University of South-Eastern Norway

Faculty of Humanities, Sports and Educational Sciences

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Master's Thesis

Study program: MGLU2

Spring 2023

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"Even though extensive reading is good…"

Investigating Norwegian English teachers' knowledge of, experiences with, and attitudes towards ER.

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This thesis is worth 30 study points

Abstract

Extensive reading (ER) as a classroom activity in additional language learning has been given more attention over the last decades. Many scholars have investigated its impact on language learning and found positive results for all age groups. Despite this, empirical research on English teachers' practices in Norwegian schools indicate a textbook-driven approach with the use of few other reading resources. Theory on teacher cognition and attitudes show that teachers' thoughts, beliefs, and attitudes towards specific classroom activities greatly influence their choice of using them. Therefore, this study aims to investigate Norwegian English teachers' knowledge of, experiences with, and attitudes towards ER.

Interviews were conducted with nine Norwegian teachers of English from different primary and lower secondary schools. The results indicate a lack of knowledge among the teachers regarding ER, especially for more experienced in-service teachers. Few participants had heard of ER prior to the interviews, and they provided limited definitions and explanations of the term. The teachers' reported reading programs also lacked some of the principles needed for a successful ER program. Despite this, the teachers' attitudes towards ER were positive, and the results indicate an awareness of the learning benefits. However, limited knowledge and challenges with implementation may hinder teachers from using ER as a classroom activity. Therefore, ER needs to be given more attention in teacher education, professional development programs for in-service teachers, and educational research in Norway.

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Acknowledgements

We want to thank our family and friends
for the support they showed us through the project.

A special thanks to our supervisor Jennifer Duggan
for guiding us through this project,
and for providing uplifting words in times of need.

1 Introduction

In the field of foreign language education, extensive reading (ER) has received particular attention over the last 40 years (Grabe, 2009, p. 312). ER concerns reading multiple, enjoyable, self-chosen, comprehensible texts, without focusing on grammar and with few, or no, follow-up tasks (Palmer, 1917/1968, p. 137; Day & Bamford, 1998, pp. 7-8). Extensive empirical research has established ER as beneficial for additional language learning, especially in terms of vocabulary gain, increased reading speed and reading comprehension, and greater proficiency in writing and grammar (Krashen, 2004, pp. 1-17).

Even though ER has been incorporated into English teacher education in Norway, Norwegian studies on the use of ER for English language acquisition are scarce. Still, several studies have researched Norwegian English teachers' practices regarding reading in general in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom (e.g., Bakke, 2010; Bakken & Lund, 2018; Brattetveit, 2018; Charboneau, 2012; Drew et al., 2007; Olaussen, 2018; Vignjevic, 2012). These studies indicate that teachers of English in Norway rely heavily on textbooks and rarely use ER in their practices. Charboneau (2012), for instance, presents findings from a national survey about EFL reading instruction answered by 370 fourth- and fifth-grade teachers. These findings showed that more than 60% of the teachers reported using textbooks as the basis for their English reading instruction. Charboneau (2012) also found that less than 29% of the teachers used less traditional teaching methods, such as guided reading and individual reading in the classroom, more than two times per month.

Other studies conducted more recently support Charboneau's (2012) results. For example, Brattetveit (2018) conducted individual interviews with five teachers from different urban schools. The collected data showed that four out of the five teachers utilized textbooks extensively in their EFL lessons, although two reported dissatisfaction with the quality of the textbooks. Four out of five also assigned one novel for the pupils to read during the school year, while only one teacher allowed the pupils to choose their own novels. Another study of Norwegian English teachers found similar results. Bakken and Lund (2018) interviewed 18 English teachers from six lower secondary schools and observed some of their English lessons. They asked about the teachers' choices of texts for reading, their approaches, and their justification for these choices. Their findings confirmed a textbook-driven approach to EFL teaching and indicated that teachers rarely incorporate texts from sources other than the textbook. Many of the teachers also regarded texts as starting points for oral and written work and vocabulary input. They therefore rarely focused on reading for reading's sake.

These studies suggest that even though some teachers report dissatisfaction with the quality of textbooks, Norwegian English teachers utilize few other reading materials in their classrooms (see also Drew et al., 2007; Vignjevic, 2012). Still, Olaussen (2018) found in her study that pleasure reading and learners' interests influenced teachers' literature selections, and especially the selections of novice teachers. This could suggest that ER is a bigger focus among newly educated teachers. Moreover, research regarding Norwegian English teachers' perspectives on ER have been given limited attention. The studies that have been carried out suggest that Norwegian English teachers believe ER is beneficial for language acquisition (e.g., Hjorteland, 2017; Skjæveland, 2020); however, more research on the field is needed. Based on the available research on reading and ER in Norway, we hypothesize that few Norwegian English teachers implement ER to a great extent in their teaching practices, either due to limited knowledge of ER or negative attitudes towards it.

Our personal interest in the field comes from our shared love of reading and wish to implement ER in our future classrooms. We experienced little enthusiasm for reading among our own teachers in primary and lower secondary school, and this sparked our desire to study whether Norwegian English teachers today use ER for language learning – and if not, why not? Additionally, over the last few years, a new subject curriculum has been implemented in Norwegian schools (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019). The consequences of implementing LK20, as for any new curriculum, is change in teachers' practices. The school system in Norway has also undergone a digital revolution. Many schools now rely on digital textbooks and resources, and most pupils have their own computer or iPad. The internet provides an endless number of resources, and the library is no longer the only source for books. These changes might have had an effect on teachers' practices. Therefore, to shed light on the current situation, more research on ER in Norwegian English language classrooms is needed.

Previous studies on ER in English classrooms in Norway have generally focused on whether teachers use it, what texts they use, and whether it is effective. Some studies have approached teachers' attitudes toward ER as well, but these have neither explicitly mentioned attitudes nor ER, using other terminologies instead (e.g., Hjorteland, 2017; Naqvi, 2022; Skjæveland, 2020). In our study, we aimed to investigate Norwegian grade 5-10 English teachers' knowledge of, experiences with, and attitudes towards ER, thus contributing to filling a gap in the ER research field. Since a person's cognition and attitudes guide the choices they make (Borg, 2003, pp. 81-82; Garrett, 2010, p. 23), this research could contribute to a better understanding of why ER is not used widely in Norwegian EFL classrooms. Barnard and Burns (2012) also express that course-book writers,

methodological experts, and officials of ministries of education should take teachers' beliefs and knowledge about language teaching into account in order to successfully realize the intended curriculum (p. 2). By exploring teachers' knowledge and attitudes toward ER, our research could contribute to this field as well.

The research questions we aimed to answer were as follows:

- How do EFL teachers in Norway define ER and what is their knowledge of it?
- How do they implement ER and what are their experiences with this?
- What are their attitudes toward ER?

To answer our research questions, we conducted nine individual semi-structured interviews with practicing English teachers and analyzed their answers. The questions regarded their knowledge of ER and its benefits, whether they implemented it and how, and how they regarded it.

The following thesis is structured as follows: it begins with a theory and background section introducing relevant theoretical frameworks and previous empirical research. This section includes the notion of cognition and attitudes and how these are related to classroom practices. It also presents the input hypothesis, a definition of ER, previous empirical research on the benefits and limitations of ER, theories regarding how to conduct a successful ER program, ER's relevance to the national curriculum for English in Norway, and empirical research on teachers attitudes toward ER. Next, the thesis will outline our methods, including limitations and ethical considerations. After this, we present our results and discuss them in light of the theory and background section. Finally, we conclude with key findings from our study and recommendations for further research.

2 Theory and background

In this chapter, we will present the theory used to analyze the gathered data and the background for our project. Specific elaborations of the data analysis will be provided in section 3.4.2. First, we explain teacher cognition and attitudes, and how these influence classroom practices. Second, we provide a brief history of the shifts in language teaching epistemologies that influenced the arrival of ER. This includes an overview of Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis. Finally, we examine ER as an approach to reading in the EFL classroom today. This part includes ER and its benefits, a presentation of how one might conduct a successful ER program, an examination of the relation between ER and the Norwegian curriculum (LK20), research regarding international and Norwegian teachers' attitudes toward ER, and an exploration of reasons teachers might have for not using ER.

2.1 Cognition, attitudes, and how these shape teaching practices

To explain the importance of investigating teachers' thoughts and beliefs about their practice, we turn to cognitive psychology. We will first provide a definition of cognition and explain the focus of cognitive psychology, before elaborating on how this influences teachers' practices. Then, we will explain the nature of attitudes and how this influences teachers' practices as well.

2.1.1 Teacher cognition

Cognition is a well-established term as it is one of six perspectives in modern scientific psychology (Håkonsen, 2009). It is well-known and has been used in numerous contexts, including applied linguistics (Borg, 2003). Existing definitions vary somewhat, although they often refer to cognition as mental processes. For Example, Hornby (2010) defines cognition as "the process by which knowledge and understanding is developed in the mind" (p. 285), while Matlin (2005) gives a more concrete and detailed definition, saying that "[c]ognition, or mental activity, describes the acquisition, storage, transformation, and use of knowledge." She goes on to say that "[…] cognition must include a wide range of mental processes, given that it operates every time you acquire some information, place it in storage, transform that information, and use it" (p. 2). In this thesis, we will use Matlin's (2005) definition of the term.

The cognitive perspective in psychology emphasizes people's knowledge (Matlin, 2005, p. 3) and is especially concerned with trying to understand the mental processes behind people's actions and

behavior. To be able to understand human behavior, one must first understand how people process, interpret, and give meaning to the world around them. Based on these mental processes, it is possible to explain different sides of human behavior (Håkonsen, 2009, p. 25). Therefore, understanding how our informants think and believe can help us understand why they behave in certain ways.

Many scholars have investigated teachers' cognition concerning different aspects of their work, and Borg, for instance, has several collections of research especially regarding language teachers and their cognition (2003; 2009; 2012). Borg (2009) has also noted that this research field has experienced rapid growth since the mid-1990s (p. 1). Teacher cognition is in essence the same as cognition in general. The term is only distinct in that it identifies the subject, and therefore involves teachers' mental processes. Based on Matlin's (2005) definition (p. 3), teacher cognition can be said to involve teachers' acquirement, storage, transformation, and use of knowledge. Simon Borg (2003) has worked several years with teacher cognition and has devised his own definition of the term, which is a somewhat simplified version of Matlin's. He explains teacher cognition as "the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching - what teachers know, believe, and think" (p. 81).

In the educational context, teachers' knowledge concerning their own practices is of most interest, and cognitive psychology emphasizes that thoughts and knowledge influence the choices we make (Håkonsen, 2009, p. 25). However, in their professional work, teachers are often obligated to act in certain ways regardless of their thoughts and beliefs. Borg (2003) nevertheless points out that teacher cognition plays a vital role in teachers' professional lives (p. 81). Teachers have a great deal of autonomy since they themselves to a certain extent decide what to do in the classroom. Teachers are, as Barnard and Burns (2012) say, "the executive decision-makers of the curriculum" (p. 2) Therefore, teachers are more or less free to act as they believe best in their professional lives, as long as they realize the curriculum. A teacher's cognition can therefore have great impact on their practices. Barnard and Burns (2012) go so far as to say that "the management, motivation and sustainability of learning can be understood only by exploring what teachers believe and do in their specific working contexts" (p. 2).

In his paper, Borg (2003) presents a figure (figure 1) from his earlier unpublished work (Borg, 1997) that explains the connection between teacher cognition and schooling, professional coursework, contextual factors, and classroom practice (p. 82). Borg's work focuses on language teachers especially and the cognitive aspect of their profession. Figure 1 illustrates how the four factors influence teachers' cognition, including both their professional education and their

experiences in the classroom. Even though other sources of influence can be found in a teacher's life (Barnard & Burns, 2012, pp. 2-3), Borg's four categories are the influences connected to the teacher's professional life.

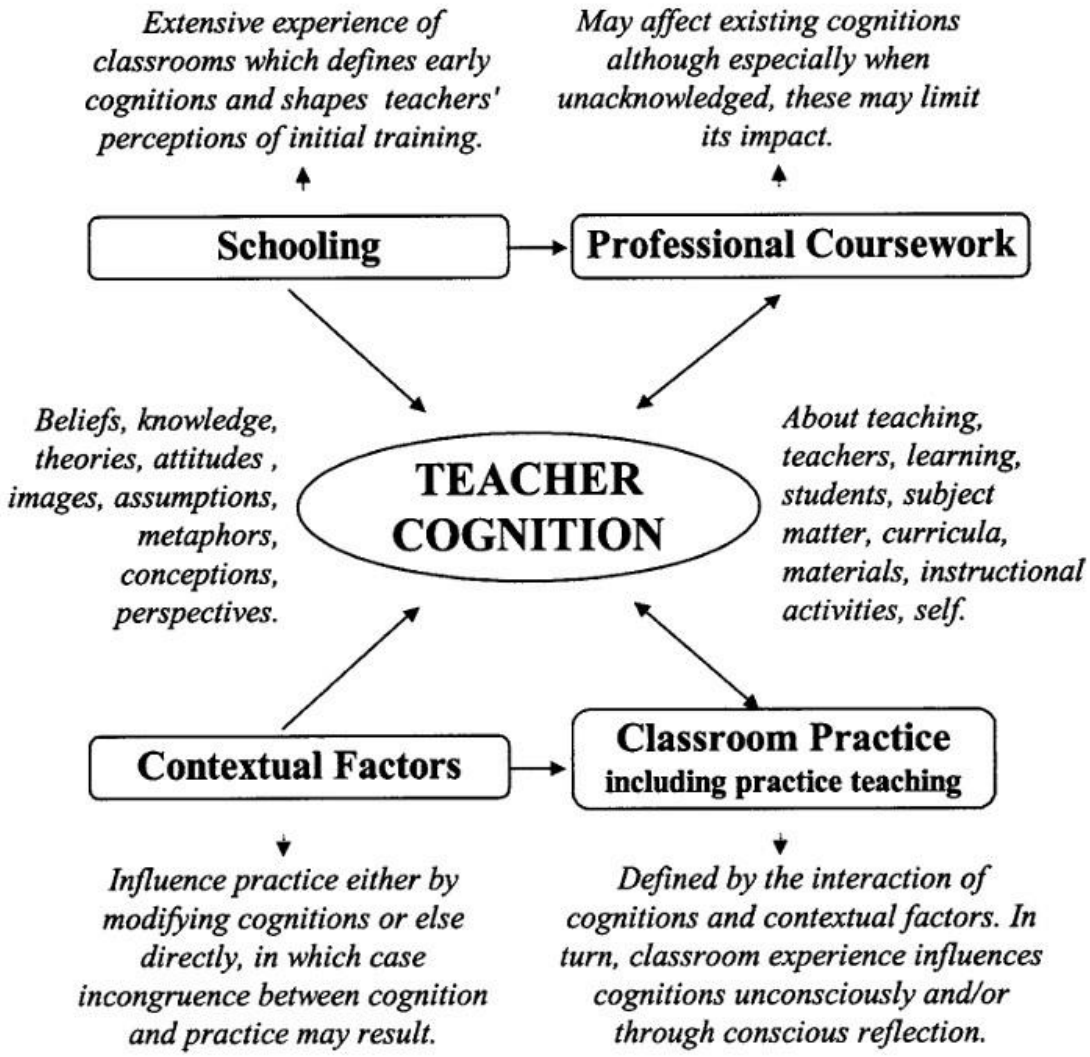

Figure 1: *Teacher cognition, schooling, professional education, and classroom practice* (Borg, 1997, as cited in Borg, 2003, p. 82)

As seen on Borg's figure, beliefs, knowledge, attitudes, assumptions, conceptions, and perspectives are all part of a teacher's cognition, and the connection between these and classroom practices are of most interest in our study. The arrow between *teacher cognition* and *classroom practice* has a double arrowhead, pointing to both boxes. This indicates that classroom practices do not only influence teacher cognition, but teacher cognition influences classroom practices as well. What teachers think and believe about different classroom practices will therefore influence if and how they use various activities. As mentioned, Håkonsen (2009) communicates that in order to understand peoples' choices, one must first understand their mental processes (p. 25). Therefore,

our thesis focuses on understanding teachers' mental processes, so as to gain a more thorough understanding of their choices in the classroom.

Cognitive psychology validates our research as it explains how peoples' thoughts and beliefs greatly influence their actions and behavior. This is also true for teachers. Therefore, teachers' thoughts and knowledge about, and attitudes towards, a part of their practice can shed light on their use of that particular practice. As teachers are the main decision makers in the classroom, their cognition is highly relevant in deciding what will happen in the classroom. Borg (2009) announced that "[c]oupled with insights from the field of psychology which have shown how knowledge and beliefs exert a strong influence on human action, this recognition has suggested that understanding teacher cognition is central to the process of understanding teaching" (p. 1). Based on this, we intend to investigate the knowledge our informants have of ER and how they state that they use this knowledge in their classroom practices.

2.1.2 Attitudes

Through the description and explanation of cognition, one can see that this aspect is built up of different parts. One of the elements of cognition emphasized by Borg's (2003) figure is *attitudes*. Attitudes are positionings within different people that guides their evaluation of an object of some sort, for instance a language (Garrett, 2010, p. 20). This is also conveyed by Oppenheim (1982), as predispositions one has towards an issue or topic that affects how one feels about it, how it is perceived and noticed, and how one reacts to it. Attitudes originate within a person's brain, and only parts of it are visibly expressed (p. 39). When seeing ER in relation to these definitions, our informants' evaluation of, definition of, and feelings toward the concept will, in parts, express their attitude towards it.

Figure 1 demonstrates that both knowledge and beliefs are parts of a teacher's cognition, along with assumptions, perceptions, theories, and conceptions, which is synonymous with both opinions and beliefs. Oppenheim (1982) specifies that attitudes express themselves through beliefs and opinions, in addition to verbal statements, ideas, emotions, stereotypes, reactions, and behavior (p. 39). Wyer and Albarracín (2005) also communicate this by commenting on how the cognitive component of attitudes is composed of beliefs and opinions, thus showing that they are both elements of attitudes by definition (p. 277). This makes it apparent that attitudes and cognition are not only connected but built up of several equivalent aspects.

