articles about sports. While he tries to read books recommended by
his sisters or his friend, he does not enjoy it as much, and most of the times he does not finish reading the texts. It was made evident that he is mostly motivated to read if there are texts about his hobbies and interests. He describes that he is almost dependent on being updated on sports.

Most of the students say that there is quite a lot of browsing and reading on the internet or on social media. They believe that they have to follow everything in order to be in contact with friends, and they like to follow what is happening around the world. All the students spend hours reading on social media and the internet, which is also evident from the logs. The students often scroll through the web or on social media, stopping to read things that interests them, whether it is sports, world-wide news, celebrities, friends or other things that interests the students.

There is also a lot of reading in relation to schoolwork. Many express that the reading material in school is something they read because they have to but because they want to. However, there are some students that enjoy reading some of the reading material from school. For some of the students, the notion of gaining knowledge inspires them to read. They express that they wish to expand their knowledge, and they say that this is the reason as to why they like to read. Some of the students in this study, especially Erik and Lars, explain that they enjoy reading factual books or articles, both those that belong to the subjects at school, but also other texts outside of school. When asked what inspires him to read, he answers "I think it's learning. If I want to find out about something or learn something, or if I am just curious about something, then it is something that inspires me to read". He made it very clear in the interview that he mostly enjoys reading articles and academic texts. Moreover, according to his $\log$, he does also read quite a lot of fictional novels, however, he believes that there is some knowledge to gain from reading fictional books as well. He says, "I am also inspired by a good story, but I can learn something from it as well, like building a creative mindset". Gaining knowledge is also something that motivates Erik to read, as he explains, "I have had in mind that knowledge is power". Out of all the students, there has been one student, William, that explained that he has been inspired and motivated to read because of a teacher. He expresses that his teacher in the Norwegian subject has to some degree influenced him to read. He says "we had a reading project where everyone read the same novel. I thought this was fun, so I started reading more after it".

Some of the students buy some books themselves, and some receive books as gifts from family and friends. Many of the girls like to buy books themselves, new novels that top the
sales lists. For these girls, reading as an activity they seek out almost all the time, and reading is a part of their everyday life. They read mostly on their own initiative, they have an inner motivational drive and reading different types of literature is a part of their lives. There is always something to read throughout our day, and then it becomes a completely natural part of what we do, several of the students say. Almost everyone read at least occasionally to be entertained. They read when they are bored, in their free time, or when they simply want to be entertained. Some genres that the students have mentioned to enjoy reading are fantasy novels, romance novels, action novels or comic books. Some of the students explain that when they start reading, they immediately think of something else, and it helps them a lot. Reading is something that they really look forward to. Depending on which book it is, they can become so "hooked" that they are unable to put it down. Some of the students, especially Betina, says that all the fiction she reads, she reads because she wants to, not because she is forced to. "When I read fiction, I am often completely focused on what is happening in the book, I can be completely absorbed in that book," says Betina. Almost all the girls, except for Sofia, read young adult books, whether it is fantasy or romance novels. They can recognize themselves in what they read, and they enjoy reading about friendship and love, and feeling like they can put themselves in the heroine's place.

### 5.5 Reading practices

All the students say that they read a lot every day, and that there is text everywhere and reading situations occur almost all the time. This section will therefore examine the students different reading practices, as well as how they use reading strategies in different reading situations. Several of the young students say that they automatically read texts that are available wherever they are. William is one of the students that say that "there is a lot of reading shorter texts, such as reading on walls, or signs, and Instagram and things like that". Betina describes this quite well, she says:
"I read everything that has text on it, and it's a lot since there is text everywhere. At home I read what has text on it, but I don't always take it in, or I don't always remember it afterwards. There is often shorter texts on household items that I read, but I do not remember later that I have read any of it. I think I just move my eyes automatically, which is natural for most people, that the eyes are drawn to some of these texts".

Many say that they do not think about the texts they read, such as advertisements and other information that surround them. They often accept them without thinking about what they read, say several. Due to the abundance of advertisements, posters and information, it's impossible to read everything. Almost all agree that in order to for them to read what is around them, the text has to arouse their interest. A good deal of the students report that they sort out the text information that they are constantly being exposed to, and they often read what is relevant to them there and then.

When asked in the interviews whether the students read for pleasure or for a purpose, almost all of them express that read for both pleasure and purpose. It is evident that for most of the students, they experience reading for a purpose to be related to school. Betina explains that "what I read for school is for a purpose, to learn things and get better in the various subjects, but otherwise I read mostly for fun". Most of the other students have the same thought regarding this. When William answered the question, he explained that it most of the times is intertwined, he says "it varies. I like reading for fun, but I'm also reading to learn. Right now, I am reading a book about world war 2, so I read that book to learn about the war, but it is also mainly for fun". Only one of the students, Erik, expressed that he only reads for a purpose. He explains, "I do not think that I read for pleasure at all, it is always a purpose. Reading for me is about gaining some useful knowledge". Erik stands out as he explains that he even reads on social media for a purpose.

When the students are asked what type of reading material they enjoy reading, there are some common things that are mentioned. Reading on social media is something that all the students mention. Vera stands out in in this category, she mostly read on social media or subtitles on television outside of school during the two weeks. She did also express in the interview that she mostly reads for entertainment extramurally, and she specifically mentioned social media and television. Some of the students, in particular Betina, Julie, and William, mention fictional novels such as fantasy, action and romance novels. Lars and per explain that they enjoy reading non-fiction and specifically articles about things that interests them. All the students say that they enjoy reading English texts more than Norwegian, and they express that they do not find it challenging. However, they all explain that there is certain English reading material that they find more challenging.

A majority of the students in this study said that they find English texts with complicated and difficult words more challenging to read. Julie says, "if it is a regular book with ordinary
everyday language then it is relatively easy to read, but there are some topics, such as medicine for example, where there are words and expressions that that I do not know that are challenging to read". Sofia was the only student that expressed that difficult words is not the problem, but rather the content of the text. She explains, "if I have to read many pages and many facts at school, that can be very boring. It gets a little heavy in the long run". She further explains that she does not struggle as much with difficult words, however, she finds long factual texts to be a challenge as she often is not interested in reading those texts.

Lastly, the students described how they read in different reading situations. There are many similarities in what the students describes and their reading practices. The students in this study first described in what reading situations they would reread an English text. One thing that they all had in common in this situation is that they all expressed that they reread texts if they have not paid attention to the text or if they have forgotten what they have read. They all relate this to reading material in school. The students also mention that they reread texts in preparation for tests in school. Betina says, "if I have not paid attention to it, or if I do not fully understand the text I will reread it. Or if I have to remember it more, like before a test or a presentation, or if I have to analyze a text". William explains that he rereads texts in school if they are very difficult. "If it is written in a difficult language then I read it again. For example, in history class we often read old and difficult English texts, they are very heavy and long, then I have to read it several times", says William. The students believe that when reading a text a second time, they can develop a deeper comprehension than during the first time. It is evident that all the students reread texts in school either to fully understand it, or to be well prepared for classes or tests. There was only one student, Julie, that also added that she likes to reread books that she enjoys. She expressed that if she appreciates a book or story, she feels a sort of comfort from rereading it.

The students also described in what reading situations they would skim a text. Many of the students explain that they skim through a text if they have assignments or questions to answer in class. The students describe that they skim a text, especially reading material at school, in order to get an overview of the text, and then they scan the text in order to find the specific information that they need. Betina explained, "if there is anything specific I have to find I will skim it, or if I have to answer questions, I skim the texts to find the answer". Other students share the same beliefs, Per is among them, he describes, "in school assignments I have to skim through texts to find the information and answers I need". He also adds, "I also skim news articles, I skim through the headlines, until I find something interesting. There is also
some skimming on social media". Most of the students explain that they often skim texts on social media or news articles. In order for the students to read an article, whether it is on social media or an news article, they have to decide whether they want to read it or not. In many cases, the students like to skim headlines and texts before they decide whether or not to read it. In order to get a quick overview, the readers are looking for quick and concise information. This is because they have many options at their disposal.

### 5.6 Digital reading

The students spend considerable amount of time reading on a digital screen. They read on social media, news articles, blogs, Netflix, and other various texts on the internet several times in a day. They all have access to digital devices, such as a phone, computer or a table that they carry with them everywhere. Everyone says that they often skim through social media or other web pages. Many say that this also applies to all other shorter texts on the internet, and if there is something that catches their interest, they go in depth. The students say that they have to check their social media every day, and that this happens many times a day. They also read text messages and e-mails on a screen. Many of the students also read the subtitles when they watch a movie or a show on TV. All these reading events happen all the time and throughout the day. It does not matter there the students are, because they all have their phones and computers with them everywhere.

When asked whether the students prefer to read on a screen or on paper, the answers are mixed. Some of the students express that they usually read on screen and that they prefer to read on screen. Lars, Erik and Vera are the student that say that they prefer to read on screen. Erik says, "I usually read on screen, and while I think it's cool to read on paper, I still prefer to read on screen. Vera was the only student that expressed that she reads and prefers to read all types of texts on a screen. She says that she reads faster on a screen, and she is able to focus more. She feels that cannot retain all the information when she reads on paper. She even explained that she is more motivated when reading on screen, saying "I feel it is more interesting on screen, because it goes much faster. I can also search further if there is something I want to look into, so it is more continent to read on a screen". The students explain that they prefer reading on screen because it is easier to find reading material on a computer and because it is very easily accessible. The students have easy access to
technology, such as phones, computers and tablets, which means that reading is an activity that is more likely to be on screen than on paper. Since technology is a central to the lives of the students, even the student that say that they prefer to read on paper express that they mostly read on a screen because these digital devices are so commonly used. "Considering that I read a lot of news and social media on the phone, I would say that I read mostly on a screen, but I prefer to read on paper", says William. Sofie says something similar, "I read so much more on screen daily, both in school and at home, but I like reading on paper more". The students explain that they prefer to read on paper since they are not as focused when reading on screen. They explain that it is easier to follow the text when reading on paper. William also adds that his eyes are sensitive, and he therefore struggles when reading on screen for a long period of time. The other students express that they like reading both on screen and on paper depending on the reading material. There is some reading material that they prefer to read on screen, while some they prefer on paper. Betina explains, "I mostly prefer to read on paper. But texts for school I like to read on screen, because then I have everything in one place. when I read in my spare time, I like to read on paper". Betina is not the only student that conveys that she favors reading texts related to school on a screen. The students find it easier to navigate texts they are reading for school on a screen, as they can search things that they do not understand, and they have everything in one place. Per states, "if I am going to read a book for fun, I would rather have the book in hand, I like to see how much I have read, and how long I have left. But if there are articles we have to read in school, then I like to read on screen, because I can easily copy words that are difficult and look it up". He prefers to read on screen because of the practicality. Julie explains that she prefers to read on paper, however, she does often read fictional books on a kindle (e-book) as well. she says that she prefers to read on paper because she can navigate the text better, she can flip between the pages and mark pages and find those pages more easily. She finds it hard to do so on a screen, as she then has to scroll back and forth.

While the students have different preferences, all the students notice that there are some differences when reading on screen or on paper. Most of the students say that they have a tendency of feeling unfocused or not being able to concentrate when they read on screen. William describes, "I pick up more of the text when I read on paper. It is hard to focus when I read on screen, since there are a lot of commercials and other things. I scroll and skim more on screen". The screen is full of distractions, and with these digital devices it is very easy to multitask. "I am more concentrated when I read on paper. When I read on a screen, things like
adds appear on the screen, I skim a lot more on screen than if I read on paper", says Betina. It is evident that there is a challenge to their concentration when they read on a digital screen, and that is those ads that clutter their screen. As the students have mentioned earlier, they often skim through social media and news articles. This is read on digital devices, and therefore it seems that the students connect the screen with skimming. This may explain why they skim more when reading other reading material on screen, as this is something they are used to. Erik expresses that he is able to read longer texts on paper. Most of the students, except Vera, say that they prefer to read longer texts on paper rather than on a screen. As they have difficulty with concentrating when reading on a screen, they say that they would rather read longer texts on paper. Lars says, "longer text on a screen can be a little chaotic, I think it is tiring to read a long text on screen". Per describes, "on the screen I feel like I am never making any progress, I just scroll and scroll, and I don't see the end". As mentioned, Vera is the only student that express a preference to reading on a screen, even when it comes to longer texts. She struggles to stay focused when reading long texts on paper, and she finds it easier to scroll on a screen when reading.

Most of the students express that they are more motivated when they read on paper. They say that they are able to read longer when they read on paper, which is something that motivates the students. Betina says that she is more motivated when reading on paper because, "on screen there is so much scrolling, and it does not feel as serious. I also usually watch Netflix on screen, so I do not focus as much". Julie and Per are more motivated when reading on paper because they are able to see the end of the text or the book. Julie says, "I feel I read a little faster on paper and then it automatically gets a little easier. It is also visually important that I can see how much I have left to read". Per has similar beliefs, explaining that, "I am more motivated when I read on paper, because then I can see the end and I know what I am working towards. But on screen I feel like I am never going to finish". The visual aspect of reading is important for the motivation of reading for the students.

Most of the students say that they do not listen to audiobooks. However, there are some students that express that they sometimes like to listen to books. Sofie says, "if I am tired or I don't have any energy to read, then it is usually fine to listen to audiobooks". Moreover, even the students that say that they from time to time like to listen to audiobooks, they all say that they prefer to read the books themselves. Per says that he sometimes listens to audiobooks, but he describes that he experiences some difficulties with it. He explains, "the problem is that if I put on an audiobook, I think that I don't have to focus as much because it plays in the
background so then I end up doing other things while I listen, but then I end up not paying attention to it at all". Julie has similar experiences with audiobooks. She also has difficulty with listening to audiobooks. She says, "if I listen to a book I feel like I don't remember everything they say. I feel like I don't pay as much attention when I listen to audiobooks then when I read". When these students try to listen to audiobooks, they find that they keep losing focus and that they can't keep listening to the narrator.

### 5.7 Reading related to school

All the students read reading material related to school or schoolwork. The students spend various number of hours reading for school or homework. Some of the students do not spend a lot of time reading for school, unless they are reading for a test or presentation, while other students put a lot of work and hours in their schoolwork. There is a big difference between the amount of reading the students spend on English reading material and Norwegian reading material. All the students say that they read in school or for homework, especially in Norwegian. This can also be seen in the logs; all the students have logged a of minimum 3 hours during the two weeks they wrote the logs. There are some students that express that they read a lot both in school and outside of school in preparations. Betina is one of those students. Betina stand out among the students, as she reads the most when it comes to both English and Norwegian reading material related to school. She likes to be prepared for her classes, and she reads a lot in advance and after her classes. she expresses that she likes to immerse herself in the new topics they discuss in class. However, she only reads non-fiction or factual texts in connection with school and schoolwork. Not only does she read the texts that the teachers provide, but she also likes to read additional sources and texts when learning about new things and topics in class. She does this in order to immerse herself more in the topics and be better prepared. She often uses the internet to accomplish this. She says that she reads the texts carefully. She explains that she uses and organizes important information in a reading text by writing down notes, keywords and key sentences on a document. Other students also say that they read both in school and after school. Although she does not read as extensively as Betina, Vera does try to read as much as she can. She tries to stay ahead of her schoolwork and homework. She also explains that she reads textbooks and texts related to school slowly and in detail. This is something that all the students say that they do. Many of
them do also read these types of texts several times as well. They have similar methods using and organizing important information in texts. most of them describe that they write down notes or keywords. Vera says that she writes key sentences on her computer, she finds that having all her notes on her computer is the better option, as she has everything in one place. Vera explains that she writes down summaries to every text she reads for class, she does this so she can remember the content, and because she can just read through her notes before tests. Some of the other students express that they do not usually prepare for their classes. They mostly read in class when they have to, or if they have assignments or tests. William and Erik say that they read a lot when preparing for tests. They also read the texts several times, and they take notes while reading. William says that he goes through the material they have had in class, and his homework. Erik says that he reads his notes before the tests, and that the notes help him with remembering the material. However, these students do not read continuously in the school year, but only when they have to for tests or assignments.

Some students explain that they are less motivated when they read in school, then outside of school, and others believe that there is not enough time when reading in school. Lars says, «I think it can be a little more boring when I read in the classroom, because we do not get enough time to read properly. We just read and then we're done, we do not get much time for reflection". Other students do also express that they find reading in the classroom to be boring, many also explain that they find it hard to focus on the text when reading in class. There are so many people and distractions in the classroom. Vera says, "I don't like reading in school because I can't focus on the text as much, but at home I am more focused and can read longer texts with no problem". Other students in the classroom and other distractions make it challenging for the students to focus on the texts they read.

The students have had a reading project and were able to choose a book to read in their English class. They could choose any fictional novel, but not any non-fiction book or comic book. They had to think about literary devices while reading and had an oral test or presentation about the book. All the students explain that they believe that it is a good thing that they have the opportunity to pick a book to read. They all have different taste in books and interests and having the chance to pick a book to read motivates the students. Betina says, "I think it is better that we could choose, because then we could choose something we like to read. I was more interested and motivated". Some of the students mentioned that they had reading projects earlier or in other subjects, but they did not have the opportunity to choose the book in that case. They did notice that they were not as interested in reading the book
then. Having the chance to contribute to the reading material they read in class motivates the students to read more. William explains, "it was more fun, even though it was something I had to do, I was just more interested when I could choose myself". The students explain that they have not chosen any other text or reading material in class other than for that one reading project. Lars says that while he enjoyed that he could chose a novel to read, he would not like to select other texts to read. He says, "if we have to choose all the time, it will be very difficult, and the teacher has more knowledge about what texts we should read in class".

The students have different beliefs about whether they think that they read enough English texts in school. Some of the students think that the teacher and school do not give enough attention to English reading in class. Some of the students explain that there is more focus on writing and speaking English in class than reading. Erik, Betina and Julie are the students that think that there is not enough reading in class. "I do not think that they put much attention to reading. It is more writing and speaking. We read when we are writing, but it feels more like the focus is on writing and not reading", says Betina. Other students believe that they read enough in class. William is among the students that says that they read a lot of English texts in class. He explains, "yes I think we read a lot in class. If we disregard that reading project, then we usually read a text almost every lesson, and we also have assignments". Some of the students explain that as they have chosen the English subject, they then read more English texts then other students in school. Sofie says, "we have the English subject, so we read English texts. but we do not do it in other subjects. We read a lot in the English class". Per agrees with what Sofie says, however, he also adds that most of the texts online are in English so he reads some English in other subjects as well. However, all the students express that they have not received any instruction about reading strategies in their English class. All the students explain that they have been taught about reading strategies and how to read different types of text in earlier years, mostly in lower secondary school. When explaining what types of reading strategies they use in class, they mostly agree that they use the same strategies. They describe that they look at the titles and subheadings and pictures if there are any. They then explain that they read in detail in order to fully understand the content. And lastly the skim through the text when they have to look for answers to questions.

### 5.8 Extramural reading

English is not the students' first language, however the students express that they prefer to read in English for most parts of their daily lives. The preference for extramural reading activities is largely influenced by the abundance of English texts in their daily life. One of the reading activities that the students regularly engage with is social media. The students explain that they prefer English entertainment over entertainment in Norwegian. The students express that social media is important in their daily lives. Some of the students also mention that they like to put on subtitles when watching movies or shows. Sofie describes that she likes to have subtitles on in case she does not hear what is being said. Vera expressed that she enjoys watching movies and tv-shows, and she often has on English subtitles while watching. This is evident from the logs as well, as she read the most in that category. Lars is the only student that logged reading English when playing videogames. He likes to play videogames and plays for several hours when he has time. Then he usually has to read the instructions, or he reads masseges that he receives from his online friends. These texts are usually in English.

All the students say that they have access to a range of English texts outside of school. Some of the students use the library when they want to read something. Per says, "if I need a book in my spare time I usually go to the library, they have a lot of books". Lars also mostly uses the library as he does not have many English books or texts accessible at home. Other students have English books accessible at home, and they like to buy books themselves as well. Betina and Julie say that they usually visit the bookstore and buy books that interest them, or that they browse the internet and order books online. Julie does also use a kindle to read, so she can easily buy books on the device. Erik is the only student that does not have access to English books at home, and he does not use the library. He says that he usually uses the internet to find texts to read.

The students say that they use different reading strategies when reading extramurally, depending on the type of text. They all say that they mostly skim texts on social media. They look at pictures first and skim the text until they find something that peeks their interest. They use the same reading strategies when reading the news. Vera explains, "when I read on social media or news, I usually skim the text until I find something I want to read about, so there is a lot of scrolling. I also look at pictures and headlines". Betina explains that she even uses the same strategy when reading novels. She looks at the covers of the books and titles before deciding what to read. She describes "is a book has a cool cover, I'd rather read it, so I guess the visuals matters a lot".

### 5.9 Reading profiles

All eight students in this study have their individual ways of reading. They have different reading experiences and reading habits. They all say that they read a lot, and they perceive themselves as relatively good readers. Although all eight students are very different, have different reading practices and completely individual and unique expressions when they depict their own reading, one can also see some clear similarities. This is, for example, reading in connection with school and homework, or their experiences and practices with extramural reading. There are some gender similarities in their reading. In this next chapter the researcher has divided the students into different reader profiles. This is done based on the students' logs and what they have expressed in the interviews.

### 5.9.1 Reads everything and always

There are some students that read everything and always, there are specifically two girls that stand out. Betina and Julie. A girl in the study clearly stands out, especially when it comes to reading aimed at subjects and homework related to school. Betina is far above the others when she logs how much time she spends reading texts and material related to school. The table below shows one of the days of Betina's log. She has logged that she has read almost seven and a half hours of school related material.

| Thursday, 10.02 |  | N |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| School | 4 h and 20 min | N |
| TV / social media | 1 h and 10 min | E |
| School | 3 h | E |
| TV / social media | 40 min | E |
| Books | 20 min |  |

Table 1. Betina's reading log, Thursday during the two-week period.

In addition to Betina reading school related material during the weekdays, she also read for school during the weekends. Table 2 below shows Betina's reading practices during a Sunday. She spent two hours of that day reading school related material. Betina is also the student that has logged to have read the most English fictional novels during the two weeks. The table below shows that she spent three hours reading an English book that Sunday.

| Sunday, 20.02 |  | N |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| School related | 2 h | N |
| TV/ social media | 1 h | E |
| TV / social media | 1 h | E |
| Books | 3 h |  |

Table 2. Betina's reading log, Sunday during the two-week period.

Another student who, in addition to Betina, spends a relatively a great amount of time reading school related material, is Julie. Both the girls are very focused students, and they both convey that like to be well prepared for class. Reading the material at school and outside of school is something they want to do well and thoroughly, and getting good grades motive these students to read. getting good grades is important for these students because of their interest in higher education. Julie is also a student that has logged the most time spent on reading English fictional novels. As seen below, on table 3, Julie has logged that she has read for 11,5 hours in relation to school, both in English and in Norwegian, during the two-week period. She did also read English fiction for 8 hours during the three days pictures below, however she did not read any on Friday. It is evident that she read the most fiction on Saturday and did not read any school related material that day. Julie does not, as Betina does, read any school related material on the weekends.

| Thursday, 31.03 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| School | 2 h | N |
| School | 3 t | E |
| Homework | 2 h | N |
| Social media | 1 h | E |
| Books | 3 h | E |
| Friday, 01.04 |  |  |
| School | 4 h | N |
| Homework | 30 min | N |
| Social media | 2 h | E |
| Saturday, 02.04 | 3 h | E |
| Social media | 5 h | E |
| Books |  |  |

Table 3. Julie's reading log. Thursday to Saturday.