Garrett (2010) suggests that attitudes are often linked to cognition, affect, and behavior. They are cognitive because they relate to a person's beliefs and knowledge about the world and evaluations of social objects; they are affective because they involve the person's feelings about the object and the extent to which the person regards the object positively or negatively; and they are behavioral because they influence the person's tendency to act in certain ways that are, more often than not, consistent with their cognitive and affective judgements (p. 23). Through this, one can again see that several of the elements that make up cognition (figure 1), also make up attitudes.

This multi-dimensional theory (cognition, affect, and behavior) is not, however, exempt from critique. Garrett (2010) conveys that these terms cannot be equated to attitudes, but rather merely be seen as triggers or causes of them. For example, a feeling can bring to mind an attitude, or an attitude can trigger an emotional reaction (p. 23). Thus, the three aspects can be seen as having a relation to, but not being the same as, attitudes. Additionally, one cannot expect them to consistently be in accordance with each other (p. 24; See also Erwin, 2001; Oppenheim, 1982). As an illustration, a teacher could have knowledge of all the positive aspects of a concept (cognition) and still not implement it in their practice (behavior). Still, Erwin (2001) refers to this multi-dimensional theory as perhaps the most famous definition of attitudes (p. 5), which is why we will use it as our definition as well. Additionally, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) found a connection between attitudes and behavior. They communicate that people consider the implications of their actions before performing them and write that if a person believes some type of behavior will lead to positive outcomes, they hold a favorable attitude towards performing it and the opposite. Though they write that an attitude will not always be in perfect correspondence with behavior, a person will, without unforeseen hinderances, usually act in accordance with it (pp. 5-7). Seeing this in relation to what Borg (2003) and Barnard and Burns (2012) said about the teacher's role in the classroom, attitudes, as cognition, can have a prominent impact on teachers' practices.

In his book *Attitudes and persuasion*, Phil Erwin (2001) writes that the mentioned multi-dimensional theory is that of Gordon Allport's, which is presented in the *Handbook of social psychology* from 1954. Here, attitudes are defined as "A learned predisposition to think, feel and behave toward a person (or object) in a particular way." (p. 5).[1] To this definition, Erwin (2001) comments that the emphasis on *learned* conveys that attitudes are socially constructed, meaning

[1] We were unable to find the precise quote in the edition we acquired of the book containing Allport's chapter; however, Erwin attributes this quote to Allport.

they are the results of experience (p. 5). Thus, one can again see the correspondence between cognition and attitudes. Cognition refers to the acquisition, storage, transformation, and usage of knowledge, which are all necessary for a disposition to be learned. Erwin (2001) also reflects on the word *predisposition*, since this indicates that attitudes pre-exist the object it is connected to (p. 5). For instance, if a teacher has a negative attitude toward ER before trying it out, that person would have a negative bias toward it and perhaps see only the challenges of implementation and none of the benefits. Lastly, Erwin (2001) writes that when we have positive feelings toward something (affect) we tend to think favorably about it (cognition) and are therefore likely to seek an interaction with it (behavior) (p. 6). This could suggest that if our informants have positive feelings, opinions and beliefs about ER, they will regard it and talk about it favorably and perhaps be more likely to use it in their teaching practice.

Garrett (2010) also mentions that attitudes can be affected both by input and output. He for instance writes that success can create more positive attitudes, and that personal experiences and social environment are important factors for attitudes (pp. 21-22). In this way, teachers who have had success with ER may have more positive attitudes toward it than teachers who have had negative experiences with the concept. Additionally, teachers in environments that appreciate ER as a resource for language acquisition, might also have more positive attitudes. As such, we can see that a person's attitude towards a concept is affected both by their own experiences and the environment and people around them.

Since an attitude is a psychological construct, it cannot be observed directly (Oppenheim, 1982, p. 39). To distinguish it, we must therefore rely on the elements that can be conveyed and analyzed. In addition to the items Oppenheim (1982) lists; beliefs, opinions, verbal statements, ideas, and emotions (p. 39), and the knowledge the informants have of ER, Fabrigar et al. (2005) conveys a way to measure attitudes. This includes how the informant evaluates the object of consideration. The evaluative property of attitudes refers to how favorably or unfavorably a person feels toward the object, and their thoughts and beliefs about the positive or negative outcomes related to it (p. 20-21). In terms of our research, this could be presented through whether the informants think of ER as a resource for language acquisition and whether the benefits of using it outweigh the challenges.

Considering all of this in relation to ER in Norwegian English classrooms, we will examine the beliefs and opinions Norwegian English teachers have about ER, their knowledge of it, and whether they regard it as favorable or unfavorable for language learning. Additionally, we will make inquiries about the degree to which they make use of ER in their instruction. Even though attitudes

and behavior are not always in accordance, the connection between them is undeniable. Researching teachers' attitudes cannot fully dictate their behavior, but it can provide insights into their thoughts and knowledge, and the behavior that would occur with the absence of challenges. Thus, challenges teachers face with implementing ER is a topic worth looking into as well.

2.2 Shifts in language teaching epistemologies

This section includes a brief historical background for ER, starting with the shift from direct instruction methods to communicative language teaching methods. We will additionally present Krashen's input hypothesis and explain its significance to ER.

2.2.1 Communicative language teaching

In the nineteenth century classroom, the most common approach to foreign language teaching was the direct instruction method (Titone, 1968, p. 27). This method was "based on the belief that grammar could be learned through direct instruction and through a methodology that made much use of repetitive practice and drilling" (Richards, 2006, p. 6). Krashen (2004) explains that this method is constructed of two processes: skill-building and error correction. The pupils were to learn rules of grammar, meaning of words, and spelling before making these automatic through repeated practice. When errors were pointed out to them, the pupils were expected to adjust their conscious knowledge accordingly. Krashen (2004) argues that this method is inefficient to development literacy, as language is too complex to be learned one rule at a time. He also argues that literacy development can occur without formal instruction and that the impact of the direct instruction method is usually small. Additionally, studies have shown that their effect sometimes disappear over time (p. 18).

A reaction to the direct instruction method started spreading in the 1970s and the focus in language teaching shifted from grammatical competence to communicative competence. A methodology called *communicative language teaching* (CLT) soon gained popularity. CLT did not focus on perfecting grammar and vocabulary, but on the purposes of acquiring the language, the setting where it would be used, and the communicative events the learner would participate in. The new approach also demanded new teaching methodologies. The argument was that a language, including grammar, is learned implicitly through communicating in the target language, and learners should therefore be given opportunities for real communication. (Richards, 2006, pp. 9-13). Implicit acquisition in the language learning context means attaining language knowledge "without being

aware of attending to the specific information that is learned" (Grabe, 2009, p. 60). Grabe (2009) also points out that implicit acquisition relies on extensive amounts of input. In their book *The Natural Approach*, Krashen and Terrell (1983/1998) explain a related approach: *the natural approach*. They explain that reading is not necessary to the natural approach, as it is designed to enable a pupil to reach an acceptable level of oral communication. They argue, however, that reading can serve as an important source of comprehensible input and therefore significantly contribute to pupils' overall proficiency (p. 131).

2.2.2 The input hypothesis

Stephen Krashen is an influential linguist within the natural approach. He has investigated the way we acquire language and found five different hypotheses that create the foundation for the theory of second-language acquisition he explains in his book *The input hypothesis: issues and implications* (1985). Though the input hypothesis is of most importance, *the natural order hypothesis* and *the affective filter hypothesis* also contribute to providing a framework for ER in language education. In this section we will present these hypotheses in addition to some issues with and counter arguments against this theory.

Krashen (1982) distinguishes between implicit acquisition and explicit learning. He explains that implicit language acquisition is a subconscious process where the acquirer is only aware of using the language for communication. The resulting language knowledge is also subconscious as the acquirer is not specifically aware of the rules of the language, instead relying on a "feel" of correctness. Explicit learning, however, refers to learning the language through grammatical rules. Implicit acquisition describes the way first languages are acquired, and some language theorists assumed that additional languages needed to be learned explicitly (p. 10). Ellis (2008), however, conveys that second language (L2) acquisition will also come naturally as a result of receiving comprehensible L2 input (p. 120).

When acquiring a new language, the natural order hypothesis conveys that learners gain an understanding of the language's rules in a predictable order. The rules that are natural to pick up early will be acquired early, while rules that tend to come later will be acquired later. This order of acquisition is not simply determined by formal instruction. On the contrary, there is evidence that it is independent of the order the rules are taught in the language classroom (Krashen, 1985, p. 1). This suggests that learners will obtain the target language in a more or less fixed course of progression, regardless of the sequence in which they are taught by the teacher. The degree to which learners need to receive instruction regarding language rules remains a topic of debate.

Current trends, however, suggest some instruction is beneficial (Richards, 2006, pp. 9-10).

The input hypothesis states that language is acquired through comprehensible input, which means it is gained through understanding messages (Krashen, 1985, p. vii). Learners will not obtain language competence if they do not comprehend the meaning of the input, and they will not acquire this competence if the input is not slightly beyond their current level (Krashen, 1982, p. 21). For acquisition to progress, one must understand input that includes structures slightly above one's own current level of competence. Krashen (1985) explains how we use knowledge of context and the world, and previously acquired linguistic competence, to understand the unacquired grammar that is encountered in language. The terminology used to speak about this in simpler terms, is *i+1*. The i represents our current level, while i+1 symbolizes moving from the current level to the one beyond, or "[…] the next level along the natural order […]" (p. 2). Emeritus professor in applied linguistics, Paul Nation (2007), introduced *the four strands* as categories in which the activities of a language course can be classified. The first strand, *meaning-focused input*, involves learning through listening and reading and consists of several principles in line with Krashen's input hypothesis. Nation (2007) explained that only a small amount of the language the learners encounter should be unknown to them. Learners should be familiar with 95-98 % of the vocabulary, and preferably only 1-2% should be unknown (p. 3). Thus, to attain language knowledge, learners must be presented with a message at a language level slightly above their own, and they must understand the meaning of the input.

Input is an essential ingredient for language acquisition, both in first and subsequent language learning (Gaies, 1977). Nevertheless, Krashen (1985) conveys that comprehensible input is not sufficient for acquisition. This is where the affective filter hypothesis becomes apparent. The affective filter hypothesis states that learners need to be interested in, or motivated by, the content for maximum acquisition. It further states that learners' self-confidence and level of anxiety can affect their ability to learn and create mental blocks. To obtain knowledge and competence, learners must be open to input. If not, they will be unable to transfer the input to their internal language processor, and therefore will not acquire the language structures they encounter. Acquisition will occur when learners are not worried about the possibilities of failure or are so immersed in the message that they forget they are hearing or reading a different language (pp. 3-4). Krashen (1982) suggests that optimal input is so relevant and interesting that the learner indeed forgets that the text is encoded in a foreign language (p. 66). In other words, the more interested learners are in a text, the more language they implicitly acquire.

Comprehensible input may be both oral and written as the input hypothesis does not distinguish between the two (Krashen & Terrell, 1983/1998, p. 131). Krashen (1985) has, however, commented on the quality of the written input typically used in schools. He conveys that the regular practice has been to give pupils short examples of different works and jump from topic to topic based on the premise that exposure to various genres and styles is advantageous for the language learner. To this, he remarks that pupils often have a hard time reading the first few pages of a book because the story and context are new, and they are not yet acquainted with the writing style. Giving learners short and varied selections means they never receive the opportunity to move beyond the difficult start. Instead, it forces them to stay in a frustrating reading position (p. 73). This could indicate that relying heavily on intensive reading (IR) in EFL instruction might raise the pupils' affective filters rather than lower them. In addition, Krashen (1985) mentions that if pupils are presented with unfamiliar subjects, the input will not be comprehensible to them (p. 72). Thus, they need input that falls within their interests.

Krashen (1982) emphasizes that ER is a means, not just for first, but L2 acquisition (pp. 164-165). The input hypothesis has, however, received some criticism. Merrill Swain (2005), for instance, cites studies showing that while additional language learners exposed to an abundance of comprehensible input read as well as first language learners, they did not speak and write as well as those who had gone through different programs, thus raising doubts about the effectiveness of the input hypothesis. Swain (2005) argues that output, such as speaking and writing, is not simply a result of language acquisition, as Krashen suggests, but should be seen as an explicit part of the process of learning (pp. 471-472). She argues that in order to learn, learners must be placed in situations in which they encounter a gap in their linguistic knowledge and are forced to modify their output. Importantly, however, Swain (2005) does not question the overall importance of input for language acquisition. Rather, she presents her complementary hypothesis, *the output hypothesis*, in simple terms: "[…] the output hypothesis claims that the act of producing language (speaking and writing) constitutes, under certain circumstances, part of the process of second language learning." (p. 471). This suggests that comprehensible input alone cannot account for the full language acquisition of L2 learners. It is important to note that none of the critiques dismiss input altogether. Critiques of the input hypotheses rather emphasize that there are some skills which may be better developed through other means. Nevertheless, scholars agree that input plays a central role in language acquisition and should be emphasized in the classroom, especially regarding the development of reading skills (Eskey, 2005, p. 563; Nation, 2007, p. 4).

Krashen's (1985) hypotheses explain how learners acquire language. Through this we understand

that rules and structures of language are understood by learners gradually and in a relatively predictable manner that works somewhat independently from classroom instruction. Learners must receive a good amount of input that is comprehensible and at a level slightly beyond their own to acquire language, and they must be open to the input they receive. This indicates that teachers should provide pupils with a great deal of language input at an i+1 level, and work with their pupils to keep their affective filters as low as possible. All of this is naturally brought together through ER. First, different types of texts, like novels, graded readers, and comic books, are written at various language levels and can therefore be used to present each learner with a book fit for their i+1 level. When pupils continue to encounter new texts, as they should through ER, they will gain a sizable amount of input from the target language and thus progress along the natural order of language acquisition. Additionally, due to libraries and digital resources, pupils have the opportunity to read texts that interest them, which may keep their affective filters low and their minds open to the input they receive.

2.3 Extensive reading as a classroom activity

In this section, ER will be defined and explained, and empirical research showing the various learning benefits it can provide will be presented. We will also present a theory regarding how to conduct a successful ER program and examine LK20 and the indication it provides for the use of ER in Norwegian English classrooms. Finally, we will present empirical research on teachers' attitudes towards ER and a list of possible reasons teachers might have for not including it in their practices.

2.3.1 Extensive reading

ER is not a new concept, and it has had several names over time. The term *extensive reading* was first introduced in 1917 in an additional language learning context by Harold Palmer (1917/1968) who, in his book *The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages*, contrasted extensive and intensive reading. He explained that when reading intensively, every sentence is subject to scrutiny. It can therefore be considered a detailed form of reading where attention is given to both the understanding and translation of every word, as well as the grammatical units comprising the text. When reading extensively, however, the reader is not concerned by the details of the language but instead has a holistic focus (p. 137). The purpose of ER in language learning situations is to develop good reading habits, build knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and encourage a liking for

reading (Richards et al., 1992, p. 133). Therefore, ER should include reading a variety of self-chosen texts that the learner finds enjoyable and are within the learner's linguistic competence, with few, or no, follow-up tasks (Day & Bamford, 1998, pp. 7-8).

In the late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries, ER was referred to as *supplementary reading*, *abundant reading*, *book floods*, and *free-voluntary reading*, among other things (Day & Bamford, 1998, pp. 5-6; Grabe, 2009, p. 312; Krashen, 2004, p. 1). Even though ER is an old concept, its popularity has increased over the years. Research on ER was scarce before the late 1960s and early 1970s, when it experienced greater attention due to the growing popularity of CLT. From the early 1990s, the attention has grown both among researchers and teachers (Grabe, 2009, p. 312). Today, the idea of ER is well established in language teaching as one of four reading styles, the other three being IR, scanning, and skimming (Day & Bamford, 1998, p. 6), and Krashen (2004) described the concept as "one of the most powerful tools we have in language education" (p. 1).

Many scholars have argued about whether one should read extensively or intensively. Palmer (1922/1964) introduces the question himself when explaining the difference between the two, indicating a long-standing debate. He argued that by reading extensively, quantity makes up for the quality of our attention and the lack of intensity in the reading process (p. 111). In addition, pupils who have experienced much IR in their language learning might have negative associations with reading in the foreign language. In the additional language learning context, ER therefore has the ability to cure the "tendency among foreign language learners [to] always […] regard a text as an object for language studies and not as an object for factual information, literary experience or simply pleasure, joy and delight" (Simensen, 1987, p. 42).

Counter arguments for ER are also widespread. Tom Cobb (2007) executed research using corpus analysis of how much vocabulary a learner gains from reading in their L2. His results showed that it is unlikely that a reader will encounter any words beyond the 2000 most frequent often enough to learn them. As earlier vocabulary research show that a level of 3000 to 5000 words is required for reading non-specialist native materials, he concludes that ER is not enough to build a learners' vocabulary in their L2. It is important to note that these studies do not exclude ER from language learning but point out that additional instruction methods are necessary, as also mentioned in section 2.2.1. In the following section we will present empirical research showing the learning benefits ER can provide, thus presenting the advantage of including it in language education.

2.3.2 The benefits of ER

In the introduction to *The Power of Reading*, Krashen (2004) summarizes research on the field of ER that existed prior to the book's publication. The research he presents shows that ER programs are as or more effective at developing pupils' reading comprehension than traditional programs. Krashen (2004) argues that since ER is a more pleasant experience, it should be the preferred method. In addition, the studies he presents show that ER affects other aspects of language learning, such as vocabulary development, grammar, and writing. The gathered studies also indicate that longer lasting programs induce more consistently positive results; programs lasting more than one year are invariably effective (pp. 1-3). While many of the studies reviewed took place in monolingual classrooms, Krashen (2004) also comments on studies focusing on ER in second and foreign language learning. The studies he summarizes here show a consistent connection between ER in a foreign language and the mastery of grammar, writing proficiency, listening comprehension, and reading comprehension in that language (pp. 9-11). Krashen (2004) concludes the chapter by saying that the studies show "more reading results in better reading comprehension, writing style, vocabulary, spelling, and grammatical development" (p. 17).