Nevertheless, Betina was the one who indicated that she reads almost all the time. Every spare moment she has, she reads either school subject material or a good book. In terms of time
spent reading fictional texts, she is at the top. As indicated on table 1, she read for at least 20 minutes or more daily. Additionally, Betina spends a significant amount of time reading on social media or television. The person who has spent the most time reading during the two weeks is also one of the people who read the least amount of newspapers or other short texts during that period. Betina has not read any newspapers or shorter text during the two weeks. Betina's parents are highly educated and read quite a lot themselves. She conveys that her parents pay close attention to her schoolwork, and that they want her to read often and a lot. Nevertheless, she is the one who wants and desires to read and that her parents only encourage her to read. Betina depicts an inner drive to read, much more than all the other students. She always try to be one step ahead of her schoolwork, and she believes that she gets more out of both the material and the teaching that way. She also has a great drive in relation to reading fictional books, this has especially been aimed at fantasy and romance novels. Although Betina does not have the highest amount of time on some of the reading practices, it is still her that excels when it comes to who always reads, and who reads quite a lot of everything. Betina and Julie are in this category of reading profiles, because they are characterized by the fact that they are very active readers, both in relation to school and extramural reading. Both of the students enjoy reading a lot and often.

### 5.9.2 Give low priority to reading

In the study, there is a boy that stands out when it comes to not prioritizing reading, and this is Erik. Erik says that he tries to read more both for school and outside of school. However, he is the student that has logged the least number of hours reading during the two weeks. He knows that he needs to read more and he is interested in gaining knowledge, he says. Even though he says that he is aware of this and wants to prioritize reading, he does not read more than he has to. He does not read material related to school unless he has to, and he expresses that he does not read for fun, he only reads to gain knowledge. The table below depicts Erik's reading log from a Sunday to a Wednesday.

| Sunday, 13.02 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| No reading |  |  |
| Monday, 14.02 |  |  |
| School | 30 min | N |


| Social media | 1 h | E |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Tuesday, 15.02 | 30 min | E |
| Social media |  | E |
| Wednesday, 16.02 | 15 min |  |
| Social media | 1 h |  |
| TV |  |  |

Table 4. Erik's reading log. Sunday to Wednesday.

In table 4 it shows that Erik has logged that he did not read anything one of the days. During the four days he only read material related to school for half an hour, and otherwise read on social media or subtitles on television. In addition, Erik has not read any English reading material related to school during the two weeks. It appears that the reading material he reads related to school is what he has to read, either during class or homework; he does not read anything in addition or to prepare for class. Much of the same that he says about school and homework, he conveys applies to other things that he reads as well. The reading material must interest Erik in order for him to read it. Although Erik has read fictional books throughout the two weeks, he has not logged that he has read any during the four days. Erik had days where he would read a fictional novel for hours, then he would not read more for several days.

There are two other students that do not prioritize reading. These students are William and Sofia. William has only read one and a half hour more than Erik during the two weeks. Although William has not read as much as the other students, he is the only student overall that has read at least a little bit in each category. In table 5 below, it can be seen that William reads a little at a time, reading under an hour in each category. He has only read under half an hour of material in school during the four days. Like Erik, William does not read any more for school than what he has to. He does not spend any extra time to prepare for class, reading only when he has to in class or to prepare for tests.

| Thursday, 03.02 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Facebook | 10 min | E |
| Book | 20 min | E |
| Friday, $\mathbf{0 4 . 0 2}$ | 20 min | N |
| School | 20 min | N |
| News | 10 min | E |
| Saturday, 05.02 |  | E |
| Facebook | 40 min | E |
| Sunday, $\mathbf{0 6 . 0 2}$ |  |  |
| Book |  |  |


| Internet | 30 min | N |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Movie | 1 h | N |
| Movie | 1 h | E |

Table 5. William's reading log. Thursday to Sunday.

Sofia is also among the students that do not prioritize reading. Still, she does read more material related to school in comparison to the boys. She has not read any fictional novels during the two weeks, and she expressed that she usually does not read any books for fun. She mostly enjoys reading on social media and the internet. Sofia has mostly read for school or on social media for entertainment. She believed that young people are not as interested in reading anymore, and she does not enjoy reading as much as some of the other students in the study.

| Wednesday, 02.02 |  | N |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| School | 1 h | N |
| News | 10 min | E |
| Thursday, $\mathbf{0 3 . 0 2}$ | $1,5 \mathrm{~h}$ | N |
| Social media | 15 min |  |
| News |  | N |
| Friday, $\mathbf{0 4 . 0 2}$ | 20 min | N |
| Homework |  |  |

Table 6. Sofia's reading log. Wednesday to Friday.

### 5.9.3 Reading based on interests

The result based on both the logs and the interviews indicate that all of the eight students read for interest in their free time, and that their reading interests can further divided into reading non-fiction for knowledge about interests and hobbies, and reading fiction for pleasure. It is quite clear that some of the reading material the students read are specifically related to what they do, such as football. One specific student that expressed that he mostly enjoys reading about his interest, specifically about sports, is Per. Reading because it is interesting also applies to much of what has to do with the subjects in school. There are several of the students that read beyond this and immerse themselves in various topics that relate to their schoolwork. William conveys that he is interested in reading about different wars in history, mentioning during the interview that he was reading about the second world war. He reads these books on
his own account because it is something that interests him, and it also is useful to him as it is very relevant in the history subject. Lars also enjoys reading texts and articles in order to gain knowledge, and many of the topics he reads about can relate to thing they learn about in school.

Some of the students, specifically Betina and Julie, read books and novels that is specifically aimed at their age group. They read young adult books, which is something that they can recognize themselves in. This type of literature with abundant depictions of love, friendship and adventure is relevant to these students. As mentioned, Betina and Julie have expressed that they have a strong interest when it comes to reading fiction which deals with these themes. They reported that they read fiction as a way of escaping reality and becoming immersed in another world. These girls read as a way to escape boredom and stress. The students choose reading material that interests them, however, they also chose material that they know is interesting to share with their friends. For instance, Per, reads material about sports, and he discusses this with his friends that are also interested in sports. Betina describes that she recommends what she thinks is interesting literature to family and friends. She enjoys talking about interesting reading experiences with those around her and discuss the material and texts. All the students expressed that all the students read about what they do and what they are interested in, and they have read literature directly targeted to what they are interested in. Most of them report that they read about topics that are of interest to them because of the classes they take at school or because of other texts they come upon or the conversations they have with their friends and family.

### 5.9.4 Gender related reading

The results from the logs and the interviews show that the girls have different reading habits than the boys. There are four girls and four boys in the study. When looking at the girls' reading and the boys' reading it is clear that there are certain differences between the sexes. It is evident that the girls read a significant amount more than the boys. Table 7 shows that the girls read more than twice as much as the boys. The girls read for 281.5 hours combined during the two weeks, while the boys read 140.5 hours during the two weeks.


Table 7. The students' combined reading hours divided by boys and girls.

Lars stands out among the boys as the one who has read the most, and Sofia stands out amoung the girls as the one who has read the least. As seen on table 8 , there are some patterns that can be seen in the reading practices. The data shows that girls and boys typically enjoy different kinds of reading. The girls read the most when it comes to reading material related to school, fictional novels, social media and the internet. However, when it comes to television, videogames, news and other texts, the boys read the most, but not by much. The most important difference in reading practices between the boys and girls is the reading related to school and homework. The girls read a significant amount of hours more than the boys in that category. The girls also read more fictional novels than the boys, however, Sofia was the only student that did not read any novels during the two weeks. The girls express that they enjoy reading both in school and extramurally more than the boys.


Table 8. The students' combined reading hours in categories, divided by boys and girls.

## 6. Discussion

The present study is a mixed methods study looking into the reading habits and reading experiences in English of a group of upper secondary school readers. Research results from the study were presented in the previous chapters. Based on the research questions about the students' motivation, reading practices, and reading beliefs, and in relation to the theory and research presented in Chapter 3, this chapter will examine the main findings.

First, section 7.1 discusses motivation and reading. Section 7.2 addresses digital reading. Next, the reading related to school will be discussed in section 7.3, and 7.4 is about extramural reading. Section 7.5 addresses the limitations of the study. The first section relates to the first research question about what motivates the students to read. The remaining sections in this chapter relate to the two last research questions about the students' reading practices and beliefs.

### 6.1 Motivation

Most of the students in the study agree that reading means a lot to them, and that it has a great significance and impact on their lives. Above all, the students point out that they gain knowledge and experience through their reading, both in relation to school and in their spare time, but also on a more personal and everyday level. In the study conducted by Mlay et al. (2015), the participants we motivated to read for self-growth, inspiration, to gain information and knowledge, to keep up with trends for entertainment, for spiritual growth, and for pleasure. Many of the students in the present study expressed that they were motivated to read for many of the same reasons. Many of the students believe that the conscious reading they do, and all the reading experience they get from reading different reading material, means that it enables them to do well in life. The importance of reading is such a large and natural part of what the students do. They believe that reading gives them a breadth of knowledge that enables them to better understand and cope with the many different aspects of their lives. Several of the students, especially two of the girls, express that they read a lot on their own initiative, they enjoy themselves, relax and find it both fun and useful. The students who are represented in this study thus say that much of what they read, they read completely by themselves, and several of them express an inner drive, desire and motivation to read and to
acquire new literature to read. Schiefele et al. (2012) calls this intrinsic reading motivation. Those who are intrinsically motivated to read do so because reading is seen as rewarding or satisfying (Schiefele et al. 2012). Ultimately, this leads to a broader reading experience and a deeper level of reading comprehension, according to Guthrie (2008). Motivation and interests are also closely linked, as Nation (1997, p. 13) states that allowing learners to choose what to read according to their interests increases their motivation for reading and promotes positive attitudes. The students in the study believe that this is important. The interest in reading is greatly influenced by both interests and motivation. Many of the students choose reading material based on their interests, hobbies and their own leisure activities. Some of the students play sports in their spare time and they convey that they enjoy reading texts about the sports they play and are interested in. One of the boys expressed that he mostly reads about sports as that is what inspires and motivates him. Several of the students say that they are interested in reading about topics especially related to school and schoolwork. This means that they often look up additional literature in connection with this.

Many of the students express that they are motivated to read by family members and friends. Some of them say that their parents motivate them to read. They have grown up watching their parents read, which has motivated them to read as well. The students discuss various texts with family and friends, and they explain that they influence their reading choices. Clark and Hawkins (2010) emphasize in their study that having a lot of reading material at home, parents who encourage reading, children who see their parents read, and in addition talk and discuss about reading with family, are important factors in relation to creating a desire to read, reading pleasure, and positive reading attitudes in young readers. Having parents and siblings as avid readers that push the students to read, provide them with benefits of a skilled partner who can operate within their zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky (1978) argued that learning occurs in a collaborative environment as learners interact with people, objects and activities, and in the development process cultural tools are important for mediating the social and cultural engagement of learners. In the present study, the students are surrounded by more skilled partners, meaning their family members and friends, in which they are given guidance by. Some of the students have read since they were very young, and many say that it has especially been their parents who have encouraged them to read a lot all the way. In addition, the students' beliefs and attitudes are affected by the beliefs and attitudes of those around them. This is in line with what Clark and Hawkins (2010) found in their
study; parents who encourage reading, and children who see their parents reading, create a desire to read, a sense of reading pleasure and positive attitudes about reading.

The students in this study believe that accessibility to different types of text is crucial. They also express that in addition to the texts having to be convenient and accessible, they must also capture their interest. Krashen (2010) highlights the importance of reading texts that are interesting to the readers. He provides examples of students who became avid reader after finding English-language reading material that they really enjoyed (Krashen, 2004, p. 22-24). Krashen (2011) explains that extensive reading is beneficial to motivate the students to read. Day and Bamford (1998) also argue that extensive reading is the key to developing positive attitudes and a strong motivating to read in a second language (1998, p. 31). The students in the present study express that choosing texts or books to read motivated them. This applies both in school and outside of school. The students have had one reading project in their English class where they had the opportunity to choose a novel to read. They all agreed that this motivated the students, and they were more drawn to reading the book as they chose something that they were interested in. Nation (1997, p. 13) explains that another benefit of extensive reading is that it offers a way for the students to learn outside of the classroom. Several of the students express that they enjoy reading novels in their spare time. While they do this because they see reading as an enjoyable hobby, they also develop their reading skills at the same time.

### 6.2 Digital reading

There was a divide between the students in the present study concerning preference for reading. Half of the students expressed that they preferred reading on a screen, as opposed to students that preferred reading on paper. This is in line with recent Norwegian research that indicates that young people prefer reading on a computer screen to reading a printed book or magazine (Monitor, 2019). However, almost all the students, with the exception of one, said that they at least preferred some types of reading material to be on paper; this includes longer texts or texts related to school. Singer and Alexander (2017) investigated the reading comprehension when reading on paper versus on screen. While there was a clear preference for digital texts in their study, the students missed details and information when reading on a screen. This is in accordance with what the students expressed in the interviews. Despite the
fact that some of the students in the present study preferred to read on a screen, they explained that they struggle to focus when reading on a screen. The students express that they are more distracted when reading on a screen and tend to multitask. According to the Monitor study (2019), the students that spend the most time on the computer are the ones who experience the most distraction. Daniel and Woody (2012) also suggest that the students in their study demonstrated significantly higher multitasking behaviors. In the same vein, the students in the present study explain that they associate the screen and computer with other activities that they do throughout the day, such as watching movies, and they express difficulty with staying focused when they then have to read texts related to school on a screen.

The material or medium of the texts that the students in the present study are reading plays a significant role to them. Several of the students describe that there are some differences when they are holding and reading a physical book or text, versus when they are reading on a screen. Mangen et al. (2013) discuss that the brain creates mental maps when reading, and the brain is therefore better able to deal with something that can be touched and seen. Several of the students in the present study express that they prefer to read on paper because they find it easier to navigate the texts. They prefer this because they are able to see the end, which in turn motivates them to read, while they express that it feels like they are never reaching the end and just scrolling, when reading on screen. Then the scrollbar and page number are the only indicators of text length, which effects the reading of the students. This is in line with Hou et al. (2017, p. 87), as they describe that scrolling impairs a reader's ability to form an effective mental map. Hou et al. (2017) state that the "spatial flexibility and instability of the text presentation makes it hard for readers to reconstruct the physical layout of the text, which interrupts mental map formation" (2017, p. 87). One of the students in the present study expressed that she finds it easier to navigate texts on paper rather than on screen. She described that she flips through the pages, and goes back and forth, she marks different pages or sentences that she finds useful, and she can easily go back and find the markings when she needs to.

One of the findings from the data material is that the students in the present study spent a lot of time on social media reading content online. The availability of different social media outlets is indicative of the current state of society. Thus, it is possible for students to read and to share information on Twitter, Facebook, TikTok, Instagram, and other social media platforms. The students also have smartphones, tablets and computers, making social media readily accessible. According to the answers from the students in the interviews, they use
social media to keep up-to-date on what their friends are doing and to remain connected with other individuals. The data from the interviews indicates that students use the internet to get information on a variety of topics of interest to them. There is a wide range of information that they are interested in reading, such as current affairs or news, favorite celebrities, football articles, blogs, and articles based on other interests. If it is about a topic they are particularly interested in, they are more likely to read it. According to these findings, the students select content that interests them or that they find valuable. This is in accordance with Ryan and Deci's (2000) theory which indicate that a person is motivated to perform a task if it is selfdetermined, or is performed without being imposed on, they are more likely to do so. In other words, because of their freedom to choose what to read, the students read.

Another finding from the study is that the students spend more time on the screen reading for leisure than for school. The students are motivated when they read in their free time because they are motivated by intrinsic goals, and it is voluntary and done for pleasure. Reading related to school, on the other hand, is externally regulated, meaning that the students read for extrinsic purposes. When the students read for school, they express that they are motivated by a reward, such as obtaining an excellent grade on a test or assignment. Since this reading is imposed upon the students, the motivation to read in this manner is not sustainable. Mlay et al. (2015) also found that the participants in their study tended to use the internet for leisure reading, which is similar to the results in the present study. In the interviews, the participants said that they preferred reading on paper rather than on a screen when it came to reading material related to school. Almost all participants agreed that they get distracted when reading school related texts on a screen.

While one of the students said that she preferred to read fictional novels on paper, she expressed that there are benefits with using e-books. She uses a kindle to read novels as the books she is interested in are easily accessible, and it allows her to read anywhere without having to bring the physical book with her. Even though she said that she preferred to read on paper, she expressed that she reads more on her kindle as it is more functional. E-books also have more in common with the digital devices that the student use all the time, so there is probably also some recognition when it comes to reading e-books. The findings from Chen et al. (2013) study indicate that e-books are practical when it comes to extensive reading, as they stimulate reading attitude and reading comprehension. This is in line with the current study as one student read on e-books because it makes reading easier, and it is possible to read anywhere at any time.

### 6.3 Reading related to school

The students in the current study had a reading project in their English class. They were able to choose a fictional novel to read in their class, and at the end of the reading project they had an oral test or presentation about the book. This extensive reading activity is in line with the English subject curriculum (KD, 2019), as it emphasizes that the students should choose texts based on their interests and that these should contribute to the joy of reading and the acquisition of language. As the students have different taste in books and have different interests, they all expressed that they enjoyed the experience and it motivated them to read. Nation (1997, p. 13) explains that extensive reading is beneficial as learners with different levels of reading proficiency can read at their own pace. Moreover, it enables the students to choose what to read according to their interests, thereby increasing their motivation for reading and encouraging a positive attitude towards reading (Nation, 1997, p. 13). This is something the students in the present study expressed. They believed that it motivated them more, in comparison to the other times they had a reading project where they were not able to choose books to read. As a result, the students can develop intrinsic motivation to read, because they perceive it as fulfilling or rewarding (Schiefele et al., 2012). The results on extensive reading in the classroom from the present study are in line with other studies (Mason, 2006; Byberg, 2015), who report that participants in extensive reading showed positive attitudes toward reading, and that the participants had a positive attitude towards reading more in English if they had the possibility of choosing a book.

Students have different views regarding how much reading they do in school in the English language. There is a perception among some students that their school and teachers do not devote sufficient attention to English reading in class. Some students state that more emphasis is placed on writing and speaking English in class than on reading. It is interesting that the students have such different beliefs as they are all part of the same class. This just shows that the students have different thoughts about what they believe is enough reading. While the students are in the same English class, they are all from different classes, meaning that the students were in different English classes the previous year. They also used to go to different lower secondary schools; this means that the students in the current study had different prior reading experiences (Horwitz, 1987). The students' preexisting beliefs will therefore affect the learning progress, and these beliefs influence the students' approaches and behavior (Horwitz, 1987). Moreover, the students expressed that they have not received any reading
instructions or reading strategy instructions in Vg 2 . Their knowledge on the topic comes from what they have been taught in earlier years.

### 6.4 Extramural reading

The students in the present study express that reading events in English are continuously present in their everyday lives. Many of these reading practices have clear reading patterns, reading characteristics and they involve different types of reading. According to Barton (2007) we use reading differently depending on what situations we are in and what we are going to use the reading for. For the students in the present study many of the extramural reading events are often characterized by quick reading or skimming of news, social media, or online texts. This happens to an even greater extent when it is read on household items. In addition, the quick reading and skimming happens when the students read everything from posters and advertisements, when they walk or drive to and from school, when they take part in leisure activities, and otherwise all other types of minor chores they may do during the day. This is in line with Sundqvist (2009), who states that learners may come in contact with English extramurally without purposeful intention, and they will engage in extramural English activities without realizing it.

There are nearly endless possibilities for extramural English engagement. For example, the students express that they engage in extramural activities such as reading books, watching movies, using social media, or playing videogames. These activities involve the students practicing English outside of school, even though they do not do it intentionally (Sundqvist, 2009). The students' use of social networks, such as Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, and TikTok, is one of the most used extramural reading activities. This is in accordance with Sundqvist (2009), who explains that there has been a dramatic increase in students' access to extramural English with the use of digital technology. The digital devices and social networks are very prevalent in the students' lives, and as they have better access to technology, they are also more exposed to extramural English. The students spend a substantial amount of time using multiple media platforms in their spare time. As a result of this, the students read and communicate more effectively. Social media and the internet have made it easy for the students to access information at any time, and anywhere.

The students in the present study express that the extramural English reading activities they participate in are based on their interests. This is in line with Dörnyei (2005) as he states that students take part in extramural English activities not to learn English, but for personal enjoyment. The students that enjoy reading fictional novels in their free time state that they do so because they view it as an enjoyable activity. Reading gave them inspiration and made them feel one with the characters in books at a deeper level. The same applies to the English extramural reading in movies or videogames. One of the boys in the present study expressed that he reads instructions and messages when playing videogames. However, he does not do so in order to improve his English language or reading skills. According to Krashen (2011) learners make substantial progress in English because English reading is an activity which they are interested in. For students, reading for leisure was intrinsically motivating, as they found reading interesting and enjoyable.

Gender also plays a role in how the students in the present study engaged with extramural English reading activities. This is in line with Sundqvist and Sylvén's (2014) study that indicates that learners' engagement with extramural English activities is influenced by their gender. In their study they found that the majority of male learners prefer gaming, whereas a large number of female learners prefer watching movies. The girls in the present study preferred reading fictional novels extramurally, while the boys preferred reading about their interests. The majority of the students that read subtitles on television were the girls, whereas the only student that played videogames during the two weeks was a boy.

There is a continuum in the findings from the data. The range goes from the students that read a great deal to the students that read a little. The students that read the most out of all the students have a conscious relationship with her reading. These are students who reflects on what is read, and the students have metacognitive reading awareness and is active and prepared in all her reading work. The motivation and interest in relation to different types of texts is high and this reader conveys an inner drive and desire to read a lot and often. The students who do not prioritize reading and who read the least do not convey as much awareness of their reading as the students who read the most. These readers often opt out of reading in favor of more exciting and interesting things, and although the students characterize themself as a relatively good readers and expressed an interest in reading more, the awareness of their own reading and seeing the usefulness of reading is less present. When it comes to reading practices aimed at interests, there are various students in the study that
read texts based on what interests them, such as about activities that they enjoy or in relation to school.

### 6.5 Limitations

There are a number of limitations and weaknesses to the study. Firstly, the study had major limitations due to the time constraint. In terms of the diary method, two weeks is a very short period for collecting reliable data, but because of time constraints it was not possible to extend that period. The project would also benefit from a bigger sample size; however, it was not doable with the amount of time in the study. It was impossible to generalize to a larger population due to the small sample size.

Ellis (2002) highlights the importance of qualitative research methods such as diaries and interviews as the best way to investigate learner beliefs. Most studies of learners' beliefs use self-report to investigate them. There are two problems with this approach. One is that learners may not always report their beliefs accurately, they may instead report the beliefs that they think they should hold and that the researcher wishes to hear. The second problem is that it was not possible to determine exactly how much was actually read. In spite of the fact that the actual process of logging may be simple, keeping a diary takes time, dedication, and commitment. The logs are not always reliable because the participants may lose motivation or forget to keep accurate and diligent records. While all the students wrote the logs, one of the students did $\log$ that he did not read anything some of the days. There might be a chance that the student forgot or was not motivated to log those days. Another student also expressed that it was not possible to log absolutely everything that he was reading throughout the two weeks, as there is text everywhere and he read some of the texts automatically without realizing it.