While scholars have investigated ER among different age groups and conducted studies in various countries across the world, few studies have been conducted in Norway. ER is, however, gaining attention. Hirsch (2021) lately studied the effect of ER in Norwegian primary schools and found that ER increased pupils' motivation, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and spelling. This shows that later research on the field also indicates the same benefits of ER as summarized by Krashen (2004, see also Aka, 2019; Iwata, 2022b). For this thesis we have categorized the benefits in three groups based on the amount of available research and the most interrelated topics. The three categories are improvement in reading speed and reading comprehension, vocabulary gain, and development of writing skills and grammar proficiency. In addition, some research will be presented on the effects ER can have on further motivation for reading and learning in the target language.

2.3.2.1 Reading speed and reading comprehension

A number of studies have reported gains in either reading speed or reading comprehension, or both, through ER (e.g., Bell, 2001; Huffman, 2014; Iwahori, 2008; Iwata, 2022b; Lituanas et al., 2001; Mason & Krashen, 1997; Mo, 2021; Ota et al., 2005; Stahl & Heubach, 2016; Suk, 2017). These studies have been conducted in various countries with different age groups, and several have utilized pre- and post-tests to map their participants' gains. Some studies conducted research with

learners in primary or lower secondary school (e.g., Anderson et al., 1988; Elley & Mangubhai, 1983; Lituanas et al., 2001; Mo, 2021), while others investigated students in high schools, colleges and universities.

Two studies did not conduct pre- and post-tests but instead explored a sizeable amount of previous research on the effectiveness and impact of ER. This was done through meta-analyses and examinations of the contrasts between the pre- and post-tests of previous studies. Both explore ER's effect on reading proficiency, which Jeon and Day (2016) convey entails reading comprehension, reading rate, and vocabulary (p. 247). Nakanishi (2015) investigated 34 studies, compiling a total of 3942 participants, and found that ER undoubtedly improves pupils' reading proficiency. He also found that the longer the participants spent working with ER, the greater the effects on their reading proficiencies were. Jeon and Day (2016) explored 49 works with a total of 5919 participants and included a comparison of experimental and control groups in addition to pre-/post-tests. They found that experimental groups outperformed control groups, thus showing the supremacy of ER over intensive or traditional approaches. Both studies communicate that ER has a noteworthy effect on learners' reading speed and reading comprehension.

Studies conducting a single research project show similar results. Anderson et al. (1988), for instance, asked 155 fifth grade pupils to fill out a form containing questions about how much time they spend on different types of activities outside school. Among these were questions of how much time they spent reading different types of texts, such as books, comics, and newspapers. The study looked specifically at the correlation between the pupils' extracurricular activities and their scores on reading comprehension, vocabulary, and reading speed. The researchers found that pupils who read score significantly better on these tests, indicating that time spent reading is strongly associated with reading proficiency.

Aka (2019) found an interesting difference between the reading comprehension and linguistic gains of middle- and lower-proficiency students and higher-proficiency students. She split 405 first-year high school students into one experimental group who went through an ER program and one control group. The study lasted about one year and included pre- and post-tests of linguistic abilities and reading comprehension. Aka (2019) found that after the ER program was conducted, the students in the experimental group scored significantly higher on the post-tests than those in the control group. Additionally, when she investigated the differences between higher-proficiency students and lower- and middle-proficiency students, she found that the ER program had only a small effect for the higher-proficiency students, while it had a much larger effect for the middle- and lower-proficiency

students. This indicates that ER is beneficial for struggling learners, strengthening the argument for implementing ER in schools.

2.3.2.2 Vocabulary

Several studies that have investigated the benefits of ER on reading speed and reading comprehension have also found gains in vocabulary acquisition among their participants (e.g., Aka, 2019; Anderson et al., 1988; Hayashi, 2016; Song, 2020). For example, Iwata's (2022b) research tested the abilities of a group receiving two semesters of ER compared to an IR control group. In addition to the participants of the ER group being the only ones to significantly improve their reading rates, vocabulary pre- and post-tests showed that ER was far more efficient for building learners' receptive vocabulary. Another Korean study tested learners' reading abilities and vocabulary acquisition after a one-semester ER program (Suk, 2017). Although only 30% of the available class time was used on ER, the experimental group increased their vocabulary acquisition significantly compared to the control group, showing that one does not have to spend the entire ER program reading.

Other researchers have solely set out to explore the connection between ER and vocabulary acquisition and found positive results (e.g., Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Yamamoto, 2011; Yasuko & Kazuhiro, 2014). Cho and Krashen (1994) researched what engaging in an ER program could do for adult learners of English. Their four participants all showed clear gains in vocabulary after the end of the project as well as self-reported increased competence in speaking. In a study conducted by Pellicer-Sánchez and Schmitt (2010), vocabulary acquisition from reading an authentic novel was investigated among 20 Spanish learners of English. The results clearly showed that incidental learning of vocabulary was an outcome of ER. Matching results are found in the earlier mentioned studies, as they indicate that ER leads to greater vocabulary gain.

2.3.2.3 Writing and grammar

Reading and writing are both defined by LK20 as basic skills (Ministry of Education and Research, 2017). As they are both concerned with texts, it is natural to hypothesize and explore the connections between them. Janopoulos (1986), for instance, inspected the connection between reading for pleasure and proficiency in L2 writing. He discovered that pupils who reported frequently reading for pleasure in their free time tended to be more proficient writers in English. This implies that reading for pleasure can enhance learners' writing skills in the target language. A later study by Hafiz and Tudor (1989) sought to discover the connection between ER in the ESL classroom and writing in the target language. Their participants were 10- and 11-year-olds and their

results showed a significant improvement of writing skills for the experimental group compared to the control groups. These results demonstrate that ER programs also benefit the language acquisition of younger learners, compared to many other studies conducted with university students (e.g., Mason & Krashen, 1997; Park, 2016; Suk, 2017).

More recent studies have also exhibited a clear connection between ER and learners' writing skills. Park (2016) explored how ER improved the writing performance of 56 pupils in their L2. The pre- and post-tests showed significantly greater improvement in the writing performance of the experimental group compared to the control group. Mermelstein's (2015) study presented similar results. Even though his control group also demonstrated significant improvement, the more substantial results from the experimental group suggested that an addition of ER in pupils' education is beneficial for their writing proficiency.

Several studies have focused on the general benefits of ER and found that in addition to improvement in reading speed, vocabulary, and writing, ER can improve grammar proficiency (e.g., Aka, 2019; Aka, 2020; Elley & Mangubhai, 1983; Lee et al., 2015). The studies that have focused on grammar exclusively are fewer; nevertheless, their findings are significant. For example, in their study among 40 EFL learners in Iran, Khansir and Dehghani (2015) explicitly focused on ER's impact on learners' grammar. The participants, 15- and 16-year-olds, were instructed for forty-five days with either a traditional grammar teaching method or both grammar teaching and ER. The pre- and post-tests showed a considerable difference between the control group and the experimental group, suggesting that teaching practices that include ER can benefit learners' grammatical proficiency as well as enhance their reading and writing.

2.3.2.4 Motivation

Some researchers have pointed out the advantage of ER when it comes to motivating the learners for more reading (e.g., Birketveit et al., 2018; Hayashi, 2016; Rodrigo et al., 2014; Takase, 2007; Yamashita, 2013). Takase (2007), for instance, assessed a total of 219 Japanese high school students who partook in a one-year ER program. The participants answered a questionnaire related to their motivation, attitudes, and family's influence toward reading in English and their first language and took pre- and post-tests measuring their English proficiency. Takase (2007) pointed out that students who did not have positive reading habits in their first language experienced accomplishment and joy when they were able to finish an entire English book, and that this motivated them to read more in English (p. 12). Thus, this study indicates that providing learners with positive experiences with reading can motivate them for further reading. Another interesting

find regarding motivation comes from Yang et al.'s (2021) study on reading comprehension and reading motivation. They investigated the effect of the difficulty level of ER materials on 120 high school students of Taiwan. One group of these students read graded readers at one level below their current level (i-1), while another group read graded readers at one level above their current level (i+1). A control group following the regular curriculum was also included. The researchers found that the i+1 group produced a significantly higher rating on overall reading motivation than the control group, while the i-1 group did not surpass the control group (p. 89). This correlates with Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis and suggests that the correct level of reading materials will motivate learners to read.

Additionally, some researchers convey that ER can give pupils motivation to further study the English language subject. Iwata (2022a) investigated the influence of an ER program on motivation for studying English. 90 first-year college students answered pre- and post-questionnaires including, among other things, questions about their motivation towards learning English. Iwata (2022a) found that the ER program gave the students autonomy, competence, and relatedness, in addition to fulfillment and enjoyment, which boosted their motivation and made them realize the importance of ER for English learning. More than 3 out of 5 answered positively to the questions regarding the programs' influence on their general motivation for studying English. This shows that ER can contribute to learners' development of motivation for general English language learning, and as Drew and Sørheim (2016) argue, "[m]otivation is probably one of the most important factors determining success in a second language" (p. 21).

2.3.2.5 Summary

Research on the subject includes more benefits to gain from ER than we have incorporated in this thesis (see more in Grabe, 2009; Krashen, 2004). Regardless, we have included the areas we believe are most important for teachers when it comes to their learners' development: reading speed and reading comprehension, vocabulary, writing and grammar, and motivation. The studies reviewed show significant improvement in all four areas and implies that participating in an ER program will have numerous positive outcomes on pupils' language acquisition. Based on this, it is fair to say that "[t]he evidence for ER is simply too strong to ignore" (Renandya, 2007, p. 147).

2.3.3 A successful ER program

Including ER can be difficult for teachers who have little experience with it. Day and Bamford (1998) therefore provide a list of 10 characteristics of a successful ER program to make it easier for

teachers to make use of the activity. The following list contains a presentation and explanation of Day and Bamford's (1998) ten principles.

1. The pupils should read as much as possible. There should be set aside time in school for pupils to read and they should have the ability to take books home with them to continue reading there as well (p. 7).
2. A variety of materials and topics should be available to the pupils. They should have the opportunity to encounter different types of texts about many different topics to reflect the variety that exists in literature (p. 8).
3. The pupils should be able to choose their own reading materials from among the available texts. They should also have the freedom to stop reading a book and switch to a new one if the selected copy does not interest them (p. 8).
4. An ER program should either be related to pleasure, information, or general understanding. This means that the teacher should not make the pupils focus intensively on grammar or vocabulary while reading, but rather encourage them to follow the story the text is providing (p. 8).
5. Reading should be its own reward. Pupils should be given few, or preferably no, follow-up tasks or exercises after reading (p. 8).
6. The reading materials should be within the pupils' linguistic competence in terms of vocabulary and grammar. Having to stop multiple times during their reading to figure out the meaning of words would hinder both their reading experience and their learning. Children's books or graded readers are therefore preferable (p. 8).
7. Reading should be an individual and silent activity. The pupils should be able to read at their own pace and not be pressured to follow a greater reading speed than they are comfortable with (p. 8).
8. The pupils' reading speed should be faster than when reading intensively, as they should be reading materials they find enjoyable and understandable (p. 8).
9. The teacher should explain the goals of the program and guide the pupils in their reading process by explaining how they should read. In this way the pupils would become aware of and practice this way of reading (p. 8).
10. The teacher should be a role model for the pupils and therefore be an active member of the ER program (p. 8).

This list of characteristics of a successful ER program is detailed and can seem to some teachers as impossible to completely fulfil. There may be situations where teachers for different reasons ignore

some of the principles. However, as these are principles of a successful ER program, it could be discussed whether a lack of fulfilment will lead to a less successful program where pupils learn less from the experience. A discussion could also be raised regarding how many of these principles can be absent for the programs to still be recognized as an ER program. This list will be used as a basis for our analysis and discussion of the questions relating to the teachers' experiences with ER, which we elaborate on further in section 3.4.2.

2.3.4 The national curriculum

There are several educational policy documents that English teachers in Norway are expected to follow. Of these, LK20 is of most relevance for our study since it applies to all primary and secondary education in Norway and contains subject specific goals and aims teachers are expected to achieve. Evidently, these goals and aims thus guide and influence teachers' practices in their classrooms.

ER is not mentioned explicitly in the English subject curriculum, but there are nonetheless several points indicating its use. The *Core elements* of the English subject curriculum explicitly state that "[l]anguage learning takes place in the encounter with texts in English" and *working with texts in English* is a main element of the subject (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019). The Ministry of Education and Research (2019) defines reading in English as "understanding and reflecting on the content of various types of texts on paper and on screen, and contributing to reading pleasure and language acquisition." The curriculum states here that reading in the English subject has two purposes: language learning and reading for pleasure. By reading different texts in the English language, pupils will attain more knowledge about the language and therefore become more advanced language users. In addition to building pupils' language skills, reading should be used to enhance pupils' pleasure of reading and interest in various types of texts. Since reading for pleasure is one of the main purposes of ER (Day & Bamford, 1998, p. 8), the wording of the curriculum implies that ER should have a place in the English subject.

The learning aims listed in each subject curriculum likely influence teachers' practices to a greater extent than the general curriculum. In the English curriculum, reading is mentioned in several competence aims at all levels, thereby making it a considerable part of the English subject. Reading different types of texts is mentioned in competence aims after year 7 and 10, which state that pupils should read various types of texts, including self-chosen texts (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019). In addition to mentioning reading in general, these competence aims highlight the importance of variety in text types. The competence aims explicitly mention self-chosen texts as

reading materials for pupils, which is one of the ER principles Day and Bamford (1998) present (p. 8). Krashen (2004) also points out the importance of reading enjoyable books (p. 1). One specific competence aim for year 7 states that pupils should be able to "read and listen to English-language factual texts and literature for children and young people and write and talk about the content" (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019). An equivalent aim for year 10 states that pupils should be able to "read, interpret and reflect on English-language fiction, including young people's literature" (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019). Both mention children's and young adult fiction as reading materials for learners, but ER is not limited to these, as the pupils should be able to choose their own reading materials (Day & Bamford, 1998, p. 8). However, many children and teenagers find these materials more enjoyable. Fictional texts are also often considered longer texts, indicating that pupils should read for a longer period of time, which is the case with ER.

Even though ER is implied in LK20, a question remains regarding how much time should be spent on it. Nation (2007) presents an answer in his four strands for activities in a language course, which were introduced in section 2.2.2. He categorizes activities as *meaning-focused input*, *meaning-focused output*, *language-focused learning*, and *fluency development*. (pp. 2-8). Nation (2015) conveyed that ER makes up around half of the first strand, learning through comprehensible reading input, and one quarter of the fourth, learning through fluency development in reading, and should thus make up about one quarter of any language learning program (pp. 138-139). In LK20, the number of hours allotted to the English subject is 228 for years 5-7 and 222 for years 8-10 (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019). Based on Nation (2007) and the four strands he presented (pp. 2-8), this would result in an approximate total of 43 hours to be used on ER for 5-7th grade and 42 hours for 8-10th grade. However, reading extensively can also be done at home, making it possible to utilize some of this time in other ways.

2.3.5 Teachers' attitudes towards ER

Research and theory on teacher cognition, as presented in section 2.1.1, has looked at the relationship between the mental constructs, such as thoughts, beliefs, and opinions, and what teachers do in their language teaching classrooms (Borg, 2003, p. 81). As we explained in section 2.1.2 teachers' attitudes are part of their cognition and can therefore determine their choices and decisions. It is important to investigate this aspect of the educational system to understand what is being done in the classrooms, and why. Thus, in this section we explore previous research on teachers' attitudes toward ER.

2.3.5.1 International studies

Research on teachers' attitudes towards ER is a less covered field than the several benefits to be gained from the activity. Nevertheless, several studies have been conducted throughout the world, shedding light on the matter. Generally, there seems to be a belief among most teachers that ER is beneficial. However, this does not mean that they incorporate it into their classroom practices. A study done by Haider and Akhter (2012) in Bangladesh with 100 English teachers, found that even though the teachers expressed positive beliefs and attitudes towards ER, their classroom practices mostly encouraged IR, leaving little room for ER. This might indicate that ER is less valued than other classroom practices. Some evidence of this was found in a survey given to 78 teachers in two large Saudi universities about their beliefs regarding reading instruction in EFL. Among the 81 questions in the survey were questions concerning overarching skills, one of such being ER, that the pupils should learn regardless of the instruction method used. Results of this study showed that the teachers valued most of the skills; however, ER and reading fluency were not prioritized (Althewini, 2016). This might indicate that even though teachers view ER as a method for language learning, other methods, activities, and skills are deemed more important.

Asia seems to be a stronghold for EFL and ESL research, and numerous studies can be found on the topic of ER. A quantity of research from this continent also addresses teachers' thoughts and beliefs about ER as a classroom practice. In 2017, Chang and Renandya gathered answers from 119 Asian teachers about their attitudes towards the concept. They found that most of the respondents had a positive view on the benefits of ER, but that many also reported numerous difficulties with implementation. This seemed to be a recurring find among the research available (e.g., Aghar et al., 2022; Wulyani et al., 2022). In Vietnam, a study done among 112 teachers from a variety of teaching institutions showed a high consensus about the value of ER. Many of the teachers reported their desire to try out ER but were hindered due to structural issues such as time, lack of resources, and curriculum (Waring & Hoài, 2020). In a Taiwanese study by Huang (2015), the teachers declared that implementing an ER program was difficult due to an exam-oriented system and the pressure of finishing the syllabus in time. Another study, conducted in Indonesia, included answers to a survey from 32 English teachers from senior high schools, as well as some in-depth interviews based on the survey answers (Firda et al., 2018). This study concluded that Indonesian teachers tended to have positive attitudes towards ER, they knew what it was, and were aware of the several benefits that can be gained from it. Despite the positive perceptions, however, they seemed hesitant to implement ER programs. Their reasons for this were, among other things, time management, lack of reading resources, the curriculum, and the need for learning assessment. (Firda et al., 2018).

These studies have a slightly different implication than the others. They seem to suggest that teachers do see the value of ER as a classroom practice but that several factors in their situations and responsibilities hinder them from using it in their practices.