The participants were in the middle of a reading project in their English class when this study started. The students had picked books to read and were logging their reading. This effected the study in both a positive and a negative way. It was positive that the students were already used to writing a reading $\log$, and it made it easier for them to remember to log their reading in this study as well. However, the data from the logs may not be as conclusive and reliable since they had to read in their English classes, and the data might have been different if they participated in the study at a different time. This reading project lasted about half of the
duration of the logs. As they only read the novels they had chosen in their class, this effected the time they spent reading. As is evident in the logs, the students spent many hours reading English fiction, even the students that do not normally read fiction or novels otherwise, and most of them did not read any English reading materials or textbooks in school. The students were asked whether the reading project effected their reading in the present study, and only one of the students said that he read more than he usually does during the two-week period. It would have been ideal to conduct the study after their reading project as that could have increased the reliability, however, due to the time limitation this was not possible. The students were also asked to what extent the logs reflected their reading during the interviews, this did also increase the reliability of the logs.

## 7. Conclusion

This study aimed at investigating ESL students' experiences, habits and beliefs toward reading in English at an upper secondary school. The relevance of the study was that despite the increased focus on reading in the curriculum, low reading scores have been reported in Norwegian national tests and PISA surveys. This raises an interesting question concerning why results are so low. The research questions were the following:

- What motivates Vg2 students to read in English?
- What English reading practices, both on paper and digitally, do Vg2 ESL students have in school and in their spare time?
- What beliefs do Vg2 students have concerning reading in English and the significance reading has on their lives?


### 7.1 Reading motivation

Regarding the first research question about what motivates Vg 2 students to read in English, it is concluded that the students had two types of motivations. These two categories for reading motivation that the students expressed in the study are: an intrinsic drive and motivation to read, both for pleasure and for knowledge, and extrinsic motivation, meaning that the students were motivated to read in order to receive a reward, for example a good grade for school purposes. The students expressed being more motivated when reading in English versus when reading in Norwegian. The students also reported that their family members and friends motivate them to read.

### 7.2 Reading practices

The second research question concerns the students' reading practices, both on paper and digitally, as well as their reading practices in school and in their spare time.

Digital screens are used a lot by the students for reading. The internet is used to read social media posts, news articles, blogs, subtitles, and various texts throughout the day. Each student carries a digital device, such as a phone, computer, or a tablet, with them wherever they go. When asked whether the students prefer to read on a screen or on paper, the answers are
mixed. Some of the students express that they usually read on screen and that they prefer that. The students in the study explain that they mostly read on a screen, however, most of them prefer to read on paper. Even though the student that expressed a preference for reading on screen believe that it is easier to find reading material on a computer and because it is very easily accessible. The students that prefer to read on paper explain that they are more focused and motivated when reading on paper.

The students' reading beliefs and reading practices, from the interviews and from the logs, were divided into reading profiles. There were students that read everything and always, and then there were students that give low priority to reading. The students that read everything and always express that they spend every spare moment to read, both school subject material and fictional books. They express an inner drive to read. The students that do not prioritize reading are aware that they do not read enough and want to prioritize reading. However, they do not read more than they have to. When it comes to reading outside of school, the results showed that they read for interest, and that their reading interests can be divided into reading non-fiction for knowledge about interests and hobbies, and reading fiction for pleasure. The students expressed that when they read school related material, they read for knowledge and for good grades on tests and assignments.

### 7.3 Reading beliefs

The last research question is about the students' beliefs concerning reading and the significance reading has on their lives. The findings show that the students in the study reported positive attitudes toward extensive reading. The students were in the midst of a reading project when the present study started. It was their first extensive reading project that they had had at school, and the students expressed that they enjoyed it very much. They believed that the ability to choose a book to read in class motivated them to read.

All the eight students in the study believe that it is important to read in English. The students acknowledge the benefits of reading. The students' English reading practices vary, but one thing that seems very clear is that most of the students read more in English than in Norwegian. They believe that they must be able to read English in order for them to do well both in life and in school. The students declare that they encounter English text everywhere, so understanding it and reading it well are fundamental skills. They all seem to understand
and agree that reading in English is necessary for success. Most of them also believe that in order to gain an understanding of the world, reading is essential.

### 7.4 Contributions and implications for further research

This current study contributes to the research of reading in English in a Norwegian context. By focusing on the students' beliefs, practices and experience, the study contributes to the importance of understanding the students' beliefs and approaches to second language reading and language learning, and teachers can more effectively plan instruction accordingly. The present study also contributed with the use of logs aa a data collection method.

A limitation from the current study is that an analysis based on the responses of eight students from one school is not sufficient for drawing general conclusions. The results of this study are based on a small study that cannot be generalized to all students in upper secondary schools in terms of reading experiences and habits. To achieve more insights into the general situation of students' experiences and habits in relation to reading in English, further research would have to be conducted. In light of these factors, it appears that there is an increasing need to describe the experiences of Norwegian ESL students towards reading in English as a second language. In order to improve the quality of English instruction, it is important to have a better understanding of learners' experiences and how past reading experiences influence their beliefs, attitudes, and motivation. In light of this, further studies need to be conducted to determine how the LK20 takes into account learners' motivation for learning. In an increasingly globalized world, it is essential to be able to read in English. An urgent need exists to explore how approaches such as extensive reading or digital reading might be used to enable learners in a world where having good English abilities and fluency in reading is of greater importance than ever.

Lastly, the findings can be interpreted as having implications for future teachers. The main implication is that the students show interest and motivation when it comes to extensive reading. It is therefore important for the teachers to consider the benefits of extensive reading and motivate the students with books and texts with topics that interest them.

## Reference list

Aasen, P., Møller, J., Rye, E., Ottesen, E., Pritz, T.S., \& Hertzberg, F. (2012).

Kunnskapsløftet som styringsreform - et løft eller et løfte? Forvaltningsnivåenes og institusjonenes rolle i implementeringen av reformen. [The Knowledge Promotion as governance reform ...]. NIFU Report, https://www.udir.no/globalassets/filer/tall-ogforskning/rapporter/2012/fire_slutt.pdf

Abbott, M. L. (2006). ESL reading strategies: Differences in Arabic and Mandarin speaker test performance. Language Learning, 56(4), 633-670.

Abbott, M. (2010). An introspective study of Arabic and Mandarin-speakers reading comprehension strategies. TESL Canada Journal/Revue TESL Du Canada, 28(1), 1440

Alderson, C. J. 2000. Assessing Reading. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Alderson, J. C. (1984). Reading in a foreign language: A reading problem or a language problem? In J. C. Alderson, \& A. H. Urquhart, Reading in a foreign language (pp. 124). London: Longman.

Anderson, R. C., Wilson, P. T., \& Fielding, L. G. (1986). Growth in reading and how children spend their time outside of school. Center for the study of reading: University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Andrews, S., \& Bond, R. (2009). Lexical expertise and reading skill: Bottom-up and topdown processing of lexical ambiguity. Reading and Writing, 22(6), 687-711.

Arnold, J. (1999). Affect in language learning. Cambridge University Press
Asher, J. J. (1969). The total physical response approach to second language learning. The modern language journal, Vol. 53, No. 1, pp. 3-17. Wiley on behalf of the national federation of modern language teachers associations.

Barnett, M. A. (1989). More than meets the eye: foreign language learner reading: theory and practice. Prentice Hall Regents/ESL.

Baron, N. (2015). Words Onscreen. Oxford: Oxford University Press, Incorporated.
Beers, K. (1998). Listen while you read. School library journal. 44(4) 30.
Benson, P. (2001). Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning (2nd Edition). London: Longman.

Birch, B. M., Folup, S. (2021). English L2 reading: Getting to the bottom. New York: Routledge.

Brattetveit, H. H. (2018). A study of EFL reading instruction at the upper secondary level in Norway. University of Stavanger, Norway.

Braun, V., \& Clarke, V. (2013). Successful Qualitative Research (1st ed.). SAGE Publications. Brown, H. D. (2007) Teaching by Principles. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.

Breen, M (Ed.) (2001). Learner contributions to language learning: New directions in research. Routledge; 1st edition

Brevik, L. M. (2015). How teachers teach and readers read: developing reading comprehension in English in Norwegian upper secondary school. University of Oslo, Norway.

Brevik, L.M., Brantmeier, C., Pearson, P. D. (2020) Strategic readers of English: Gradual release of responsibility. In Brevik, L. M. \& Rindal, U. (Eds.), Teaching English in Norwegian classrooms: from research to practice. Oslo: universitetforlaget, pp. 137158.

Brevik, L. M., Rindal, U. (2020). Teaching English in norwegian classrooms: from research to practice. Oslo, Universitetsforlaget.

Brevik, L. M., Olsen, R. V., Hellekjær, G. O. (2016). the complexity of second language reading: investigating the L1-L2 relationship. Reading in a foreign language, 28(2), 161-182.

Brophy, J. (2004). Motivating Students to Learn. Second Edition. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Brown, H. D. (2007) Teaching by Principles. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.
Brown, D. (2009). Why and how textbooks should encourage extensive reading. ELT Journal, 63(3), 238-245).

Bruthiaux, P. (2003), Squaring the circles: issues in modeling English worldwide. International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 13: 159-178.

Buck, G. (2001). Assessing listening. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Byberg, L. B. (2015). A group of Norwegian lower secondary learners' reading experiences in English as a foreign language. University of Stavanger, Norway.

Carrell, P. (1987). Content and Formal Schemata in ESL Reading. TESOL Quarterly, 21, 461481.

Carrell, P. (1991). Second language reading: Reading ability or language proficiency? Applied Linguistics, 12(2), 159-179.

Carrell, P, \& Eisterhold, J. C. (1983). Schema Theory and ESL Reading Pedagogy. TESOL Quarterly, 17(4), 553-573. https://doi.org/10.2307/3586613

Celce-Murcia, M., \& Olshtain, E. (2000). Discourse and context in language teaching: A guide for language teachers. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Charboneau, R. (2016). Approaches to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) reading instruction in Norwegian primary schools. PhD thesis, University of Stavanger.

Chen, C. N., Chen, S. C., Chen, S. H. E., Wey, S. C. (2013). The effects of extensive reading via e-books on tertiary level EFL students' reading attitude, reading comprehension and vocabulary. The Turkish online journal of educational technology, 12 (2).

Child, D. (1977). Psychology and the Teacher. 2nd Ed. London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
Clarke, M. A. (1980). The Short Circuit Hypothesis of ESL reading: Or when language competence interferes with reading performance. The Modern Language Journal, 64(2), 203-209.

Clark, C. \& Hawkins, L. (2010). Young people's reading: the importance of the home environment and family support. More findings from our national survey. National Literacy Trust.

Clinton, V. (2019). Reading from paper compared to screens: A systematic revire and metaanalysis, Journal of research in reading, 42 (2), pp. 288-325.

Cohen, L.; Manion, L.; \& Morrison, K. (2007). Research Methods in Education. Routledge: London.

Cohen, L.; Manion, L.; Morrison, K. (2011). Research Methods in Education. Routledge: New York.

Cook, V. J. \& Newson, M. (2007). Chomsky's universal grammar: An introduction $3^{\text {rd }}$ ed. Wiley-Blackwell.

Crystal, D. (2003). English as a global language 2nd edition. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.

Cummings, J. (1979). Cognitive/academic language proficiency, linguistic interdependence, the optimum age question and some other matters. Working papers on bilingualism, 19.

Cunningham, A. (2005). Vocabulary growth through independent reading and reading aloud to children. In E. Hiebert \& M. Kamil (Eds.), Teaching and learning vocabulary (pp. 45-68). Mahwah, NJ: L. Erlbaum.