The research outside of Asia is somewhat limited; however, there is much insight to be gained from these regions as well. Macalister (2010) conducted an interesting study in New Zealand among 36 teachers in higher education, investigating their attitudes towards ER and their knowledge of the concept. The study shed light on many aspects of teachers' perceptions of and experience with ER. In line with the other research on the field, the teachers displayed positive attitudes towards the theoretical aspect of ER. The majority of the respondents claimed to know what ER was and had positive beliefs about its learning benefits. Despite this, few claimed to have knowledge of research on the field, and the number of teachers who could identify such research were even smaller. Almost all the participants reported encouraging their pupils to read on their free time, but despite their positive attitudes, this research reports an exclusion of ER in most of the participants' classroom practices. Several of the respondents who claimed to practice ER in class also delivered a definition of ER that was not in line with Palmer (1917/1968) or Day and Bamford (1998), but rather more closely related to the practices of IR. Similar findings were also presented in Waring and Hoài's (2020) study, where the teachers' explanations of ER did not always correspond with each other. This interesting find might suggest that despite the widespread knowledge of ER, there is no common understanding of the concept and might be misunderstandings and misinformation among EFL teachers about the nature of the activity. In Macalister's (2010) study, however, 83% of the respondents answered that they wanted to include more ER in their practices. When asked what hindered them, the answers were the need for more time and resources, the need to meet the pupils' and the curriculums' expectations, and the need for adequate assessments. These explanations correspond with the explanations given by respondents in other studies to a large extent, marking this as a trend.

Overall, the studies have found that teachers in general have positive attitudes towards ER. Yet, it may seem that even though the teachers recognize benefits of ER, they perceive several issues with implementing it, which possibly stops them from using it with their pupils. Additionally, some misunderstandings seem to exist regarding the definition of ER, indicating a lack of understanding that could also be a hindrance of its usage.

2.3.5.2 Norwegian studies

Even though the research on ER is considerable in the international field, especially in the Asian

context, there seems to be less interest on the matter in Norway. Especially in the EFL context, the available research is notably limited, both considering the benefits of ER and pupils' and teachers' perceptions of ER. It is relevant to point out that through our literature search, we have come across few studies concerning Norwegian English teachers' attitudes toward ER. Among the ones we have found, the concepts *deep reading* and *pleasure reading* are used, which are synonymous with ER, and *perceptions* and *beliefs*, which are both part of teachers' attitudes. Additionally, these studies explore their participants' experiences with ER, which contributes to the formation of their attitudes towards it. Nevertheless, there is a gap in Norwegian educational research on this topic that we aim to address with our thesis.

An interview study of Norwegian English teachers investigated five participants' practices and experiences with deep reading in lower secondary school (Skjæveland, 2020). All of these teachers reported both digital and physical reading and said they distributed texts in the form of English textbooks, though they also printed out or made other texts available on screen. Four out of five also communicated that they had organized bigger reading projects, and three of these had let their pupils choose their own books to read with their assistance. All five believed reading in general was important to cultivate writing, three thought deep reading was important for vocabulary building, and the researcher noted that none of the teachers displayed negative attitudes toward this type of reading. None found deep reading useless or a waste of time, and all seemed to enjoy working with literature and addressed the benefits of this type of reading. However, one of the teachers said there was too little time to work with deep reading properly. Some of the teachers also reported challenges with matching pupils with a text of the right level and limited access to literature, though they remarked the possibilities of digital access. On the other hand, the teachers experienced that their pupils enjoyed the reading projects the more they got used to the experience and activity. Though these teachers also reported that they make use of textbooks and shorter texts, which are often associated with IR, they seemed to use some time on ER.

Hjorteland (2017) conducted a qualitative interview and observation study regarding teacher cognition and literature teaching. She examined teachers' attitudes, beliefs, knowledge, and practices within literature teaching in English in Norway. Interviews and observations were carried out with five upper secondary school EFL teachers to explore the correlation between their attitudes, beliefs, and practices. Four of the five teachers conveyed positive attitudes toward ER and said they encouraged their learners to read extensively in order to attain language fluency and accuracy and increase literacy skills. They believed ER contained several benefits, in addition to those just stated, such as increasing motivation and autonomy. They also considered it beneficial for

learners to choose reading materials themselves based on their own interests, and found the curricular aim about reading for pleasure important. However, all five teachers appeared to utilize an intensive approach to reading, meaning they focused on language functions, textual comprehension, vocabulary, study skills, and close reading. In addition, textbooks were apparently the main reading materials employed by the teachers and they all found it challenging to motivate their learners to read. It also seemed that they found ER difficult to carry out due to a lack of class time, available resources and reading materials, and the school setting usually expecting learners to analyze and respond to texts.

In her thesis on pleasure reading, Naqvi (2022) investigated primary school teachers' perceptions and practices after the change to LK20. She interviewed five English 5-7th grade teachers and noted that research on pleasure reading in Norway is scarce. The results showed that the teachers had knowledge of pleasure reading but provided varying definitions. Two of the teachers said that there should be a focus on the joy of reading rather than having it as a task, and that the pupils should want to read instead of feeling that they have to read. Two other teachers viewed it as having intrinsic motivation to read, thinking of it as fun, and having a genuine desire to do so, while the last communicated that pleasure reading was a strategy teachers could use to facilitate a desire to read, by introducing the pupils to appealing texts. All the participants had experience with pleasure reading programs at their schools, though these were primarily in Norwegian, and recognized that their pupils' attitudes toward reading were affected by their own attitudes toward reading. The results indicate that the teachers did not prioritize reading for pleasure in their English instruction, though they reported the importance of setting aside time to read. They communicated a lack of resources available at their schools and frustration at the amount of time available, making it difficult to facilitate pleasure reading.

It is evident that the teachers of these Norwegian studies inhabit similar attitudes as the teachers in the international studies. They also face several of the same challenges with implementing ER, showing consistent experiences. However, there is still limited research in Norway compared to the international field, therefore more national research is needed.

2.3.6 Explanations for not using ER

Grabe (2009) has noted that despite the obvious attention and popularity ER has gained among language researchers, "the role of ER in classrooms around the world is remarkably small" (p. 312). Incorporating an ER program may be challenging for some teachers, and several scholars have become interested in these challenges. Over the years, academics have problematized why ER is not

incorporated more into the school system and reached similar conclusions (Day & Bamford, 1998; Grabe, 2009; Renandya et al., 2021). In one of the most recent works on this subject, Renandya et al. (2021) outline ten reasons teachers might have for not incorporating ER into their classroom practices. The list is assembled through the authors' experience as researchers and practitioners in the field of ER.

The first reason Renandya et al. (2021) list is limited time. An ER program is time consuming, especially if the pupils are to read more than one book. Finding time for ER would mean less time for the other goals of the curriculum. Feeling the demand of the curriculum, many teachers experience that they do not have time for ER (p. 12). This is a major consideration, and other researchers have acknowledged it as well. Grabe (2009) mentions lack of resources as a major reason for not incorporating ER, time being one of these (p. 312). Day and Bamford (1998) also recognize finding time in a crowded curriculum as one of the reasons for not implementing ER. Nevertheless, they contradict the notion that there is no time for ER by pointing out that finding time is a matter of priorities, and that the amount of time used on ER per week need not be immense (pp. 46-47). Additionally, several studies show that learners who read extensively have higher learning gains (e.g., Anderson et al., 1988; Elley & Mangubhai, 1983; Janopoulos, 1986;), which could indicate that the benefits outweigh the challenges.

The second reason on the list is lack of relevant reading material (Renandya et al., 2021, p. 13). This is also incorporated in the lack of resources mentioned by Grabe (2009, p. 312). Two of the characteristics of ER is that pupils should be able to choose what they want to read among a great variety of different reading materials (Day & Bamford, 1998, p. 8). However, not every school has the economy to purchase the amount of material needed. Even though the school has a library already, there is no guarantee that the library is equipped with enough books appropriate for the learners' reading level in the target language. Therefore, cost is a major consideration (p. 46). However, the schools have undertaken a digital change over the last 10 years and physical libraries are not the only solution. Cost may be reduced by getting access to digital libraries instead (Renandya et al., 2021, p. 13).

The third reason teachers might have for not implementing ER in their practices is the delayed impact of ER. Some teachers think that since there are no immediate results after employing an ER program, it is not worth using time on. They therefore abandon the idea of an ER program. ER does produce results, but it is a slow process. The results are therefore not as easy to spot, and some teachers might not be able to see them clearly (Renandya et al., 2021, pp. 13-14). Other practices

and activities produce results that are easier to pinpoint after a short period of time, which might make them more preferable to teachers who prefer seeing immediate evidence of their work.

The fourth reason Renandya et al. (2021) list is legitimacy issues. These issues incorporate how teachers think they must teach in order for a class to be successful. ER in class requires different roles, both from the teacher and from the pupils, than ordinary teaching requires. (p. 15). Day and Bamford (1998) point out that the different teacher-role required might be challenging for teachers who are used to traditional teaching methods. Pupils might also find it difficult and need time to adjust to the situation (p. 47). Grabe (2009) explains how both administrators and teachers have a vision that teachers should use their time in the classroom to teach something to the pupils. It is not possible to incorporate this vision with an ER program, leading many teachers to feel disempowered (pp. 312-313). Teachers may therefore feel that they are not doing their job as teachers if they are implementing an ER program and administrators may believe that ER is not worth spending time on as teachers are not fulfilling their traditional teaching role.

This leads us to the fifth reason on Renandya et al.'s (2021) list, which is lack of support from school leaders. Even though the school has adequate resources, teachers often need to convince the administration to prioritize money for a school library and appropriate books for the pupils to read in their L2 (p. 15). If the school leaders do not believe that the result from ER is worth the resources needed to incorporate it, convincing them otherwise is a difficult task. The lack of support for an ER program is therefore a great hindrance in accessing appropriate reading material for the pupils.

The sixth reason is limited knowledge of ER. This includes both knowledge of what ER is and how to facilitate an ER program. Even though the knowledge of ER is more available now than it has ever been, many teachers have little knowledge on the matter, and some also have misconceptions regarding its nature. Some may believe for instance that only a limited number of books are good enough for the pupils to read, such as books with high literacy value. Others believe that reading books in the L2 is only appropriate for advanced pupils (Renandya et al., 2021, p. 16). Both Grabe (2009, p. 312) and Day and Bamford (1998, p. 46) mention the understanding that reading fluency should not be given much attention until the learner has mastered the comprehension skills of the language. Day and Bamford (1998) also acknowledge the difficulty concerning the nature of the reading material. They explain how the reading material to be used in ER may be controversial as they are regarded by some to have less literary value (p. 47). The authors also address a specific misconception concerning ER. Some teachers believe that class readers, where pupils read the same book at the same time in class, is equal to ER. Class readers require far less resources and can therefore seem like a good alternative to ER. However, Day and Bamford point out that such

programs have more in common with the traditional teacher method than it has with individualized ER, and it can therefore not replace ER (pp. 47-48).

Reason seven is concerned with lack of experience with ER. Not having a personal experience with ER can often hinder teachers from implementing it as their lack of experience can make them unsure of whether an ER program will be worth the time. If they have been in an ER program themselves, however, and experienced the benefits, they are more likely to incorporate it (Renandya et al., 2021, pp. 16-17).

The eighth reason focuses on the importance of motivation for ER. Both teachers and pupils need motivation to read for the ER program to be successful. Many teachers may say that ER is not worth implementing because the pupils have no motivation for reading. However, for the pupils to gain such motivation, the teacher needs to motivate them. According to the authors, verbal motivation is not enough, and the teacher must also function as a role model in their reading process and participate in the program (Renandya et al., 2021, pp. 17-18).

The ninth reason is somewhat connected to the sixth reason concerning limited knowledge, as this problematizes the limited opportunities some teachers have regarding professional development (PD). Teachers in every school have to participate in the PD courses the school decides to take part in. However, schools with more resources available have the opportunity to participate in more PD courses than others. Therefore, teachers from urban schools with many resources may have gained knowledge of ER through such courses, while teachers from remote schools with fewer resources would not have had this opportunity. Their opportunity to learn about ER and its benefits might therefore have passed them by (Renandya et al., 2021, p. 18).

The tenth and final reason on Renandya et al.'s (2021) list is that the principles of ER are too demanding (p. 19). Here they refer to Day and Bamford's (1998) list of ten characteristics of a successful ER program that was presented in section 2.3.3. Some teachers believe that every one of these principles needs to be fulfilled in order to implement an ER program, and that the program can no longer be called ER if all of the principles are not fulfilled (Renandya et al., 2021, p. 19). For some teachers it will therefore seem impossible to implement an ER program. Day and Bamford (1998) also mention that the amount of work and organization needed to implement an ER program is a real concern (p. 46). Renandya et al. (2021), however, believe that the ten principles should not be regarded as absolute rules, but guidelines that the teachers should strive to follow if possible (p. 19). In that way, implementing an ER program will seem more achievable.

As seen by this extensive list, the reasons teachers might have for not implementing an ER program

can be varied and numerous. They range from the teachers' individual preferences concerning ER, to the school leaders' willingness to spend resources in order to gain knowledge and materials needed to implement an ER program. This list will be used as a basis for our analysis regarding the teachers' attitudes towards ER and will be elaborated more on in section 3.4.2.

2.4 Summary

Based on the available research on Norwegian teachers' practices in the EFL classroom indicating a textbook-driven practice, as presented in section 1, our hypothesis was that few English teachers in Norway use ER to a great extent in their teaching. ER in the EFL classroom is also a less researched topic in Norway, which could suggest a lack of knowledge on this area among Norwegian teachers. The abundance of research on the benefits of ER (section 2.3.2) and the theory regarding how teacher cognition and attitudes affect their teaching practices (section 2.1) suggests that teachers' knowledge about and attitudes towards ER should be researched. Additionally, there seems to exist more research on ER's effect on older learners than primary and lower secondary school pupils, which could also indicate a need for more research within these grades. Based on the presented theory and empirical research, we have decided to investigate how Norwegian English teachers define ER, what sort of experiences they have with it, and what their attitudes are toward using it, in order to expand the field of knowledge on ER and teachers' practices in the EFL classroom.

3 Methods

The aim of this study is to gain insight into the knowledge, attitudes and experiences Norwegian primary and lower secondary school English teachers have towards ER. This includes their understanding and definition of the term as well as their experiences with including ER in their teaching. Thus, it is evident that the study requires detailed data that can reflect the informants' understanding, practices, feelings, and attitudes.

A possible method for this study could be surveys. Although the survey-questions could have been phrased openly, however, the informants may not have been able to elaborate enough to communicate the entirety of their beliefs on the matter. Qualitative interviews, on the other hand, give the informant the opportunity to go in-depth and elaborate (Tjora, 2021, p. 128). Qualitative methods seek to identify, describe, and deeply understand social phenomena or how people understand these phenomena (Nyeng, 2012, p. 71). In addition, Fabrigar et al. (2005) expressed the advantages of direct methods for measuring attitudes. They write that the simplest way to unveil a person's attitude is to ask them directly (p. 21). For these reasons, interviews were chosen as the method of this study. A noteworthy disadvantage with this method, however, is that the teachers were self-reporting and that due to limited time, we were not able to observe their practices. During the interview each informant answered a question sheet to provide background information about the teachers and give us the possibility of observing trends in the data.

In the following sections the research method will be explained in detail. Throughout this explanation, the research's reliability and validity will also be discussed. A research's reliability concerns the level of consistency and credibility of the results. Essentially, it refers to whether the results can be reproduced by other researchers. Validity is concerned with whether a research method is suitable to examine the topic of the research questions (Kvale & Brinkman, 2009/2015, p. 276). This includes not only the specific instruments used to collect the data, but encompasses every aspect of the research method, including sampling, the procedure concerning both data collection and data analysis, and the concerns regarding our own involvement in the research. Validity permeates every aspect of the research process (p. 277). By critically discussing all the possible sources of error in our chosen research method, we strengthen the validity of our research (p. 279).

3.1 Research context

The study was conducted in two districts, one in the south of Norway and one in south-eastern Norway. As well as difference in location, the districts also had a difference in size. The southern district can be considered small as it has less than 10 000 citizens, while the district in south-eastern Norway has a population of more than 75 000 citizens. Based on this we categorize the second district as medium-sized. The districts also have different characteristics. The south-eastern district has a university with courses for both 5-year teacher education and further education for in-service teachers. Many schools in the district are therefore familiar with pre-service teachers and the research they conduct during their university studies. The southern district is more than 50 km from the nearest university with a teacher education program. Compared to those in the larger district, their schools have less experience with pre-service teachers, as there are fewer students who complete their teaching practicums here. The interviews were conducted from February to March 2023.

When gathering participants, we aimed to include an equal number of informants from the small and medium-sized district. During the recruitment process, however, this became difficult to achieve. Most of our contacts in the medium-sized south-eastern district answered our emails and either agreed to participate themselves or gave us the contact information of other possible informants. In the small southern district, however, few of our contacts responded to our request, resulting in little response from possible informants. A reason for this could be the distance from universities. It is likely that the teachers from the small district receive fewer requests from master's students and do not have the same experience with pre-service teachers as those in the south-eastern district. The distances from universities might also influence how important the teachers believe it is to prioritize and contribute to new research.

3.2 Participants

3.2.1 Sampling

The sampling method used in this study is non-probability sampling. This means that we have targeted a particular group of participants that does not represent the wider population (Cohen, et al., 2018, p. 217). Two of our informants were gathered using convenience sampling; that is, we chose known individuals to serve as respondents (p. 218). E-mails about participation were sent to

teachers with whom we were already familiar and who fit the requirements of the study. Further informants were gathered through the snowball method: that is, the participants identified other possible participants for the study (p. 220). In addition to the informants gathered through the convenience method, we reached out to other teachers and asked them for the names of possible participants. Some of our contacts gave us names and email addresses of possible informants, whom we then contacted. These types of sampling do not grant us the possibility to generalize our findings; however, they do make it possible to complete several interviews within a limited time scale. The choice of sampling was made to assure enough informants within a reasonable traveling distance.

3.2.2 Participants

Nine English teachers participated in our project. Originally, we interviewed 10 teachers, but after conducting the first interview we saw that more changes needed to be made to the interview guide to better answer our research question. Because these changes made the answers from the first interview difficult to compare with the remaining responses, we decided not to include it in our study. Of the remaining nine participants, seven were from the middle-sized south-eastern district, while two were from the small southern district. Three of the participants were primary school teachers from two different schools, while the other six were lower secondary school teachers who worked at five different schools. There were three male and six female participants. Each participant was given a pseudonym to anonymize them. Further information about the participants, gathered with a background questionnaire, such as their educational backgrounds, experience as teachers, and grades they were teaching at the time of the interview, will be presented in section 4.1.

3.3 Instruments

3.3.1 Interviews

We used standardized open-ended interviews for our project in order to strengthen the reliability of the research. In a standardized open-ended interview, Patton (2002) explains that the questions are determined in advance, both considering their exact wording and the sequence of the questions. Studies using standardized open-ended interviews can be sure that all respondents answer the same worded questions, which strengthens the research's reliability (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009/2015, p. 276). Comparing the answers form the different participants is then more achievable, the analysis

process more organized, and the discussion easier to follow. A standardized open-ended interview also reduces the interviewer's biases and effects on the informant (p. 349). For these reasons, we decided to use this specific instrument in our research.

We created an interview guide containing the standardized open-ended questions and followed this strictly, except for when additional follow-up questions were needed to clarify the informants' answers. An interview guide helps the interviewer stay on track and not steer the conversation onto something else as a result of the informant's answers or their relationship with the informant. The drawback of such an interview is the limited flexibility there is in customizing the interview to the informants and their circumstances. The standardized wording of the questions may limit the natural conversations in the interview and the participant's answers may be less detailed (Patton, 2002, p. 349). Despite this drawback, we considered this interview type to be the most efficient way for us to collect the data we needed. The standardized form of the questions was a strength compared to our inexperience with the interview process and helped us stay in the professional role as researchers even when interviewing informants with whom we had a prior relationship. The subject of the interviews is additionally not a matter of personal affairs, which reduces the amount of customization needed in the interviewing process.

Our interview guide was based on the prior research and theory outlined in section 2 in order to substantiate the validity of our research. Ary et al. (2019) writes that the results must reflect the construct that is supposed to be measured, and that this begins with the theory and research behind the construct (p. 97). The interview guide consists of nine questions divided into three categories with several follow up questions (See appendix 4). We decided to include several questions within each category to shed light on the aspects from different sides, to gather as much information as possible from the teachers, and to avoid brevity (Ary et al., 2019, p. 102).

The first three questions concerned the participants' knowledge of ER and how they defined the term. These questions were included as the aspect of knowledge is important both in terms of the teachers' cognition and their attitudes, as presented in section 2.1. Question four and five were designed to encourage the teachers to describe how they conduct ER and their prior experiences with this. These questions and their follow-up questions were based on Day and Bamford's (1998) list of 10 principles needed for a successful ER program (see section 2.3.3). We also wanted to examine the teachers' practices in order to investigate the behavioral factor of attitudes (Garrett, 2010, p. 23). Question six to eight touched upon the teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards ER as an activity inside and outside of the classroom, as well as the challenges they faced with

implementation. As seen in section 2.3.2, a quantity of research has focused on the benefits of ER and seen connections to learning achievement both when conducted in the classroom and at home. The teachers were asked about benefits and challenges with ER in order to examine their evaluations and beliefs about the concept, and whether they liked to work with ER in order to investigate their feelings toward it. Garrett (2010) communicates that attitudes are linked to a person's evaluation of and feelings toward an object and whether the person regards it positively or negatively (p. 20). Additionally, Oppenheim (1982) comments that attitudes concern how one feels about a topic and how it is perceived (p. 39). The last question was designed to give the informant the opportunity to elaborate on anything else they wanted to contribute to the interview.

3.3.2 Limitations of chosen instrument

Our experience with interviews was limited prior to this project, and even though we tested the interview guide beforehand and made a few adjustments, some weaknesses were discovered during the first three interviews. As mentioned in section 3.2.2, we initially had 10 informants; however, through the first interview it became apparent that the informants should receive a definition of ER before answering how they make use of it in their classroom practices. This was evident because the first informant seemed to express an uncertainty of the concept throughout the interview, which appeared to affect his answers and made the researchers uncertain of the interview process. The definition was placed after the first three questions so that the informants' own definition and understanding of ER would not be influenced by our definition, and so that they would not have to answer the following questions without being uncertain of the concept or ER. The definition we included was "Extensive reading is reading of books or other longer texts where the pupils' focus should be on the content of the text rather than the form of the language" (see Appendix 4).

During the first three interviews, we also became aware that one question should be rephrased, an element should be added to one of the sub-questions and a final elaboration question should be added at the end of the interview. Originally, the question we rephrased was "What do you feel is the biggest hindrance with conducting an ER program?" We changed this to "the biggest hinderances" in order for the teachers to be able to elaborate on their experiences and attitudes. Even though the first three participants mentioned several aspects when answering this question, it could be discussed whether they would have answered differently or elaborated more if the wording had been different in their interview. The sub-question "What does the teacher do when the pupils are reading?" was added to the main question regarding how the teachers conducted ER. The teacher being a reading role model was a specific principle of Day and Bamford's (1998) list, and

since the teachers did not mention this by themselves, we saw it necessary to include. This was added after the second interview, altering few of the interview results. Finally, we added the last question regarding whether the teachers had anything more to add because the second informant indicated that they had more to say. See appendix 4 for the full interview guide.

In connection to the changes, both the definition of ER and the need for similar interview situations were discussed. The decision to use Palmer's (1917/1968) explanation of ER was made because he contrasts ER with IR and explains that when reading extensively, the learner reads book after book without giving more than a passing attention to the lexical units (p. 137). Our presumption was that most teachers in Norway are more familiar with IR and use ER to little degree. Therefore, we wanted a definition that contrasted ER from IR. We also discussed whether all the points in Day and Bamford's (1998) list of a successful ER program should be mentioned in the definition (p. 7-8); however, Renandya et al. (2021) commented that the principles should not be absolute rules, only guidelines one should strive to follow (p. 19). We also wanted the informants to elaborate on their experiences with ER. If the definition we provided was too narrow, we feared they would give short and undetailed answers because their practices did not fit with the definition. Regarding the other changes of the interview guide, we discussed the need for similar interview situations against data that was more in line with our research questions. We concluded that securing answers that fit the purpose of the project was most important, even though this altered the interviewing process somewhat for the next informants.

3.3.3 Question sheet

Complementary to the interview guide, a short, close-ended question sheet was created. Fabrigar et al. (2005) conveys that structured measures such as this are easy for the informant to answer, easy for the researcher to analyze, and makes it possible to focus on specific aspects (pp. 21-22). This question sheet was answered as part of the interview and included 10 questions contained within one A4 paper. The function of the questions was to gain simple background information about each teacher, such as age, gender, education, professional experience, and some simple opinions and habits regarding reading. This background questionnaire was included to provide us with information that might allow us to observe trends in the data, for instance, whether newly educated teachers know more about ER than the others, or if practices differ between males and females. Similarly to the interview guide, this question sheet was tested before it was given to the informants. The sole change made after this test was creating a longer answering line for the

question regarding the teachers' educational background. The full question sheet is appended to this thesis (see appendix 3).

3.4 Procedure

3.4.1 Data collection

The interviews were individual and took 15 to 30 minutes, including answering the question sheet. All participants provided their informed consent (see appendix 2), and the interviews were conducted during the participants' working hours. We met with several of the informants in their workplace, however, four interviews were conducted through Teams. In all interviews both researchers were present, but we assigned one main interviewer. The other researcher served as a controller, checking if all the needed information was present in the informant's answers. When deciding who should take which role, we considered our relationships with the informants. One of us had stronger connections to several of the informants, which could have been a hindrance in the interviewing process. We therefore decided that this researcher should take the role of the controller. To preserve a standardized interview process, we decided to keep these roles for the duration of the project. At the beginning of each interview after introductions were made, the participants were asked to fill out the question sheet regarding background information. When the interview was conducted digitally through *Teams*, the participants were asked the questions by the main interviewer, who wrote them down on the paper. The interviews were recorded using a Dictaphone app provided by the university, and then transcribed. We decided to conduct the interviews in Norwegian since it was the first language of almost all the participants, as well as the researchers. The decision was based on the notion that people are more comfortable when talking in the language they are most proficient in. Additionally, Tsang (1998) conveys that one should communicate in the respondent's language so that they are able to fully express their thought and ideas (p. 511). Our estimate was that the answers to our interview questions would be longer and more thorough if the interview was conducted in Norwegian rather than English.

3.4.2 Data analysis

For the analysis we used an abductive approach to coding. An abductive approach is a blended approach, a mix between a deductive and an inductive approach. This means that the analysis of the empirical facts is combined with previous theory from the literature, where the theory is used as a

source of inspiration for the discovery of patterns in the data (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2018, p. 5). The theory we used as this inspiration were from Richards et al. (1992) (section 2.3.1), Day and Bamford (1998) (section 2.3.3) and Renandya et al. (2021) (section 2.3.6), as well as the research we have presented on the benefits of ER (section 2.3.2). In the coding process, we coded the data manually and separately before we compared our findings, which strengthens the reliability and validity of our research (Nyeng, 2012, p. 106).

For the first question relating to what ER is, no prior codes from the theory were used to analyze the answers. The four codes, *reading longer texts, reading over time, reading at a suitable level,* and *encouraging reading enjoyment* were derived from the material. The second question regarding the goal of ER, used Richards et al. (1992) to form the categories. They were *reading endurance*, *reading enjoyment*, and *language knowledge*. An additional code was also derived from the data, namely *reading comprehension.* From the next question on whether the teachers talk to their pupils about reading in English, the codes, *as a part of the instruction* and *in formal or informal conversations*, were derived from the data.

The sub-questions regarding the participants' implementation of ER were inspired by Day and Bamford's (1998) list on a successful ER program. Therefore, the codes were also derived from this. However, for some of the sub-questions alterations in the codes were made after the data were gathered. For the question regarding if they had ever used ER, the codes were simply *yes* and *no*. The follow up question regarding why did not have any codes from the theory, but the data provided with two main codes: *enhancing enjoyment for reading* and *enhance the pupils' skills.* The codes derived from the theory on the choice of books were *individual books* and *one collective book*. Initially the codes for the question regarding if the pupils were given any tasks related to the reading were *yes* and *no*. However, these needed to be altered to describe the data more accurately and were therefore changed into *demanding tasks* and *less demanding tasks*. Regarding the question about time used on ER, the initial codes from the theory was *short* and *long*. However, when the data was collected, more accurate codes were needed, and they were therefore changed into *less than a month* and *a month or longer*. Regarding the reading environment, the codes derived from the data was *in the classroom* or *other places*. The codes for what the teacher did while the pupils read was also derived from the theory and was categorized as *reading themselves* and *doing other things*. The teachers were also asked about their experiences with the implementation, and here the codes were derived from the data. They were *good experiences*, *the pupils like it*, *challenges with implementing* and *the pupils learn from it*.

For the question regarding the benefits of ER, codes were inspired by the presented research in section 2.3.2. The codes were therefore *reading speed and reading comprehension*, *vocabulary*, and *writing and grammar*. However, another category was derived from the gathered data and added to the existing codes, namely *pronunciation*. The categories for the question regarding the challenges of implementing ER, was inspired by Renandya et al.'s (2021) list. The original codes derived from the list were *time, access to books, little progress, the need for a more active instruction style, little support from the management, too little knowledge about ER, few experiences with ER, little motivation for reading, lack of professional development,* and *too challenging to implement.* However, we anticipated that some of these categories would not fit with the data. After gathering the data, only *time, access to books,* and *little motivation for reading* were used as main codes. However, two answers which did not fit in to the codes were categorized as *little progress* and *the need for a more active instruction style*. The codes for the questions regarding if they like working with ER and why were all derived from the data itself. The categories here were *spark enjoyment for reading, the pupils like it, the pupils learn from it,* and *the teacher likes to read.*

3.5 Limitations

One limitation of this study is our limited experience with research in general and the interview process especially. Kvale and Brinkmann (2009/2015) write that the interview can seem easy to carry out as it is closely related to daily conversations. This, however, is an illusion (p. 34). Because of our restricted experience with the interview process, the quality of the first interviews might not be as high as the last. Neither of the researchers had done a scientific interview before, and the learning curve was steep. Our behavior as researchers became more professional, and we became more consistent in following the interview guide as the process progressed.

Our results will not be generalizable since interview is a qualitative method. We are categorizing and presenting our informants' subjective perceptions and not the standard for all Norwegian English teachers. Teachers of Norway enjoy a great deal of professional autonomy, and, therefore, their didactic and pedagogical methods of achieving the aims and goals of the national curriculum might vary to a high degree. It is important to be conscious of who the informants are because this can affect how the phenomenon is measured (Frønes & Pettersen, 2021, p. 173). This means that who one asks will probably affect the data one receives. In this regard, we sought to interview a varied selection of teachers. Nevertheless, if we had interviewed different participants, we could

have acquired different results. As such, our study works as a contribution to the research field and not a representation of it.

Another aspect Frønes and Pettersen (2021) puts forth, called *social desirability bias*, is that when teachers are asked to report on their own practices, they tend to amplify and embellish the instruction practices that are pedagogically recognized (p. 174). This means that if the teachers believe that ER is important, they might report a higher use of this in their teaching practices. Additionally, Tjora (2021) communicates that the researcher must understand that the informant may express their statements based on what they believe the interviewer wants to receive information about, and that this is reinforced by the researchers visual and oral encouragements (p. 131). During the interviews, we did display a good number of oral and visual encouragements, such as smiles, nods, and affirmative sounds. Although these reactions were used to create a comfortable and natural environment, they could have affected the informants' answers and perhaps made them say more about the topics we responded positively to.

As a researcher, one is dependent on the informants' ability to answer the questions they are asked truthfully and sincerely (Svenkerud, 2021, p. 92). The limitation of this is that interviews can only give us knowledge of how people talk about different topics, but not fully account for what they actually do or why they do it (p. 93). In addition, one must keep in mind that the results will simply be a crude measure since people think and apprehend the world in complex ways. Each individual's answers must thus be mapped, and no answer must be taken for granted (Oppenheim, 1982, p. 40). These limitations together substantiate the importance of not generalizing the results or accepting everything that is said as certainties.

3.6 Ethics

The data for our research consist of recorded interviews which necessitates the need for an NSD application. The application was filled out and sent in in November 2022, and the approval was received in December 2022 (see appendix 1). In addition to describing the purpose and method of our research, the NSD application also included a copy of our interview guide and our form of consent. Our research is participant-based and therefore require informed consent from every informant (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities [NESH], 2021/2022, p. 18). Informed consent means that the participants are given sufficient information about what participation in the research would imply. This includes what type of data

will be collected and how, and for which purposes it will be used and how. Information regarding who will have access to the data and how it will be stored is also given. In addition, the information should highlight how the participants' anonymity will be guaranteed (NESH, 2021/2022, p. 19). Prior to the interviews, every informant was given a form of consent which presented them with the information they were entitled to receive as participants in our research. We made sure that we received a signed copy of this before we conducted each interview. In accordance with NESH's (2021/2022) guidelines, we also made explicit in the form how the participants' anonymity would be secured, that participation was voluntary, and that they retained the right to withdraw from the research at any time until its publication. Anonymization is a way to protect the participants' identity and integrity (NESH, 2021/2022, p. 23), and in this thesis we gave each participant a pseudonym and categorized their background information in ways that would secure their anonymity, such as non-specific geographical areas, age groups, and approximate teacher experiences.

Our sampling was done using a convenience method and a snowball method conducted through our contacts. This means that many of our informants already knew one of the researchers prior to the project. Some informants might therefore have felt an obligation to participate in the study based on our relationship with them. As a consequence of changes in employment situation for one of the researchers, some informants developed a colleague relationship with the researcher after consenting to participation. This situation could have affected their wish to participate or made it difficult for them to decline if they had changed their minds. Regardless of their relationship with the researchers, all informants were given the same declaration of consent with information about the project and their rights regarding their participation. The researchers also made sure to ask the participants if they had read the information given to them before they signed the declaration. This declaration of consent did, however, give the participants information of the topic of the interview in advance, which could have positively skewed the responses since they had the opportunity to look up ER before the interviews.

The prior relationship between the researchers and the informants might also affect the interview situation. Kvale and Brinkmann (2009/2015) point out that the knowledge produced in an interview depends upon the relationship between the interviewer and the participant. This relationship depends upon the interviewer's ability to create a safe environment where the participant can talk freely (p. 35). A prior relationship to one of the researchers may ensure that the participant feels comfortable and can talk freely. However, it can also have the opposite effect. In order to not be viewed poorly by the researcher, the participants might not be entirely truthful in their answers.

This dilemma is difficult to identify in the interviewing context. Nevertheless, measures can be made in order to minimalize the effect as much as possible. Our decision to have both researchers present in the interviews, can ensure that the participants who have a prior connection to one of the researchers might feel more comfortable when talking to someone they are familiar with. At the same time, to ensure as little negative pressure as possible on the participants, we decided that the researcher with the least close relationships to participants were to act as the main interviewer during the project.

Our research, as any research, is not objective and can therefore not be seen as the absolute truth. Any reference to our empirical data is colored by, and thus a result of, our interpretations (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2018, p. 11). Our interests in the topic can be considered as disturbances that can affect the results (Tjora, 2021, p. 279). It must therefore be taken in consideration that other interpretations of the same empirical data could have led to slightly different results. We both have a positive perspective on ER and regard it as important in education. We also entered into the data collection process with the presupposition that teachers of English in Norway either lack knowledge of ER, find it less important than IR, or do not use time on it in the classroom due to previous studies in Norway that indicate a scarce use of ER in EFL classrooms (e.g., Bakke, 2010; Bakken & Lund, 2018; Brattetveit, 2018; Charboneau, 2012; Drew et al., 2007; Olaussen, 2018; Vignjevic, 2012). This bias was one of the reasons for using a standardized open-ended interview. Relying on an interview guide would make it easier for us to stay as objective as possible in the interviewing process. To ensure that our presupposition did not show in the interview process, we went over and revised the interview guide several times and made changes accordingly. Several discussions were also conducted between the researchers prior to the interviews regarding appropriate body language and responses to the respondents' questions. Our aim was to seem interested in their answers without showing any pleasure or displeasure with their answers. Having both researchers present in the interview would also function as a regulator as we could comment on each other’s behavior after the interview was over. All these measures were conducted to make sure our own interests and engagement in the topic became as small a disturbance as possible (Tjora, 2021, p. 279).