Crystal, D. (2012). English as a global language. ProQuest Ebook Central
Daniel, D. B., \& Woody, W. D. (2012). E textbooks at what cost? Performance and use of electronic vs. print texts, Computers in Education, Vol. 62: 18-23,

Day, R. R., Bamford, J. (1998). Extensive reading in the second language classroom. Cambridge language education. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Day, R., Bassett, J., Bowler, B., Parminter, S., Bullard, N., Furr, M., and Robb, T. (2011). Extensive reading. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Deci, E. L., Ryan, R. M., \& Williams, G. C. (1996). Self-Determination and Education: Need Satisfaction and the Self-Regulation of Learning. Learning and Individual Differences, 8(3), 165-183. New York: JAI Press.

Deci, E. L., Vallerand, R. J., Pelletier, L. G., \& Ryan, R. M. (1991). Motivation and Education: The Self-Determination Perspective. Educational Psychologist, 26(3\& 4), 325-346. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). Psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). Research methods in applied linguistivs. Oxford university press.
Dörnyei, Z. (2010). Questionnaires in second language research: construction, administration, and processing. Second language acquisition research series. Routledge.

Dornyei, Z., Clement, R. (2001). Motivational characteristics of learning different target languges: results of a nationwide survey.

Drew, I., Oostdam, R. \& Toorenburg, H. (2007). Teachers' experiences and perceptions of primary EFL in Norway and the Netherlands: A comparative study. European Journal of Teacher Education

Drew, I., Sørheim, B. 2009. English teaching strategies: Methods for English teachers of 10 to 16 year olds (2. ed). Oslo: Det Norske Samlaget.

Duke, N. K., Pearson, P. D., Strachan, S. L., \& Billman, A. K. (2011). Essential elements of fostering and teaching reading comprehension. In Samuels, S. J. \& Farstrup, A. E. (Eds.), What research has to say about reading instruction (4 ${ }^{\text {th }} \mathrm{ed}$.) (pp. 51-93). Newark, DE: International Reading Association. https://www.readinghalloffame.org/sites/default/files/03-duke-pearson-strachanbillman.2011_rev_copy.pdf

Edwards, V. (2009). Learning to be literate: Multilingual perspectives. Bristol: Multilingual Matters

Eklundh, K. S. (1992). Problems in achieving a global perspective of the text in computerbased writing. Instructional Science, 21(1), 73e84.

Elley, W. (1991). Acquiring literacy in a second language: the effect of book-based programs. Language Learning, 41(3), 375-411.

Elley, W., \& Mangubhai, F. (1983). The impact of reading on second language learning. Reading research quarterly, 19(1), 53-67.

Ellis, R. (2002). A metaphorical analysis of learner beliefs. In P. Burmeister, T. Piske and A. Rohde (Eds.), An integrated view of language development: Papers in honor of Henning Wode. Trier, Germany: Wissenschaftlicher Verlag.

Eskey, D. (2005). Reading in a second language. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning (pp. 563-359). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Field, J (2008) Listening in the Language Classroom, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Gibbs, G. R., (2007). 4 Thematic coding and categorizing. Analyzing Qualitative Data. London: SAGE Publications, Ltd

Grabe, W. (2004). Research on teaching reading. Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 24, 44-69

Grabe, W. (2009). Reading in a second language: moving from theory to practice. Cambridge University Press. Doi:10.1017/CBO9781139150484.010

Goodman, K. S. (1967) Reading: A psycholinguistic guessing game, Journal of the Reading Specialist, 6:4, 126-135

Greaney, V. (1980). Factors Related to Amount and Type of Leisure Time Reading. Reading Research Quarterly, 15(3), 337-357. https://doi.org/10.2307/747419

Guthrie, J. T. (2008). Reading motivation and engagement in middle and high school: Appraisal and intervention. In J. T. Guthrie (Ed.), Engaging adolescents in reading (pp. 1-16). Corwin Press

Guthrie, J. T., \& Wigfield, A. (2000). Engagement and motivation in reading. In M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, \& R. Barr (Eds.), Handbook of reading research, Vol. 3, pp. 403-422). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Hafiz, F. M. and Tudor, I. (1989). 'Extensive reading and the development of language skills'. ELT Journal, 43: 4-13.

Hammersley, M. (1990). Reading Ethnographic Research: A Critical Guide. New York: Longman.

Hammersley, M., \& Traianou, A. (2012). Ethics in qualitative research: Controversies and contexts. SAGE Publications

Heale, R \& Twycross, A (2015). Validity and reliability in quantitative studies. Evidencebased Nursing, 66-67.

Hellekjær, G. O. (2005). The Acid Test: Does Upper Secondary EFL Instruction Effectively Prepare Norwegian Students for the Reading of English Textbooks at Colleges and Universities? Doctoral thesis, Faculty of Arts, University of Oslo.

Hellekjær, G. O. (2007). Reading: from a forgotten to a basic skill. Språk og Språkundervisning, 23-29.

Hellekjær, G. O. (2008). A case for improved reading instruction for academic English reading proficiency. University of Oslo 2 (1).

Henning, E., Van Rensburg, W. \& Smit, B. (2005). Finding your way in qualitative research (1sted.) Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Hill, D. R. (2001). Graded readers. ELT Journal, 55, 300-324.
Horwitz, E. K. (1987). Surveying student beliefs about language learning. In A. Wenden \& R. Rubin (Eds.), Learner strategies in language learning. (pp. 119-129). London: Prentice Hall International. 119-129.

Horwitz, E. K. (1988). The Beliefs about Language Learning of Beginning University Foreign Language Students. The Modern Language Journal, 72(3), 283-294. https://doi.org/10.2307/327506

Hou, J., Rashid, J., and Lee, K. M. (2017). Cognitive map or medium materiality? Reading on paper and screen. Comput. Hum. Behav. 67, 84-94. doi: 10.1016/j.chb.2016.10.014

Hudson, T. (1982). The Effects of Induced Schemata on the "Short Circuit" in L2 Reading: Non-Decoding Factors in L2 Reading Performance. Language Learning, 32, 1-33. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1982.tb00516.x

Hult, F. M. (2003). English on the streets of Sweden: An ecolinguistic view of two cities and a language policy. Working Papers in Educational Linguistics. 19(1), 43-63.

Ivankova, N. V., Greer, J. L., (2015). Mixed methods research and analysis. Research Methods in Applied Lingustics: A Prectical Resource. Bloomsbury. p. 63-81.

Jiang, J., Ouyang, J., \& Liu, H. (2019). Interlanguage: a perspective of qualitative linguistic typology. Language Sciences, 74, 85-97.

Johnson, P. (1982). Effects on Reading Comprehension of Building Background Knowledge. Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, (pp. 503-516).

Johnson, R.B. and Christensen L. 2012. Education research: quantitative, qualitative and mixed approaches, (4nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Kalaja et al. (2017). Revisiting research on L2 learner beliefs. The routledge handbook of language awareness. ProQuest Ebook Central https://ebookcentral-proquestcom.ezproxy.uis.no

Koda, K. (2005). Insights into Second Language Reading: a Cross-Linguistic Approach. New York: Cambridge.

Koda, K. (2007). Reading and Language Learning: Crosslinguistic Constraints on Second Language Reading Development. Language Learning, 57(s1), 1-44.

Koda, K. (2008). Looking back and thinking forward. In K. Koda \& A. Zegler (Eds.), Learning to read across languages (pp. 222-34), New York: Routledge.

Kothari, C.R., 2004. Research Methodology: An introduction. In Research Methodology: Methods and Technique ( $2^{\text {nd }}$ revised ed.). New Age International Limited, Publishers.

Krashen, S.D. 1985. The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications. New York: Longman. https://www.uio.no/studier/emner/hf/iln/LING4140/h08/The\ Input\ Hypothesis. pdf

Krashen, S. (1988). Second language acquisition and second language learning. Prentice Hall.
Krashen, S. (1989). We Acquire Vocabulary and Spelling by Reading: Additional Evidence for the Input Hypothesis. The Modern Language Journal, 73(4), 440-464. https://doi.org/10.2307/326879

Krashen, S. D. (2004). The power of reading: Insights from the research. ABC-CLIO.
Krashen, S. (2011). The compelling (not just interesting) input hypothesis. The English Connection, 15(3), 1 .

Krashen, S., Terrell, T. D. (1983). The natural approach. Pergamon Alemany
Kunnskapsdepartementet (LK06) (2006) Lareplan i engelsk. Applied from 01.08.2006 to 31.07.2010 Oslo: Kunnskapsdepartementet.

Kunnskapsdepartementet (LK20) (2019). Lereplan i engelsk. Fastsatt som forskrift av Kunnskapsdepartementet 15.11.2019. Applied from 01.08.2020. Oslo: Kunnskapsdepartementet.

Kurby, C., Britt, M. A. \& Magliano, J. (2005). The Role of Top-Down and Bottom-Up Processes in Between-Text Integration. Reading Psychology. 26. 335-362. 10.1080/02702710500285870.

Kvale, S., \& Enerstvedt, R. (1989). Issues of validity in qualitative research. Lund: Studentlitteratur.

Leavy, P. (2014).The Oxford Handbook of Qualitative Research. In P.E. Nathan \& L. Leavy (Eds) Oxford University Press: UK

Leedy, P. D., \& Ormrod, J. E. (2015). Practical research. Planning and design (11th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Liu, Z. (2005). Reading behavior in the digital environment: changes in reading behavior over the past ten years. Journal of Documentation 61 (6).

Long, D. L., \& Lea, R. B. (2005). Have we been searching for meaning in all the wrong places? defining the "search after meaning" principle in comprehension. Discourse Processes A Multidisciplinary Journal, 39(2-3), 279-298.

Mangen, A., Walgermo, B., \& Brønnick, K. (2013). Reading linear texts on paper versus computer screen: Effects on reading comprehension. International Journal of Educational Research. 58. 61-68. 10.1016/j.ijer.2012.12.002.

Mantle-Bromley, C. (1995), Positive Attitudes and Realistic Beliefs: Links to Proficiency. The Modern Language Journal, 79: 372-386. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.15404781.1995.tb01114.x

Martin, M. (1979). Top-down Processing and Target Search in Reading. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 48(2), 467-470. https://doi.org/10.2466/pms.1979.48.2.467

Mason, B. (2006). Free voluntary reading and autonomy in second language acquisition: improving TOEFL scores from reading alone.

McClelland, D. C., Atkinson, J. W., Clark, R. A., \& Lowell, E. L. (1953). The Achievement Motive. New York: Appleton Century-Crofts.

McDonough, S. H. (1986). Psychology in Foreign Language Learning. 2nd Ed. London: Allen \& Unwin.

McKay, S. L. (2006). Researching second language classrooms. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc

Medietilsynet (2020). Barn og medier 2020: språk- og medievaner. 200924-delrapport-8-sprak-og-medievaner-barn-og-medier-2020.pdf (medietilsynet.no)

Merriam, S. B. (1998). Qualitative research and case study applications in education. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Mitchell, R., Myles, F., Marsden, E. (2019). Second language learning theories. Taylor \& Francis

Mlay, Samali \& Sabi, Humphrey \& Tsuma, Clive \& Langmia, Kehbuma. (2015). Uncovering reading habits of university students in Uganda: Does ICT matter?. The International Journal of Education and Development using Information and Communication Technology.

Monitor (2019)
https://www.udir.no/contentassets/92b2822fa64e4759b4372d67bcc8bc61/monitor-2019-sluttrapport_sintef.pdf

Mori, Y. (1999), Epistemological Beliefs and Language Learning Beliefs: What Do Language Learners Believe About Their Learning?. Language Learning, 49: 377415. https://doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00094

Nation, P. (1997). The Language learning benefits of extensive reading. The Language Teacher, 21(5)13-17.