4 Results

In this section we will present the results from our interviews. Due to length limitations, we will only include the results that are relevant to our research questions.

4.1 Question sheet

The categorized answers from the question sheet are presented in following table.

	Sarah	**Edward**	**William**	**Emily**	**Mary**	**Simon**	**Victoria**	**Jessica**	**Anne**
Age	25-30	31-35	25-30	36-40	41-45	41-45	36-40	31-35	31-35
Gender	F	M	M	F	F	M	F	F	F
Experience as teacher (years)	1-5	1-5	<1	11-15	16-20	16-20	11-15	6-10	6-10
Experience as English teacher (years)	1-5	1-5	<1	11-15	16-20	16-20	11-15	6-10	6-10
Current grade level	LS [2]	LS	P [3]	LS	P	LS	P	LS	LS
Education	T. E. [4]	Other	T. E.	Other	T. E.	T. E.	Other	T. E.	T. E.
English credits	<60	>60	>60	60	0	60	60	>60	60
ER as a topic in education	Yes	Yes	Yes	DNR [5]	No	No	DNR	No	DNR

[2] Lower secondary school

[3] Primary school

[4] Teacher education

[5] Do not remember

Reading important	Very	Very	Very	Very	Very	Very	Very	Very	Very
Reading habits	So. D. [6]	Sm. D. [7]	Sm. D.	So. D.	H. D. [8]	H. D.	So. D.	Sm. D.	So. D.
Reading in English important	SW [9]	Very	Very	Very	Very	Very	SW	Very	Very
Reading habits in English	H. D.	Sm. D.	Sm. D.	So. D.	So. D.	H. D.	So. D.	None	Sm. D.
Heard / read about ER other places	No	No * [10]	No	No *	No	No *	DNR	No *	No

4.2 Definition of ER

4.2.1 What is ER?

When asked to explain the term ER, a majority of the teachers answered that ER was about reading longer texts, reading over a longer period of time, or reading at a level suitable for the individual learner. Sarah, Edward, William and Victoria (pseudonyms) expressed that ER was about reading long texts over time. Both William and Victoria additionally added that the reading materials should be at a level fit for the pupil. Emily and Mary mentioned reading longer texts at a suitable level for

[6] To some degree

[7] To a small degree

[8] To a high degree

[9] Somewhat

[10] Looked it up before the interview

the learner in their explanations, while Simon and Jessica mentioned reading texts at a fitting level over time.

In addition to these answers, Sarah and Anne said that ER should be part of waking a desire to read, which is also the only thing Anne answered to this question. William remarked that the pupils should just read, without stopping to do exercises or activities, and Mary answered that it works best if they read something that interests them.

4.2.2 What is the goal of ER?

The teachers responded that the goal of using ER is to contribute to reading endurance, reading enjoyment, language knowledge and reading comprehension. Six teachers conveyed that reading endurance was a goal of ER by mentioning either gaining a quantity of training in reading (William, Simon, and Jessica) or being able to endure more or longer reading (Sarah, Edward, and Victoria). Sarah, Emily, Mary, Simon, and Anne said that reading enjoyment is an outcome of ER, and again this was the only answer given by Anne. Language knowledge was a goal mentioned by four, William, Emily, Mary, and Jessica, and reading comprehension by three, Edward, William, and Victoria. William also pointed out that ER can contribute to comprehension of English in general.

4.3 Experiences with ER

4.3.1 Conversations about books and reading in English

All of the informants were asked if they talk to their pupils about books and reading in English. The overall answers were confirmative. A third of the informants answered that the topic arises as a part of the instruction in the classroom. These teachers, Edward, Mary, and Jessica, referred to various lesson plans they had conducted that included reading longer texts. Three others, William, Victoria, and Anne, mentioned the topic coming up in either formal or informal conversations with individual pupils. Victoria explicitly pointed out that she uses the progress and development talk to encourage her pupils to read more in order to increase their proficiency in English, while Anne reported talking to individual pupils who had an interest for reading in passing small talk. The rest of the teachers, Sarah, Emily, and Simon commented on both talking to their pupils about reading in English as a part of their instruction and talking to individual pupils through either formal or informal conversations.

4.3.2 The implementation of ER

4.3.2.1 Have you implemented ER?

To the question of whether they had implemented ER in their teaching, Sarah, Edward, Victoria, and Anne all answered yes. Emily had already started explaining an ER program she had conducted before this question, and we therefore assumed her answer to be yes. William was the only informant who clearly answered no to this question. However, two other informants, Mary and Simon, answered negatively by saying that their reading practices might not qualify as ER. Jessica also answered vaguely, saying that she might have implemented it without knowing it was called ER.

Sarah, Emily, and Anne were all asked why they chose to implement ER as they gave, or were assumed to give, affirmative answers. Edward did not receive this question since he seemed to have already answered it and Victoria was asked why at the same time as being asked how, thereby leaving the first question unanswered. Of these, Sarah, Edward, and Emily all mentioned that they used ER to arouse an interest in reading among their pupils. Sarah and Emily also said it increases the pupils' skills in English, and Emily additionally mentioned that the pupils enjoy it. Anne's reason for using ER was so the pupils could receive a manageable task related to their work in class for their oral exams. William was the only informant who was asked why he had not implemented ER. His reason for this was that other areas were more pressing. Mary, Simon, and Jessica were not asked this follow-up question, due to an uncertainty of whether they answered that they did, or did not, implement ER.

4.3.2.2 How was ER implemented?

The questions concerning how ER was implemented was not given to William as he clearly answered that he had not implemented it. During an earlier question, however, he elaborated on a reading project where some of his pupils were reading English texts while others read in Norwegian. Even though not all of his pupils were reading in English, we still found his elaboration relevant for our project, and will therefore include it. Mary, Simon, and Jessica, on the other hand, did not have clear answers regarding whether they had implemented ER, but were still asked how they implemented it as they had already started to elaborate on various lesson plans.

The first question was concerned with the amount of time used on the ER program. All of the informants said that their pupils were given time in class to read and seven said they also got to read at home. Victoria further explained that her pupils usually read at home and that little time was used

in school. The amount of time used on the complete ER programs varied among the teachers. Sarah, Mary, and Anne reported using less than one month on their projects, respectively one week, six school hours, and two weeks. Victoria said that the time she used varied greatly depending on the books and the pupil's skill levels. She reported using everything from two to twelve weeks on her projects. Edward, Simon, and Jessica reported using more than a month on their projects, two months, four to five weeks, and ten weeks respectively. Even though Emily was given this question, her answer focused more on her experiences with her projects and not how much time was set aside for them.

The informants were also asked how the books used in their programs were selected. Sarah and Anne both described the use of class readers, which is when pupils read the same book at the same time in class (Day & Bamford, 1998, pp. 47-48) In Anne's case, the choice was based on available class sets, and she expressed that she might have chosen a different book if the school had class sets of other novels. Emily, Mary, Simon, Victoria, and Jessica both explained programs with class readers and projects using individual books. When using individual books, Emily, Mary, and Victoria expressed that the pupils chose their own book with the teachers' guidance. Jessica explained that her absence during the beginning of the project prevented her from guiding her pupils' choices, and that this resulted in a less successful project. Edward and William only spoke of projects where the pupils chose their own books, and Edward also mentioned guiding their choices, especially for his younger learners.

The sole informant who did not mention using follow-up tasks for the reading was William. The rest of the informants reported using some form of oral or written tasks, or both. Two of the informants, Emily and Edward, reported using less demanding tasks in their projects. Emily explained that reading the same book took so much time that she felt they had to do some written tasks as well; however, she did not want them to be too demanding. On the other hand, Mary, Victoria, Jessica, and Anne used more demanding tasks in their projects, such as tasks that would be assessed or grammar activities. The last two informants, Sarah and Simon, mentioned both tasks that can be classified as less demanding and tasks that can be classified as more demanding.

When asked about the reading environment, Emily, Jessica, and Anne all stated that in relation to the use of class readers, an audio version of the book was put on while the learners read the equivalent text themselves. In addition, Sarah commented earlier in her interview that her pupils sat with the book in front of them while she read aloud. All the informants except for Sarah and William were given the question regarding their own activities while the pupils were reading. One

informant, Jessica, reported using the time to read herself. Edward, Mary, Victoria, and Anne reported doing the same, but sometimes felt the need to prioritize other work instead. Emily and Simon did not report reading themselves, but instead used their time on other work or guidance of the pupils.

4.3.2.3 Experiences with implementing ER

When asked about their experiences, a majority of the informants, Emily, Mary, Simon, Victoria, Jessica, and Anne, all commented having generally good experiences with their projects. In addition, several informants commented on the projects' effect on their pupils. Sarah, Emily, Simon, Jessica, and Anne mentioned that their pupils enjoyed working this way and Edward and Victoria emphasized that their pupils' skills and knowledge grew during the projects. Five of the informants, however, mentioned challenges they had experienced in their projects. Victoria, for instance, expressed that the projects could be tiresome due to the amount of work she had to put into finding books and making lesson plans, while Simon and Edward pointed out challenges with the pupils' lack of ability to choose their own book. For Simon, the solution had been to start reading the same book with the whole class instead.

4.4 Attitudes toward ER

4.4.1 The benefits of ER

All teachers were asked what they view as the benefits of using ER in the classroom with the learners' language learning in mind. From the responses, vocabulary, grammar and writing, and general progress were the biggest categories. Seven of the teachers, Sarah, William, Emily, Simon, Victoria, Jessica, and Anne, mentioned that the pupils would learn more words through ER. All of these except Sarah and William additionally said that ER contributes to proficiency in writing and the grammatical aspects of the language. Edward, William, Mary, and Victoria gave somewhat vague responses referring to general progress in English. Mary, for instance, said, "It is very useful. […] You will have progress if you read in English."[11]

[11] «Det har stor nytte. […] Du vil ha framgang om du leser på engelsk.»

Other benefits mentioned by the informants were reading speed and reading comprehension, answered by William and Edward, and pronunciation, mentioned by William and Victoria. Simon conveyed a somewhat opposing view. He said that it is not certain pupils gain reading comprehension through ER; thus, he believed they need both extensive and intensive reading.

4.4.1.1 The benefits of ER outside the classroom

The question of what benefits ER has outside the classroom with the learners' language learning in mind was interpreted differently among the teachers. Sarah and Emily conveyed that the pupils who read at home preform significantly better in school than those who do not. William, Mary, Simon, Victoria, and Jessica all answered something similar to what they answered to the previous question, while Edward, William and Anne conveyed responses referring to a gain of life skills. For instance, they all mentioned that ER can be a benefit when it comes to travelling to other countries.

4.4.1.2 ER as homework

Eight of the nine teachers said they would give their learners ER as homework, although the degree of affirmation varied. All but William and Anne said they would give their learners written tasks to control that their pupils had done their reading homework, and Emily, Simon, Jessica, and Anne said they would give them oral tasks. Mary was the only informant that said she would not give her pupils ER as homework, since her pupils' reading homework could not be equated to ER. She explained that her pupils had to receive tasks together with their reading and that it was not simply for the sake of fun.

4.4.2 Challenges with implementing ER

The teachers experienced several challenges with implementing ER in their instruction. All but William mentioned difficulties with obtaining suitable reading materials, either due to a lack of class sets (Victoria), a poor selection of English books (Edward, Emily, Mary and Simon) or both (Sarah, Jessica and Anne) Edward, Emily, Mary, and Simon also mentioned that it is possible to access more texts online, but that this introduces different, additional challenges. Sarah, William, Emily, and Simon all communicated a shortage of time as a challenge with implementing ER. Mary, on the other hand, explicitly stated that time is something teachers have, and that it is possible to organize the instruction so that there is time for ER. Four teachers found learners' lack of motivation to read to be a challenge. Edward, Mary, Jessica, and Anne conveyed that it is difficult to motivate or engage the learners, and that many do not like to read. In addition, Victoria mentioned that there must be questions and activities connected to the book and that this takes

much work to prepare, and Emily communicated an uncertainty of whether the learners' progress could justify the use of ER.

4.4.3 Feelings toward ER

All nine teachers responded positively to the question of whether they like, or would like, to work with ER with their pupils. Their reasons for this varied, and a few of the teachers presented several arguments. Sarah, Edward, William, and Anne conveyed creating a joy for reading for the learners, Edward, Emily, Mary, and Simon said that they themselves like reading. William, Emily, and Jessica mentioned that the pupils learn through reading, and Sarah and Edward both said that they found it rewarding to see the learners' interest in reading.

5 Discussion

In this section we will discuss our findings in light of the empirical research and theory presented in section 2. First, we discuss the participants' definitions of ER. Second, we examine their use of, and experiences with ER. Third, we investigate their attitudes towards ER, and finally, provide a summary of the discussion.

5.1 Definition of ER

5.1.1 What is ER?

The teachers defined ER differently in their interviews. Some, like William and Victoria, mentioned several important factors, while others, like Anne, mentioned few. Together, however, the interviews indicate that they believe ER to be reading longer texts over longer periods of time, at a level suitable for the learner. This fits with the explanation of ER in section 2.3.1 to some extent. However, Palmer (1917/1968) defined ER as reading book after book without paying attention to the grammar or lexical units of the language (p. 137), and Day and Bamford (1998) wrote about reading an abundance of texts that are self-chosen, enjoyable, and within the learner's linguistic competence without follow-up tasks (p. 7-8). These definitions emphasize that the pupils should read self-chosen books continuously while not receiving tasks or activities related to the reading. It is unclear whether the participants' answer "reading over a longer period of time" means reading several books, or simply reading one text over a long time period. Concerning follow-up tasks, only William answered that there should not be exercises or activities in connection with ER. In addition, few of our participants mentioned self-chosen and enjoyable texts. In Hjorteland's (2017) study, all informants conveyed the importance of self-chosen reading materials, while in our study, only Mary conveyed that the pupils should read a book that interests them. Furthermore, Sarah and Anne said that ER can help wake a desire to read, which to some extent can be compared with the results from Naqvi's (2022) study, where the informants highlighted the joy of reading.

Few teachers included more than three aspects of ER, and most definitions were expressed in layman's terms. These limited definitions could indicate limited knowledge among the teachers regarding ER. On the other hand, as they were asked to define a concept in the moment, it should be taken into consideration that the teachers might have simply responded with the first thing that came to mind. It is possible that the teachers would have given expanded and more descriptive

definitions if they had more time to answer this question or if they could have provided a written answer in their own time.

Compared to the background questionnaire, the teachers' answers did not show many remarkable patterns. The teachers answered similarly despite differences in their backgrounds. Those who had ER as a topic in their education for instance, did not display a superior understanding of the term. It may be interesting to note, however, that the three teachers who mentioned covering ER in their education were teachers with zero to five years of experience, meaning that they had the most recent teacher education. This might indicate that ER has been given more attention in the teacher training program, but that in-service teachers may have had less exposure.

Our findings somewhat correlate with Macalister's (2010) study, where most of the respondents claimed to know what ER was. Since all of our informants provided a definition of the concept, it is reasonable to assume that they believe themselves to have knowledge of ER. However, we did not ask specifically whether they knew what ER was, and four informants mentioned that they looked up the term prior to the interview. This could suggest they had limited prior knowledge of ER. Macalister (2010) also found that even though the teachers claimed to have knowledge of ER, few claimed to have knowledge of research on the field. This also appears consistent with our findings. In the background questionnaire, none of our informants mentioned having read or heard about ER outside of their education. Among these, only three remembered having had the topic during their education, meaning that the other six had neither covered it in their education, nor read about it later, which again could indicate limited knowledge.

5.1.2 What is the goal of ER?

The teachers' perceptions of the goal of ER could indicate how highly they regard it and whether they believe it can be implemented to reach the goals of the curriculum. LK20 says that working with texts in English is a core element of the subject, and reading should contribute to reading pleasure and language acquisition (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019). The goals the teachers conveyed mostly aligned with both LK20 and the goals Richards et al. (1992) communicated, namely good reading habits, encouraging a liking for reading, and knowledge of vocabulary and structure (p. 133). More than half of the teachers mentioned reading enjoyment as a goal of ER, four answered language knowledge, and three brought up reading comprehension. This suggests that some of the teachers perceive ER as a source for reading pleasure and language knowledge. That two thirds of the teachers found reading endurance to be a goal of ER could indicate that they believe ER's purpose is to provide pupils with opportunities to practice reading.

While it is correct that ER provides reading opportunities, it is not mentioned as a goal in itself by Richards et al. (1992). It can be argued that reading opportunities can lead to the goals presented by Richards et al. and LK20. However, the teachers' imprecise answers indicate limited knowledge of ER. Even so, it seems that most of the participants' understandings of the goals of ER were somewhat aligned with the goals of both LK20 and Richards et al.

5.2 Experiences with ER

5.2.1 Conversations about books and reading in English

All the participants reported talking to their pupils about books and reading in English, which aligns with Hjorteland's (2017) study, where four of the five informants encouraged their pupils to read extensively, and Macalister's (2010) study, where the majority of the 36 informants reported encouraging their pupils to read in their free time. This could suggest a common practice among English teachers to encourage their pupils to read. The situations in which these conversations occur differ, however, and there seems to be a distinction between which pupils they include. A third of the participants reported addressing the topic through instruction, three others reported addressing it through personal conversations, and the rest reported undertaking both practices. The teachers who reported addressing the topic as part of their instruction appear to include all pupils. Even so, this approach might be less personal. Those who broached the topic in formal or informal conversations with individual pupils might have had more personalized conversations. However, their answers seemed to convey only addressing pupils who either liked reading or needed to increase their proficiency in English. As Krashen (1985) argues in the affective filter hypothesis, pupils may gain a mental block against learning if they are not motivated or lack self-confidence (p. 3). In order to counteract this, the teacher must encourage and motivate all pupils, for instance by talking to them about books and reading. This endorsement is something all pupils need and would possibly be more effective when personalized.

5.2.2 The implementation of ER

5.2.2.1 Have you implemented ER?

Mary, Simon, and Jessica all gave vague answers regarding how they implemented ER. On the background questionnaire, they were also the only informants who answered not having ER as a topic in their education, nor had they heard of ER elsewhere. This could imply little prior

knowledge of ER, which might have been the reason for their unclear answers. The informants who circled either "yes" or "I don't know" on the background question regarding ER in their education all reported having implemented ER themselves, except for William. William was also the only informant with less than a year of experience in the teaching profession. His limited time as an in-service teacher could be a reason for him not having implemented ER, as he has had fewer opportunities to do so. Later in his teaching career, his answer could therefore be different.

Even though the question of why, or why not, the teachers had implemented ER was not answered by more than five of the informants, there are still some interesting findings among the results. Some of the participants' answers aligned with the three purposes of ER given by Richards et al. (1992), while others did not. Richards et al. (1992) conveyed that the purpose of ER is "to develop good reading habits, to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and to encourage a liking for reading" (p. 133). In the interviews, Sarah and Emily gave answers that covered the last two points, and Edward mentioned the last point in his response. Anne's response, however, stands out compared to the rest: she responded that the books they used could become the basis for a manageable task in their oral exams. Her answer might indicate a lack of knowledge regarding ER, or a difference in beliefs about classroom practices. In the background questionnaire, Anne reported working in a secondary school. Previous research indicates that it is common for teachers above primary school to be concerned with exams and therefore base their teaching accordingly (e.g., Firda et al., 2018; Huang, 2015; Macalister, 2010; Waring & Hoài, 2020) However, Sarah, Emily, and Edward, who are also secondary school teachers, did not convey this focus. Of these teachers, Anne was the only informant from the small district. This could suggest that the secondary school teachers from the small district have a more exam-oriented focus in their teaching, while those in more urban environments have a more holistic focus. However, Jessica, the other small-town teacher in our study, did not answer this question, and it is therefore difficult to hypothesize whether this difference is due to context or simply a personal difference. Differences in attitudes toward ER between teachers in urban and rural communities could be an area for future research, in larger-scale studies than our own case study.

William, the only informant who stated he did not use ER, was the only informant who was asked "why not." He expressed that other areas of instruction were more pressing; therefore, ER was not a priority. This aligns with the results from Althewini's (2016) study, which indicated that teachers prioritize ER less than other activities and skills. In several of the international studies on teachers' attitudes towards ER, challenges with the curriculum was also a recurring topic (e.g., Firda et al., 2018; Huang, 2015; Waring & Hoài, 2020). As none of the other informants were given this

question, however, it is difficult to ascertain whether this is a common attitude. In addition, our study did not include questions regarding teachers' attitudes towards ER compared to other skills and activities, which restricts the information we have on this topic. This is an area that should be prioritized in future research on teacher attitudes.

5.2.2.2 How was ER implemented?

Our participants reported varying lengths of their ER programs. Some lasted less than a month while others lasted longer, though seemingly no longer than one semester. Additionally, the participants' answers suggest they conducted their reading programs once during each school year, reading only one book. This suggests that they might have confused ER with other types of reading, as ER should include reading a variety of self-chosen texts (Day & Bamford, 1998, p. 8). As many teachers also mentioned follow-up tasks, they are likely confusing intensive reading with extensive reading (Palmer, 1917/1968, p. 137), and it could therefore be discussed whether these programs can be considered ER programs. Moreover, studies, such as Nakanishi (2015), have found that the longer the ER programs are, the greater the learners' language acquisition becomes. This is also communicated by Krashen (2004), who stated that programs lasting more than one year show consistently positive results (p. 2). By conducting the reading programs for limited amounts of time, as conveyed through the interviews, the pupils' language acquisition may be limited. As pointed out by Renandya et al. (2021) in the list of reasons for not conducting ER, the teachers might not see the outcome of the programs and thus perceive them less beneficial than other practices (pp. 13-14).

As presented in section 2.3.4, Paul Nation (2015) conveyed how much time ER should occupy in language education, about 43 hours for 5th to 7th grade and 42 hours for 8th to 10th grade. The results from the interviews indicate that there is no evident difference between the amount of time used on ER by primary school teachers and lower secondary school teachers. Nevertheless, the time they report using is much less than what Nation (2015) conveyed should be practiced. The teachers reported projects lasting between one and twelve weeks, and several of the participants stated that their pupils read at the beginning of each lesson. Thus, if there are about two English lessons each week, the longest program would result in about 8-12 hours of reading when only taking the beginning of each lesson into account. Still, most of the teachers expressed that their learners also read at home, which should be considered. Day and Bamford (1998) stated that the pupils should read both at school and at home (p. 7). It is unlikely, however, that it amounts to the hours estimated based on Nation (2015) and LK20 (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019). Our results could therefore indicate that the teachers use much less time on ER than recommended, leading to limited language acquisition for the learners. Additionally, three informants answered that their pupils did

not read at home while one did not set aside time for reading in school. Thus, four out of nine teachers seemed not to completely fulfill Day and Bamford's (1998) first item on the list of conducting a successful ER program.

The teachers gave varied answers to how the books for their reading programs were chosen. Seven of the nine teachers had, at some point, chosen one book for the entire class to read, which aligns with Brattetveit's (2018) study, where four out of five participants assigned their pupils one novel to read during the school year. Compared to Krashen's (1982) input hypothesis, using a class reader will not ensure that all learners receive comprehensible input at an i+1 level. They will thus not efficiently acquire language. Krashen (1982) also commented that if the learners are presented with previously unknown subjects, the input will not be understandable (p. 72), and it is unlikely that one book will cover a subject known to all pupils in the class. Considering the number of answers which described a class reader in our interviews, it may seem that most of the teachers have a misconception regarding the nature of ER. Class readers does not coincide with Day and Bamford's (1998) principles regarding reading a variety of different types of texts or being able to choose one's own reading materials (p. 8), and they also point out that it cannot replace ER (pp. 47-48). Still, the use of class readers was not excluded from our definition of ER, which may have contributed to sustaining this misconception. On the other hand, five of these seven teachers, in addition to our remaining two informants, had conducted reading programs with self-chosen books. In Skjæveland's (2020) study, three out of four teachers stated using self-chosen reading material, though the choice was guided by the teacher. Several of the teachers in our study also commented on guiding their pupils in their choice of books, which could be necessary in order for the pupils to find books in their i+1 level. One of our informants also mentioned that her project was less successful because she missed the opportunity to guide the pupils' choices. The findings of our interviews and the two studies mentioned in this paragraph could indicate that even though Norwegian English teachers use self-chosen reading materials, they appear to rely more heavily on class readers and to consider the use of class readers as ER.

Bakken and Lund (2018) expressed that a majority of the 18 Norwegian English teachers in their study regarded texts as a starting point for written and oral work, which seemed to be the case for the teachers of our study as well. All but William reported using oral and/or written tasks connected to the pupils' reading. This was unsurprising as William was the only informant who defined ER as being reading without completing additional tasks. Since Day and Bamford (1998) stated that there should be few, if any, follow-up tasks and exercises (p. 8), we divided the teachers' answers into demanding and less demanding tasks, dividing the answers between those who somewhat act in

accordance with this principle and those who do not. The results showed that four teachers conducted demanding tasks, two did not, and two did both. Given that Richards et al. (1992) conveyed developing good reading habits as a purpose of ER, and that the majority of our participants mentioned reading endurance as a goal of ER, giving the pupils tasks and exercises to the reading may seem contradictory. On the other side, the competence aims after year 7 and year 10 in LK20 presented in section 2.3.4 express that the learners should read different materials, but also that they should be able to write about, talk about, interpret, and reflect on the materials they have read (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019). This may be the reason why the teachers find it natural and necessary to assign written and oral tasks to the pupils' reading. Nonetheless, given the demonstrated benefits of ER, teachers should be encouraged to combine class readers and guided reading with individualized ER programs rather than relying heavily on more intensive and uniform practices.

Day and Bamford (1998) stated that ER should be a silent and individual activity and that the pupils should not be pressured to follow a certain reading speed, but rather read at their own pace. Additionally, they declared that the teacher should be a role model and function as an active member of the ER program (p. 8). Four of our participants commented that their pupils listened to the book while reading it, following the reading speed of the audio book instead of their own. Additionally, one may assume that the three other participants who made use of class readers also did not fully implement this principle as a class reader often has a time schedule or time limit, thus somewhat hindering the pupils in following their own reading speed. On the other hand, five of the teachers did conduct individual silent reading, allowing the pupils to read at their own pace. As some teachers mentioned doing both individual reading and class reading, this may indicate that more than half of the teachers implemented the principle of silent, individual reading to some extent. Regarding the teachers' involvement in the ER program, only one informant stated that she exclusively read herself while the pupils read. However, four teachers answered that they read alongside the pupils if other tasks did not have to be prioritized. The results may therefore indicate that the principle of the teacher being a reading role model was also implemented to some extent.

Day and Bamford's (1998) list of a successful ER program can seem plentiful and difficult to completely accomplish. Rendandya et al. (2021) conveys that the ten principles should not be considered absolute rules, but rather guidelines teachers should strive to achieve (p. 19). However, the wording "successful ER program" might indicate that a majority of them must be implemented in order for the program to fully work, or that failing to implement all may result in a less successful program. A question could be raised regarding how many of the principles can be absent

before the program can no longer be called an ER program. If so, a discussion could also be raised regarding which principles are more important than others. None of the teachers in our study implemented all ten principles, and four of the informants seemed to lack half or more of the principles. Three of the teachers who reported having experience with both class readers and individual reading seemed to lack four or more principles when using a class reader. Seen in relation to the teachers' partial or erroneous definitions of ER, this could again suggest that the teachers have limited knowledge of ER and how it should be conducted. Macalister's (2010) study also found that many of the participants who claimed to practice ER in their classrooms expressed definitions of ER that were not in line with Palmer (1917/1968) or Day and Bamford (1998). However, these results could also suggest that the teachers encounter too many challenges to be able to implement all ten principles, which will be discussed further in section 5.4.2.

As stated in section 4.3.2.2, the responses of one teacher who answered that he did not implement ER and three teachers who answered vaguely were also included in the results and in this discussion. These teachers might not have explained how they implemented ER specifically; they rather conveyed aspects of their reading instruction. As such, their answers did not clearly communicate whether they had implemented ER or how they did it. During the interviews, their answers were difficult to distinguish as positive or negative, but upon close assessment, two of the three vague answers appear negative. Mary and Simon expressed that they were uncertain whether their reading instruction could qualify as ER. Although their answers cannot fully represent their implementation of ER, when considered alongside the other teachers' answers, they suggest that there is a lack of knowledge regarding ER and indicate that the individual teachers implement few aspects of Day and Bamford's (1998) list for a successful ER program.

5.2.2.3 Experiences with implementing ER

As Erwin (2001) wrote, attitudes are socially constructed and results from experiences (p. 5; see also Garrett, 2010, pp. 21-22). Additionally, Borg's (2003) figure modelling teacher cognition conveys a connection between classroom practices and teacher cognition (p. 82). According to this theory, teachers who have had positive experiences with ER implementation may regard it more favorably. The majority of the teachers in this study reported largely positive experiences with their ER programs, such as pupils enjoying the projects and acquiring language knowledge. This could indicate a generally positive attitude towards ER among the teachers. Nevertheless, more than half of the teachers also brought up challenges and negative circumstances related to ER programs, such as pupils who lacked the ability to choose their own book or the program causing a heavier workload. This could suggest that the challenges with implementation come just as easily to mind

for some teachers, and that their attitudes toward ER are not entirely positive. The teachers' attitudes will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

5.3 Attitudes toward ER

5.3.1 The benefits of ER

In section 2.3.2, we presented research conveying the benefits of ER and categorized the benefits into three overarching themes: improvement in reading speed and reading comprehension, vocabulary gain, and development of writing skills and grammar proficiency. In addition to these being the three prominent categories in previous research on ER, they all emerged in our participants' answers. However, even though many of our informants named one or two of these categories, none mentioned all three. The most popular answer was the combination of vocabulary growth and improvement in writing and grammar, which was mentioned by five out of nine teachers. This corresponds with the findings from Skjæveland's (2020) study, where all the informants mentioned writing as a benefit of ER and most additionally mentioned out vocabulary gain. Only two of our informants mentioned reading speed and reading comprehension as a benefit of ER. Moreover, Simon explicitly stated that he believed ER does not necessarily build reading comprehension. Regardless, all of our informants expressed a positive view of ER and named some benefits, which is a recurring find among international studies regarding teachers' attitudes towards ER (e.g., Aghar et al., 2022; Firda et al., 2018; Wulyani et al., 2022).

Some of our informants gave answers that did not align with the three categories. William and Victoria, for instance, mentioned pronunciation, which is interesting considering Day and Bamford's (1998) explanation of ER as a silent and individual activity (p. 8). Nevertheless, Cho and Krashen (1994) found a connection between ER and improved oral proficiency. The four participants in their ER program improved their speaking competence and understanding of oral language in addition to their gains in vocabulary. At the same time, pronunciation was not explicitly mentioned in their paper, which makes it uncertain whether ER improves pronunciation. Additionally, four of the teachers in our study gave vague responses that were categorized as *general progress in English*. Most of these answers were given in addition to naming specific categories, which might indicate that they were meant as introductions or summaries to their answers. Mary, however, did not point out specific categories in her answer; she only mentioned general improvement. She is also the only informant with no credits in English, which might

indicate she has less knowledge regarding the specific learning benefits reading in English can provide. Importantly, none of our informants mentioned that ER could improve the pupils' motivation for learning English. This is interesting, but not surprising, as only three of the informants remembered having had ER as a topic during their education and none had heard or read about ER outside of their education.

All of the teachers mentioned some benefits with ER, though the number of benefits named by each teacher varied to a certain extent. Some, such as Sarah and Mary, mentioned few or unspecific benefits, while others, such as William and Victoria, had much to say. Generally, the teachers seemed to regard ER as beneficial for the learners' language acquisition and believed that it contributes to favorable outcomes. As presented in section 2.1.2, Garrett (2010, p. 23) and Fabrigar et al. (2005, pp. 20-21) explain that attitudes are connected to peoples' evaluation of an object or practice and whether they regard it positively or negatively, favorably or unfavorably. The teachers' answers could thus indicate that they have positive attitudes toward ER. Still, Garrett (2010) explained that attitudes are also related to a person's knowledge of a concept (p. 23). Since it might seem that the teachers have limited knowledge of ER, based on their definitions and practices, their attitudes may be incomplete or concern only parts of the concept.

5.3.1.1 The benefits of ER outside the classroom

The answers to this question were varied, as it was interpreted differently among the informants. We included this question based on previous research that found a connection between pupils' extracurricular reading activities and scores in reading comprehension, reading speed, vocabulary, and writing. Studies have found that pupils who read outside school score significantly better in these areas (e.g., Anderson et al., 1988; Janopoulos, 1986). Sarah and Emily's answers were in line with these findings, as they claimed they could see major differences in the language proficiency of pupils who read in their free time and those who did not. The majority of the informants, however, gave the same answers to this question as to the previous one. That is, they mentioned the same benefits of ER outside the classroom as benefits of ER within the classroom. This might indicate that they did not see a difference between benefits of using ER inside and outside of the classroom. Moreover, three informants focused on the importance of pupils being able to read and understand English in various life situations rather than focusing on ER. Their answers most likely indicate that they did not fully understand the question. That only two out of the nine participants provided answers according to the intention behind the question could further indicate that most of the teachers had a limited understanding of the concept, though the answers could also indicate that our question should have been more precise.

5.3.1.2 ER as homework

This question is explicitly tied to Day and Bamford's (1998) first principle of a successful ER program, which says, among other things, that the pupils should have the ability to take their books home and continue reading there (p. 7). Having the pupils read at home as well as at school can also contribute to the development of good reading habits, which is one of the purposes of ER (Richards et al., 1992, p. 133). Only Mary answered that she would not give ER as homework. Her explanation was that she was obligated by the school to give the pupils tasks together with the reading and that it would therefore not be ER. The other informants gave positive answers to this question, which might suggest positive attitudes towards ER outside the classroom. Interestingly, several of the informants who answered yes to this question also said that they would give the pupils tasks to ensure that they had read what they were supposed to. Six mentioned giving written tasks as a form of control, and four mentioned oral tasks. Only two informants suggested they would not give any considerable tasks in addition to ER if they were to assign reading as homework. Overall, these answers might again indicate either limited knowledge of ER or an attitude that homework control is of greater importance than the principle that ER should be without tasks (Day & Bamford, 1998, p. 8). Mary's answer might indicate a higher level of understanding of ER considering her reflections regarding follow-up tasks.

5.3.2 Challenges with implementing ER

In accordance with earlier international (e.g., Firda et al., 2018; Huang, 2015; Macalister, 2010; Waring & Hoài, 2020) and national research (e.g., Bakken & Lund, 2018; Hjorteland, 2017; Naqvi, 2022), limited time was a challenge the teachers faced when implementing ER. However, although Renandya et al. (2021) list limited time as the first and most important challenge, less than half of our informants mentioned it. This may reflect their understanding of ER and how much time should be used on it. For instance, Mary and Anne, who did not mention time as a challenge, reported using less than a month on their reading projects. In contrast, Simon, William, and Emily, who experienced time as a challenge, seemed to use more than a month on their projects. The results indicate a possible difference in attitudes between primary and lower secondary school teachers. Three of the four informants who mentioned time as a challenge were lower secondary school teachers. Due to exams and grading, they might be subject to more pressure than primary school teachers. This corresponds with Huang's (2015) study, where the informants found it hard to implement an ER program due to their exam-oriented focus. It is also interesting to note that Mary, who is a primary school teacher, explicitly stated that time is not a problem. However, due to the limited number of informants and the unequal division between primary and lower secondary

school teachers, this inference is somewhat uncertain. Differences in attitudes toward ER and time between primary and lower secondary school teachers should thus be examined in future studies.