National Curriculum for Knowledge Promotion 2006 (2006). LK06. English subject curriculum (ENG1-03). Oslo: Kunnskapsdepartementet. Retrieved from https://www.udir.no/kl06/ENG1-03?lplang=eng

National Curriculum for Knowledge Promotion 2020 (2019). LK20. English subject curriculum (ENG01-04). Oslo: Kunnskapsdepartementet. Retrieved from https://www.udir.no/lk20/eng01-04?lang=eng

Nieuwenhuis, J. (2007). Qualitative research designs and data gathering techniques. In K. Maree (Ed.), First steps in research (pp. 70-90).

Niklas, F., Cohrssen, C., \& Tayler, C. (2016). The Sooner, the Better: Early Reading to Children. SAGE Open. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244016672715

Nuttall, C. 2005. Teaching reading skills in a foreign language. Macmillan Books for Teachers Series. Macmillan Education.

O'Day, P. (2002). Reading while listening: Increasing access to print through the use of audio books. Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses.

OECD. (2001). PISA 2000. Knowledge and skills for life: first results from the OECD programme for international student assessment (PISA) 2000. OECD publications.

OECD. (2004). PISA 2003. Learning for tomorrow's world: first results from PISA 2003. OECD publications.

OECD (2007). PISA 2006. PISA 2006: science competencies for tomorrow's world, volum 1: analysis. OECD publications.

OECD (2010), PISA 2009 Results: What Students Know and Can Do: Student Performance in Reading, Mathematics and Science (Volume I), OECD Publishing.

OECD (2014). PISA 2012 Results in focus: what 15-year-olds know and what they do with what they know. OECD productions. Retrieved from:

OECD (2016). PISA 2015. PISA results in focus: excellence and equity in education, volume 1. OECD publishing.

OECD (2021). PISA 2018. 21st-Century Readers: Developing Literacy Skills in a Digital World, PISA, OECD Publishing, Paris.

Paltridge, B., Phakiti, A. (2015). Research methods in applied linguistics: a practical resource. London: Bloomsbury Publishing PLC

Park, G. P. (1997). Language Learning Strategies and English Proficiency in Korean Univelsity Students. Soonchun hyang University.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). Qualitative research and evaluation methods (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Pearson, P.D., \& Gallagher, M.C. (1983). The instruction of reading comprehension. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 8(3), 317-344.

Rao, Z. (2003). Effect of using a "top-down" strategy on chinese university students comprehension of english readings. Asian Journal of English Language Teaching, 13, 29-44.

Renandya, W. A., and Jacobs, G. M. (2002). ‘Extensive reading: Why aren't we all doing it?' In Richards, C.J. \& W. A. Renandya (Eds.), Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Perfetti, C., Liu, Y., Fiez, J., Nelson, J., Bolger, D., \& Tan, L. (2007). Reading in two writing systems: Accommodation and assimilation in the brain's reading network. Bilingualism: Language and Cognition, 10(2), 131-146.

Richards, J. C. (2015). The Changing Face of Language Learning: Learning Beyond the Classroom. RELC Journal. 46(1), 5-22.

Robson, C. (2002). Real world research: a resource for social scientists and practitionerresearchers. Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishers.

Rolland, L., Dewaele, J., Costa, B. (2019). Planning and conducting ethical interviews: power, language and emotions. The Routledge Handbook of Research Methods in Applied Linguistics. Taylor \& Francis.

Rose, H. (2019). Diaries and journals: collecting insider perspective in second language research. The Routledge Handbook of Research Methods in Applied Linguistics. Taylor \& Francis.

Rosen, L. D., Whaling, K., Carrier, L. M., Cheever, N. A., \& Rokkum, J. (2013) The Media and Technology Usage and Attitudes Scale: An empirical investigation, Computers in Human Behavior, Vol. 29, No. 6: 2501-2511.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1977). The representation of knowledge in memory. In Anderson, R. C et al. (Eds.), Schooling and the acquisition of Knowledge (pp. 99-135). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

Ryan, R. M., \& Deci E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. Contemporary Educational Psychology 25, 54-67. New York: Academic Press.

Saldaña, J. (2011). Fundamentals of qualitative research. Oxford University Press.
Salner, M. (1989). Validity in human science research. In S. Kvale (Ed.), Issues of validity in qualitative research (pp. 47-71). Lund: Studentlitteratur.

Sandelowski, M. (2003). Tables of tableaux? The challenges of writing and reading mixed methods studies. in A. Tashakkori and C. Teddlie (eds.). Handook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research. Thousands oaks, Calif.:Sage.

Schank, R. C. (1978). Predictive understanding. In R. N. Campbell \& P. T. Smith (Eds.), Recent advances in the psychology of language- Formal and experimental approaches (pp. 91-101). New York: Plenum Press

Schiefele, U., Schaffner, E., Möller, J., Wigfield, A., Nolen, S., \& Baker, L. (2012). Dimensions of Reading Motivation and Their Relation to Reading Behavior and Competence. Reading Research Quarterly, 47(4), 427-463. http://www.jstor.org/stable/23317751

Schank, R.C. (1978). Predictive Understanding. In: Campbell, R.N., Smith, P.T. (eds) Recent Advances in the Psychology of Language. NATO Conference Series, vol 4b. Springer, Boston, MA

Shank, G. \& Brown, L. (2007). Exploring Educational Research Literacy. New York: Routledge.

Skehan, P. (1989). Individual differences in second-language learning. London: Edward Arnold.

Smith, J., \& Elley, W. (1997). How children learn to read. Auckland: Addison Wesley Longman.

Simensen, A. M. (2007). Teaching a foreign language: principles and procedures. Bergen: Fagbokforlaget.

Singer, L. M., Alexander, P. A. (2017) Reading Across Mediums: Effects of Reading Digital and Print Texts on Comprehension and Calibration, The Journal of Experimental Education, 85:1, 155-172, DOI: 10.1080/00220973.2016.1143794

Stanovich, K. E. (1980). Toward an Interactive-Compensatory Model of Individual Differences in the Development of Reading Fluency. Reading Research Quarterly, 16(1), 32-71.

Stevick, E. W. (1980). Teaching languages: A way and ways. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

Sundqvist, p. (2009). Extramural English matters. Out-of-school English and its impact on Swedish ninth graders' oral proficiency and vocabulary. Karlstads Universitet: faculty of arts and education English.

Sundqvist, P., \& Sylvén, L. K. (2014). Language-related computer use: Focus on young L2 english learners in sweden. ReCALL : The Journal of EUROCALL, 26(1), 3-20.

Sundqvist, P., \& Sylvén, K. L. (2016). Extramural English in teaching and learning: From theory and research to practice. London: Palgraver Macmillian.

Taylor, B., Pearson, P. D., Peterson, D. S., \& Rodriguez, M. C. (2005). The CIERA school change framework: An evidence.based approach to professional development and school reading improvement. Reading Research Quarterly, 40 (1), 40-69

The Ministry of Education and Research (2019). Curriculum for English (ENG01-04), UDIR, 15 Nov, Accessed 06 Sep. 2021.

Udir (2021). Fagvalg i videregående skole - elever. https://www.udir.no/tall-og-forskning/statistikk/statistikk-videregaende-skole/fagvalg-i-videregaende-skole/fagvalg-vgs/\#

Vallerand, R. J., Blais, M. R., Brière, N. M., \& Pelletier, L. G. (1989). Construction et validation de l'échelle de motivation en éducation (EME) [Construction and Validation of the Academic Motivation Scale]. Revue Canadienne des Sciences du Comportement, 21(3), 323-349.

Verhoeven, L. (2011). Second language reading acquisition. In Kamil, M.L., Pearson, P. D., Moje, E. B., Afflerbach, P. P. Handbook of Reading Research. Vol 4. Routledge Taylor \& Francis Group.

Vygotsky, L. S., (1978). Mind in society: the development of higher psychological processes. Harvard University Press.

Wenden, A. L, (1998). Metacognitive Knowledge and Language Learning, Applied Linguistics, Volume 19, Issue 4, Pages 515-537.

Wilawan, S. (2006). Lexical cohesion and metacognitive strategy training: An integrated approach to main idea comprehension. (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Leeds).

Wolf, Maryanne (2018). Reader, come home: the reading brain in a digital world. New York: HarperCollins Publisher.

Yang, N.-D. (1999). The relationship between EFL learners' beliefs and learning strategy use. System, 27, 515-535.

Yin, R. K. (1994). Case Study Research: design and methods. SAGE publications.

## Appendices

## Appendix A

## English interview guide

## Beliefs

1. What does reading (in general) mean to you?
2. Do you read in English, and what do you think about reading in English?
3. What does reading in English mean to you?
4. Is it important to be able to read in English? (If yes, why?)
5. What benefits do you believe reading in English has?
6. What inspires you to read?
7. Do you receive reading instructions in school in English class, and are you taught how to read different types of text?

## Experiences/practices

1. How often do you read?
2. Do you read for pleasure or for a purpose, or both? Why/why not?
3. Do you read in your free time? (if yes, what kind of reading material do you read)
4. Do you find reading in English easy or challenging? (elaborate: why do you think that is?)
5. What type of reading do you find challenging? (type of text, school/free time)
6. Has anyone in your family inspired you to read? How?
7. Has anyone in school inspired you to read? How?
8. What types of text do you read in English, and why?
9. What do you think about listening to audiobooks versus reading?
10. What was the last thing you read in English? (Explain: book, magazine, internet, etc.)
11. Describe how you read in different reading situations (skimming, detail-reading etc.)

In what situations do you reread a text, and why?

In what situation would you skim a text, and why?
How do you use and organize important information in a reading text? (note-taking, summarizing)

What strategies do you use to find the meaning of unknown words in different types of texts (online text, textbook texts, novels etc.)? (Guessing from context, using bilingual dictionary, monolingual dictionary, google etc.)
12. Do you mainly read on paper or on screen and which do you prefer? (and why?)
13. Do you notice differences in the way you read printed text and web text? If so, what differences?
14. Do you prefer to read longer text on paper or on screen? (why?)
15. Are you more motivated when reading on paper or on screen? (why?)

## In school reading and extramural reading

1. Do you have a lot of books to choose from in school (library) or in the classroom, and how does this effect your reading?
2. Do you have access to a variety of books (both in school and in your free time)? (information books, stories, poetry, novels, etc)
3. Do you read mostly in English or in Norwegian in your spare time (extramurally)?
4. How is reading in class different/similar to extramural reading?
5. When reading English extramurally, do you prefer reading on paper or on screen?
6. Do you have the possibility to choose texts or books to read in your English class, if so what types of texts?
7. What are your thoughts about getting to choose texts to read in class?
8. Do you believe that you read enough English texts in school or as homework? Why/why not (do the teachers/schools give enough attention to English reading in class)

## Reading strategies

1. How do you incorporate reading strategies into your classroom reading?
2. Do you use the same reading strategies when reading for fun (or extramurally)? (if yes, in what way? If no, how does it
3. What reading strategies do you use when reading on screen?
4. Do you notice differences in the reading strategies when you read on paper and on a screen?
5. Do you use the same reading strategies when reading in English as when reading in Norwegian (or your L1).

## Appendix B

## Norsk intervjuguide

## Intervju guide

1. Hva betyr lesing (generelt) for deg?
2. Leser du på engelsk, og hva synes du om å lese på engelsk?
3. Hva slags betydning har lesing (på engelsk) for deg?
4. Synes du det er viktig å kunne lese på engelsk? (Hvorfor?)
5. Hvilke fordeler tror du at lesing på engelsk har?
6. Hva inspirerer deg til å lese?
7. Får du leseinstruksjoner på skolen i engelsktimen, og blir du lært opp i å lese ulike typer tekst? (Hvis ja, hva slags leseinstruksjoner?)

## Erfaringer/praksis

1. Hvor ofte leser du?
2. Leser du for fornøyelsens skyld eller for et formål, eller begge deler? Hvorfor/hvorfor ikke?
3. Leser du på fritiden? (hvis ja, hva slags lesestoff leser du)
4. Synes du det er lett eller utfordrende å lese på engelsk? (utdype: hvorfor mener du det er det?)
5. Hvilken type lesing synes du er utfordrende? (type tekst, skole/fritid)
6. Har noen i familien din inspirert deg til å lese? Hvordan?
7. Har noen på skolen inspirert deg til å lese? Hvordan?
8. Hvilke typer tekster leser du på engelsk, og hvorfor?
9. Hva synes du om å lytte til lydbøker kontra lesing?
10. Hva var det siste du leste på engelsk? (Forklar: bok, magasin, internett osv.)
11. Beskriv hvordan du leser i ulike lesesituasjoner (skimming, detaljlesing osv.)

- I hvilke situasjoner leser du en engelsk tekst på nytt, og hvorfor?
- I hvilken situasjon ville du skummet en engelsk tekst, og hvorfor?
- Hvordan bruker og organiserer du viktig informasjon i en engelsk lesetekst? (notat, oppsummering)
- Hvilke strategier bruker du for å finne betydningen av ukjente ord i ulike typer tekster (nett-tekst, læreboktekster, romaner etc.)? (Gjetting fra kontekst, bruk av tospråklig ordbok, enspråklig ordbok, google osv.)

12. Leser du hovedsakelig på papir eller på skjerm og hva foretrekker du? (og hvorfor?)
13. Merker du forskjeller i måten du leser trykt tekst og nett-tekst på? I så fall, hvilke forskjeller?
14. Foretrekker du å lese lengre tekst på papir eller på skjerm? (Hvorfor?)
15. Er du mer motivert når du leser på papir eller på skjerm? (Hvorfor?)

## Skole lesing og ekstramural lesing

1. Har du mange bøker å velge mellom på skolen (biblioteket) eller i klasserommet, og hvordan påvirker dette lesingen din?
2. Har du tilgang til en rekke engelske bøker (både på skolen og på fritiden)? (lærebøker, poesi, romaner osv.)
3. Leser du mest på engelsk eller på norsk på fritiden (ekstramuralt)?
4. Hvordan er lesing i klassen annerledes/lik ekstramural lesing?
5. Når du leser engelsk ekstramuralt, foretrekker du å lese på papir eller på skjerm?
6. Har du mulighet til å velge tekster eller bøker å lese i engelskklassen din, i så fall hvilke typer tekster?
7. Hva tenker du om å få velge tekster å lese i klassen?
8. Tror du at du leser nok engelske tekster på skolen eller som lekser? Hvorfor/hvorfor ikke (gir lærerne/skolene nok oppmerksomhet til engelsk lesing i klassen)

## Lesestrategier

1. Hvordan bruker du lesestrategier i lesingen i klasserommet?
2. Bruker du de samme lesestrategiene når du leser for moro skyld (eller ekstramuralt)? (hvis ja, på hvilken måte? Hvis nei, hvordan er det forskjellig?
3. Hvilke lesestrategier bruker du når du leser på skjerm?
4. Merker du forskjeller i lesestrategiene du bruker når du leser på papir og på skjerm?
5. Bruker du de samme lesestrategiene når du leser på engelsk som når du leser på norsk (eller din L1)?

## Appendix C

12.02.2022, 01:32

# ND norsk senter for forskningsdata 

## Vurdering

## Referansenummer

933774

## Prosjekttittel

Elevers forhold til lesing: En studie om leseopplevelser og -vaner pả engelsk av en gruppe norske videregáende skolelesere.

## Behandlingsansvarlig institusjon

Universitetet i Stavanger / Fakultet for utdanningsvitenskap og humaniora / Institutt for kultur- og språkvitenskap

Prosjektansvarlig (vitenskapelig ansatt/veileder eller stipendiat)
Torill Irene Hestetræet, torill.hestetreet@uis.no, tlf: 51831358
Type prosjekt
Studentprosjekt, masterstudium
Kontaktinformasjon, student
Adelina Osmani, adelina_1998@hotmail.com, tlf: 46812608

## Prosjektperiode

10.01.2022-30.06.2022

## Vurdering (1)

### 27.12.2021 - Vurdert

Det er văr vurdering at behandlingen vil være i samsvar med personvernlovgivningen, sà fremt den gjennomfores i trad med det som er dokumentert i meldeskjemaet 27.12.2021 med vedlegg, samt i meldingsdialogen mellom innmelder og NSD. Behandlingen kan starte.

## DEL PROSJEKTET MED PROSJEKTANSVARLIG

For studenter er det obligatorisk å dele prosjektet med prosjektansvarlig (veileder). Del ved à trykke pả knappen «Del prosjekt» i menylinjen øverst i meldeskjemaet. Prosjektansvarlig bes akseptere invitasjonen innen en uke. Om invitasjonen utloper, må han/hun inviteres på nytt.

## TYPE OPPLYSNINGER OG VARIGHET

Prosjektet vil behandle alminnelige kategorier av personopplysninger frem til 30.06.2022.

## LOVLIG GRUNNLAG

Prosjektet vil innhente samtykke fra de registrerte til behandlingen av personopplysninger. Văr vurdering er at prosjektet legger opp til et samtykke i samsvar med kravene i art. 4 og 7 , ved at det er en frivillig, spesifikk, informert og utvetydig bekreftelse som kan dokumenteres, og som den registrerte kan trekke
tilbake.

Lovlig grunnlag for behandlingen vil dermed være den registrertes samtykke, jf. personvernforordningen art. 6 nr . 1 bokstav a.

## PERSONVERNPRINSIPPER

NSD vurderer at den planlagte behandlingen av personopplysninger vil folge prinsippene i
personvernforordningen om:
lovlighet, rettferdighet og åpenhet (art. 5.1 a), ved at de registrerte făr tilfredsstillende informasjon om og samtykker til behandlingen
formålsbegrensning (art. 5.1 b), ved at personopplysninger samles inn for spesifikke, uttrykkelig angitte og berettigede formål, og ikke behandles til nye, uforenlige formål
dataminimering (art. 5.1 c ), ved at det kun behandles opplysninger som er adekvate, relevante og nodvendige for formảlet med prosjektet
lagringsbegrensning (art. 5.1 e ), ved at personopplysningene ikke lagres lengre enn nodvendig for â oppfylle formålet

## DE REGISTRERTES RETTIGHETER

Så lenge de registrerte kan identifiseres i datamaterialet vil de ha folgende rettigheter: innsyn (art. 15), retting (art. 16), sletting (art. 17), begrensning (art. 18), og dataportabilitet (art. 20).

NSD vurderer at informasjonen om behandlingen som de registrerte vil motta oppfyller lovens krav til form og innhold, jf. art. 12.1 og art. 13.

Vi minner om at hvis en registrert tar kontakt om sine rettigheter, har behandlingsansvarlig institusjon plikt til ă svare innen en måned.

## FØLG DIN INSTITUSJONS RETNINGSLINJER

NSD 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).

For å forsikre dere om at kravene oppfylles, må dere folge interne retningslinjer og/eller rådfore dere med behandlingsansvarlig institusjon.

## MELD VESENTLIGE ENDRINGER

Dersom det skjer vesentlige endringer i behandlingen av personopplysninger, kan det vere nedvendig à melde dette til NSD ved ă oppdatere meldeskjemaet. For du melder inn en endring, oppfordrer vi deg til å lese om hvilke type endringer det er nodvendig ă melde: https://www.nsd.no/personverntjenester/fylle-ut-meldeskjema-for-personopplysninger/melde-endringer-i-meldeskjema
Du mả vente pả svar fra NSD for endringen gjennomfores.
OPPFØLGING AV PROSJEKTET
NSD vil folge opp ved planlagt avslutning for à avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet.

Lykke til med prosjektet!

## Appendix D

## Request for participation in research project

## «Elevers forhold til lesing: En studie om leseopplevelser og -vaner på engelsk av en gruppe norske videregående skole lesere»?


#### Abstract

Dette er et spørsmål til deg om å delta i et forskningsprosjekt hvor formålet er å undersøke elevers forhold til engelsk lesing. I dette skrivet gir vi deg informasjon om målene for prosjektet og hva deltakelse vil innebære for deg.


## Formål

Dette forskningsprosjektet er del av en masteroppgave ved Universitetet i Stavanger Jeg ønsker finne ut hva slags lesevaner og leseopplevelser Vg2 elever har i engelsk. Det vil bli gjennomført en blandet forskningsmetode, som kombinerer et kvalitativt intervju og kvalitativ logg. Hovedmålet med forskningsprosjektet er å kartlegge Vg2 elevers erfaringer med intensiv, ekstensiv og digital lesing på engelsk.

## Hvem er ansvarlig for forskningsprosjektet?

Universitetet i Stavanger (UIS) er ansvarlig for prosjektet. Min veileder ved UIS er Torill Irene Hestetræet.

## Hvorfor får du spørsmål om å delta?

Dette brevet vil sendes til Vg2 elever i engelskklasser. Ti av elevene som melder sin interesse vil bli valgt ut til å delta. Loggene og intervjuene vil gjennomføres individuelt.

## Hva innebærer det for deg å delta?

Hvis du velger å delta i prosjektet, innebærer det at du skriver en logg i 2 uker. Loggen vil kartlegge din lesepraksis $i$ hverdagen. Elevene vil få utdelt en notatbok som vil brukes til å skrive loggen. Loggen vil ikke inneholde noe personlig informasjon, og vil anonymiseres før den brukes i masteroppgaven.

Hvis du velger å delta i prosjektet vil det også innebære at du intervjues etter loggskrivingen. Spørsmålene jeg stiller vil gi rom for at du kan fortelle om dine erfaringer, opplevelser og synspunkter om engelsk lesing. Det du sier forblir mellom oss, og all informasjon anonymiseres $f \varnothing r$ det brukes $i$ masteroppgaven. Det blir ikke mulig for lesere av oppgaven å finne ut hvem som er intervjuet. Det vil bli tatt lydopptak av intervjuet, som vil bli slettet så fort intervjuet er transkribert.

## 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.

## 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.

## Hva skjer med opplysningene dine når vi avslutter forskningsprosjektet?

Opplysningene anonymiseres når prosjektet avsluttes/oppgaven er godkjent, noe som etter planen er på slutten av juni 2022.

## Dine rettigheter

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

- innsyn i hvilke personopplysninger som er registrert om deg, og å få utlevert en kopi av opplysningene,
- å få rettet personopplysninger om deg,
- å få slettet personopplysninger om deg, og
- å sende klage til Datatilsynet om behandlingen av dine personopplysninger.
- 

Hva gir oss rett til å behandle personopplysninger om deg?
Vi behandler opplysninger om deg basert på ditt samtykke.
På oppdrag fra Universitetet i Stavanger har NSD - Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS vurdert at behandlingen av personopplysninger i dette prosjektet er i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

## Hvor kan jeg finne ut mer?

Hvis du har spørsmål til studien, eller $\emptyset$ nsker å benytte deg av dine rettigheter, ta kontakt med:

- Universitetet i Stavanger ved Torill Irene Hestetræet. E-mail: torill.hestetreet@uis.no.
- Vårt personvernombud: personvernombud@uis.no

Hvis du har spørsmål knyttet til NSD sin vurdering av prosjektet, kan du ta kontakt med:

- NSD - Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS på epost (personverntjenester@nsd.no) eller på telefon: 55582117.

Med vennlig hilsen
(Forsker/veileder)

## Samtykkeerklæring

Jeg har mottatt og forstått informasjon om prosjektet [sett inn tittel], og har fått anledning til å stille spørsmål. Jeg samtykker til:
$\square$ å delta i loggskrivingå delta i intervju

Jeg samtykker til at mine opplysninger behandles frem til prosjektet er avsluttet
(Signert av prosjektdeltaker, dato)