Renandya et al.'s (2021) second challenge, however, received a higher consensus among our informants: eight out of nine mentioned finding suitable materials challenging. The lack of reading resources is also a challenge mentioned in several previous international and national studies (e.g., Bakken & Lund, 2018; Firda et al., 2018; Hjorteland, 2017; Macalister, 2010; Naqvi, 2022; Skjæveland, 2020; Waring & Hoài, 2020). However, there seemed to be a distinction in the answers between finding enough copies of one suitable book for the whole class and having enough suitable books in the target language for the pupils to choose from. It is likely that this distinction stems from their varied understandings of ER and whether they incorporate class readers in their definition. As explained in section 2.3.6, Day and Bamford (1998) clarified that class reader programs are programs where the pupils all read the same book. They explain that although commonly confused with ER, using class readers does not count as ER, though they can supplement and support ER programs (pp. 47-48). Sarah, Victoria, and Anne, who earlier included class readers as part of their ER discriptions, all expressed difficulties with finding enough copies of one suitable book, displaying a possible belief that using class readers count as ER. The number of informants reporting this challenge was surprising to us. Preliminarily, we believed that the digital revolution in Norwegian schools would provide teachers with a substantial number of digital texts, reducing this challenge. However, though our informants remarked on the possibilities of digital access, like the teachers in Skjæveland's (2020) study, they seemed to find additional challenges with the digital devices that hindered the use of ER. Further studies considering hinderances to digital text access in schools could therefore suggest practical solutions to this challenge.

A lack of motivation for reading is the eighth item on Renandya et al.'s (2021) list and, thus, not as prominent as the other challenges. Interestingly, this was not a common finding in international research, but it did show up in the Norwegian study by Hjorteland (2017), where all the informants found it challenging to motivate their pupils. Contrary to this, several studies conclude that ER can help motivate pupils for reading (e.g., Birketveit et al., 2018; Takase, 2007). In Yang et al.'s (2021) study, for instance, the researchers found that the pupils who read materials at a i+1 level scored higher on reading motivation than pupils who did not. Perhaps a reason why some teachers find motivation as a challenge is because the reading materials have not been sufficiently differentiated. Renandya et al. (2021) also writes that the teachers must motivate the pupils by participating in the reading program themselves (pp. 17-18). Lack of motivation was mentioned by four of our informants. Three of the four participants who mentioned this challenge reported trying to prioritize

reading themselves, but sometimes prioritized other work instead. Additionally, a connection could be made between the pupils' motivation and how the teachers reported talking to their pupils about books and reading. Three of these teachers did not mention having formal or informal conversations about reading with individual pupils, and the last teacher only mentioned individual conversations with pupils who already had an interest in books. As discussed in section 5.2.1, this could show that learners need personalized conversations about books and reading to gain motivation. Future studies analyzing differences in motivation between pupils who are provided or not provided with personalized discussions would therefore be a welcome addition to the field.

Two other answers to this question stood out. Emily's response communicated an uncertainty of whether the learners' progress could justify the use of ER, which corresponds with the third reason on Renandya et al.'s (2021) list: that teachers might be unable to see the results of ER programs, since their impact is delayed (pp. 13-14). Emily's answer could convey uncertainty about whether ER can be used to reach the goals of the curriculum. This might also be the case for William, who answered that he does not implement ER at all because other learning goals are more important. These two answers concur with the findings from studies such as Waring & Hoài (2020), Huang (2015), Firda et al. (2018), and Macalister (2010), who all commented that their participants faced challenges related to curricular goals. Victoria's response was also of interest. She conveyed that the amount of work needed to prepare enough tasks and activities was a challenge. This answer might suggest a misconception in her understanding of ER. The fifth principle on Day and Bamford's (1998) list of a successful reading program is that pupils should be given few or no tasks connected to their reading (p. 8). However, the answer might also indicate issues with legitimacy, the fourth reason on Renandya et al.'s (2021) list. This reason relates to the understanding that class time must be used for direct teaching, which is incomparable with ER and may thus lead to the teacher feeling disempowered (Grabe, 2009, pp. 312-313).

As mentioned in section 3.4.2, Renandya et al.'s (2021) list on explanations for not using ER was used as a basis for our analysis. Interestingly, only three of the items on the list were used as codes when the data was analyzed. Two additional items can be compared with two answers, but the other five were not comparable with the results. These were *little support from the management, too little knowledge about ER, few experiences with ER, lack of professional development,* and *too challenging to implement*. Even though none of these were explicitly mentioned by the teachers, their responses indicate that these challenges are salient. It is unlikely that an informant would declare having little knowledge of, or experience with, a subject as this might make them look bad. Little support and lack of professional development are also factors that most likely affect the

teachers' decisions; however, the informants did not mention them explicitly. Nonetheless, their answers do indicate that they lack knowledge about ER and have few experiences with it, and that this might contribute to the challenges they face in implementing ER.

Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) wrote that a person will, without unforeseen hinderances, usually act in accordance with their attitude (pp. 5-7). As the previous answers from the informants show positive attitudes towards ER, the challenges mentioned by the informants could act as unforeseen hindrances, resulting in the exclusion of some of Day and Bamford's (1998) principles for a successful ER program. On the other hand, the answers from the background questionnaire showed that only three teachers remembered learning about ER during their education and that none had read or heard about it elsewhere. As Håkonsen (2009) conveyed, our knowledge influences the choices we make (p. 25). Therefore, another reason for not including all the principles is likely the participants' limited knowledge of ER.

Overall, our participants appear to have considered ER as positive and favourable for their learners' language acquisition, but they also found it difficult to implement. All nine of the teachers in our study conveyed at least two challenges with implementing ER. This might indicate that teachers have positive attitudes toward ER but face challenges with its implementation, which is a recurring finding in empirical research (e.g., Aghar et al., 2022; Chang & Renandya, 2017; Firda et al., 2018; Huang, 2015; Macalister, 2010; Waring & Hoài, 2020; Wulyani et al., 2022). Additionally, the teachers seemed to provide generally short and less detailed responses when answering what benefits ER has for language acquisition, while their answers were longer when talking about various challenges with implementation. As teacher cognition involves what teachers know, believe, and think (Borg, 2003, p. 81), this could indicate that ER's challenges are more prominent in the teachers' cognition than its benefits.

5.3.3 Feelings toward ER

All the informants answered positively to whether they liked, or would like, to work with ER with their pupils. Since one of the aspects of attitudes is affect – whether a person regards an object or practice positively or negatively (Garrett, 2010, p. 23) – this suggests positive attitudes towards the concept of ER. All of the informants in Skjæveland's (2020) study also reported enjoying working with literature. However, it is unlikely that the informants would answer negatively to a question regarding their feelings towards the topic of the interview. Therefore, we cannot be certain that their answers were not affected by a desire to present themselves favorably or a wish to please the interviewers. Their answers were also based on their personal understandings of ER, and as their

previous responses have suggested, there were clearly some misunderstandings regarding the nature of ER among the informants, which was also the case among the EFL teachers in Waring and Hoài's (2020) study. Accordingly, their answers may refer to their understanding of ER and not necessarily to how it is defined by Palmer (1917/1968) and Day and Bamford (1998).

The reasons why the teachers liked, or would like, to work with ER were divided between a focus on their learners, for instance that ER could create a joy for reading or opportunities for learning, and a focus on themselves, such as their own enjoyment of reading. Nonetheless, all the reasons related to positive experiences the teachers either had had with ER or believed ER could produce. Erwin (2001) communicates that when one has positive feelings toward a concept, one thinks favorably about it and is more likely to interact with it (p. 6). Thus, their answers could indicate that they are likely to implement ER in their future practice or continue to use it. However, our participants had limited knowledge of ER and seemed to face several challenges with its implementation. This reduces the likelihood of them implementing successful ER programs in future practices without intervention by the researchers or others or participating in professional development programs.

5.4 Summary

For our research we received fewer participants from the southern district than expected. Although we cannot know for certain, this might be due to the absence of a university in this district. The teachers who participated in this study seemed to define ER as reading long texts that fit the learners' linguistic competence over a long period of time. Other elements of ER were touched upon by some teachers, but few included more than three aspects. Palmer (1917/1968) and Day and Bamford (1998) emphasize the importance of continuous reading, few tasks, and self-chosen texts for ER, but these elements did not receive much focus among our informants. Based on their limited and somewhat simple definitions, it may seem that they have limited knowledge of ER. This is also indicated by the background questionnaire, as only three informants had ER as a topic in their education and none had heard or read about ER elsewhere.

Two thirds of our informants claimed to have conducted ER in their classrooms. When asked how this was done, however, their description of the programs did not always correspond with Day and Bamford's (1998) list of a successful ER program or Palmer's (1917/1968) definition of ER. Several of the informants described class reader programs where all pupils read the same book,

which, based on Day and Bamford (1998), is not the same as ER (pp. 47-48). While Renandya et al. (2021) comments that the ten principles on Day and Bamford's (1998) list should be guidelines and not absolute rules (p. 19), Krashen (1982) conveys that learners need input that is relevant, interesting, understandable, and slightly above their own level (pp. 21 & 66). Thus, the pupils should choose their own reading materials with help from the teacher, since using class readers will not assure interesting, comprehensible input for every pupil, which only some participants reported doing. In addition, Palmer (1917/1968) writes that ER means reading book after book without being concerned with grammatical aspects (p. 137). Thus, the principles of reading an abundance of texts and having few follow-up tasks could be viewed as important. Yet, most of the informants gave the impression that they continuously presented the pupils with written and oral tasks related to their reading and that they completed the reading program when one book was finished. Their general answers might indicate limited knowledge of ER and how to conduct successful ER programs.

Our informants were aware of several benefits of conducting ER and all said they liked, or would like, to use it in their classrooms. Even though the number of benefits they expressed, and the specificity of their answers, varied among the teachers, they generally seemed to regard it as beneficial for their learners' language acquisition. The majority of the teachers also communicated having had positive experiences with their programs, although whether these constituted ER is debatable. Garrett (2010) conveys that positive experiences can create more positive attitudes and that attitudes are connected to how favorably one evaluates a concept (pp. 21-23; see also Erwin, 2001, p. 6; Fabrigar et al., 2005, pp. 20-21). This could suggest that the teachers have positive attitudes towards ER. However, these answers are based on the informants' personal understanding of ER, which might be incomplete based on their limited definitions and restricted employment of Day and Bamford's (1998) principles. Additionally, more than half of the informants mentioned challenges and negative experiences as well.

When asked what they experience as the biggest challenges with implementing ER, all the informants mentioned at least two. These were included on Renandya et al.'s (2021) list and were generally explained in detail. Compared to the relatively short and less detailed answers concerning the benefits of ER, this could suggest that challenges with implementing ER are more prominent in the teachers' minds than benefits. Additionally, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) conveys that different hinderances can restrict whether a person acts in accordance with their attitude (pp. 5-7). These hinderances could be the reasons why the participants did not implement most of the Day and Bamford's (1998) principles even though their attitudes towards ER seemed positive. Another reason could be that the teachers had limited knowledge of ER and its nature.

Throughout the discussion, our informants' answers have coincided with previous research in the field. Macalister's (2010) study, for instance, showed that teachers claimed to have knowledge of ER but had little knowledge of research on the field, and our research show the same. Brattetveit's (2018) study showed that the majority assigned their pupils one novel to read during the school year, which also seemed to be the case in our study. Bakken and Lund's (2018) study showed that many of their 18 informants regarded texts as a starting point for written and oral work, and some of our participants seemed to possess the same view. Numerous other studies have showed that teachers seem to have positive attitudes toward ER but face several challenges with implementing it (e.g., Aghar et al., 2022; Chang & Renandya, 2017; Firda et al., 2018; Huang, 2015; Macalister, 2010; Waring & Hoài, 2020; Wulyani et al., 2022). This appeared to be true for the teachers in our study as well. Since this might indicate a convergence in results across researchers and research groups, it gives our thesis more reliability (Nyeng, 2012, p. 107).

6 Conclusion

Through this thesis we aimed to contribute to the research field of ER in Norwegian English classrooms, and partly fill the research gap regarding teachers' knowledge, experiences, and attitudes. We conducted semi-structured interviews with nine participants and aimed to answer the following research questions:

- How do EFL teachers in Norway define ER and what is their knowledge of it?
- How do they implement ER and what are their experiences with this?
- What are their attitudes toward ER?

Before we attempt to answer these questions, we would like to note that we, in similarity to Swain (2005), Nation (2007), and Cobb (2007), do not believe ER alone should account for all second language acquisition of primary and lower secondary school learners. As presented in section 2.2.2, Swain (2005) believes that output, along with input, is of importance for language acquisition (pp. 471-472), and Nation (2007) conveys that some skills are better developed in other ways, but that comprehensible input clearly plays a role for acquisition (p. 4). In section 2.3.1, Cobb (2007) coneys that ER is not sufficient in itself for second language learners to build a functional language, but that it is valuable and should be included in language teaching. With this, it is evident that though comprehensible input alone is not enough, it is still a significant resource for language acquisition.

The majority of our informants defined ER as reading long texts appropriate for a learner's own level over a long time period. Though some teachers mentioned other and additional aspects of ER, their definitions were generally short, limited, and only partly coincided with Palmer (1917/1968, p. 137) and Day and Bamford (1998, pp. 7-8). These researchers emphasized the importance of continuous reading, self-chosen texts, and few follow-up tasks, elements that were mentioned by few, if any, of the informants. On the question sheet, none of the informants answered that they had heard or read about ER anywhere other than through their education, where only three of the informants remembered having had ER as a topic. In addition, the teachers' descriptions of their ER programs made it evident that several of Day and Bamford's (1998) principles for a successful ER program were missing. This might indicate limited knowledge among Norwegian English teachers regarding the nature of ER.

All of our informants provided explanations for how they conducted reading programs in their classrooms and commented on their experiences with this. Still, only six of the nine seemed to

believe they conducted ER programs, and most of these programs seemed not to last long enough to acquire consistently positive results, which Krashen (2004) identifies as being more than a year (p. 2). A majority of the described reading programs also seemed to be completed after one book was read, even though both Palmer (1917/1968, p. 137) and Day and Bamford (1998, pp. 7-8) convey that one should continuously read multiple books in ER. More than half of the teachers let their pupils read both at school and at home. Seven teachers utilized class readers, where all pupils read the same book. Such programs are not equal to ER (Day & Bamford, 1998, pp. 47-48), but five of these teachers had also conducted programs where the learners could choose their own book. All but one informant gave their pupils follow-up tasks related to their reading, which might be due to the phrasing of some curricular aims (see section 2.3.4), but nonetheless goes against the outlined ER principles (Day & Bamford, 1998, pp. 7-8). The pupils usually sat at their own desks in the classroom while they read and four teachers utilized audiobooks, though ER should be a silent and individual activity (Day & Bamford, 1998, p. 8). The teachers' experiences with implementing their reading programs were generally positive, often in terms of what their pupils gained from them. Yet more than half also mentioned challenges and negative experiences, such as pupils' abilities, the amount of time and work reading programs take, and not having enough copies of books.

Based on the multi-dimensional theory presented in section 2.1.2, attitudes are related to a person's cognition, affect, and behavior. This encompasses their knowledge and beliefs about a social object, their feelings about and how they regard the object, and the influence this has on their behavior (Garrett, 2010, p. 23). Most of the participants in this study seemed to have some knowledge of ER and they all indicated that they like or would like to work with ER due to different positive experiences. This shows positive feelings towards the concept, although their responses could have been affected by their desire to please the researchers, as discussed in section 3.5. Through their responses regarding the benefits of implementing ER, it seemed that the teachers believed it could benefit their pupils and that they regarded it as beneficial for language acquisition. The majority of the teachers also said they had conducted ER programs. All of this substantiates that they might have positive attitudes towards ER. Still, their knowledge seemed limited, more than half of them also expressed negative experiences, most of their reading programs lacked several of Day and Bamford's (1998) principles for successful ER programs, and they faced several challenges with implementing ER, which they explained in more detail than the benefits. Thus, though our results could indicate that Norwegian English teachers have somewhat positive attitudes toward ER, their understandings of ER were limited, which means they are unlikely to be able to implement a successful ER program in their classrooms.

Before conducting this research, our hypothesis was that few English teachers in Norway use ER to a great extent in their teaching. We also believed that this might be because they generally have little knowledge of the concept or have negative attitudes towards ER. Our results suggest that our preliminary hypothesis was quite accurate. The teachers of this study do not give the impression of using ER to a high degree, since they mostly appear to make use of only one class-reader during a school year. This did not appear to be because of negative attitudes, however. On the contrary, the teachers seemed to express positive attitudes towards ER, though these appeared to be based on limited understandings of the concept. They also seemed somewhat aware of several benefits of implementing ER, although they lacked knowledge of how an ER program can be successfully conducted. We also found that the teachers faced several challenges with conducting ER, which is likely a further reason for their limited implementation of ER principles.

Although our case study was limited, it supports previous findings on ER in English classrooms in Norway (e.g., Hjorteland, 2017; Naqvi, 2022; Skjæveland, 2020). Our research thus indicates that while Norwegian English teachers have positive attitudes towards ER, their knowledge of the concept and ability to successfully implement ER is limited. This is especially true for teachers who have not finished their education recently. Nonetheless, international and Norwegian research indicate that ER programs are beneficial for learners' reading speed and reading comprehension (e.g. Aka, 2019; Anderson et al., 1988; Jeon & Day, 2016; Nakanishi, 2015), vocabulary gain (e.g. Iwata, 2022b; Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt, 2010; Suk, 2017), writing and grammar proficiency (e.g., Hafiz & Tudor, 1989; Janopoulos, 1986; Park, 2016), and further motivation (e.g., Iwata, 2022a; Takase, 2007). ER should therefore be given more attention in the educational sector in Norway, not only for pre-service teachers but also within professional development programs for in-service teachers.

6.1 Further research

As mentioned in the introduction and background sections of this thesis, ER is a much-researched field internationally. Nationally, however, as pointed out in section 1 and 2.3.5.2, there seems to be a limited number of studies regarding ER, especially when it comes to teachers' attitudes and practices and the connection between them. We aimed to contribute to the research regarding ER in Norwegian English classrooms, but nevertheless believe more studies are needed. Additionally, as mentioned in section 3, a disadvantage with the nature of our method is that the teachers are self-reporting their own practices. Thus, we suggest conducting research that makes use of a mixed-

methods approach, for instance with observations and surveys, in order to gain a better understanding of this field.

This study also included a limited number of participants that were not as differentiated as we had initially intended. We suggested in the discussion that ER may have gotten more attention in the teacher training program in recent years, and thus that in-work teachers might not have encountered it as much. We also mentioned that there could be a different focus regarding classroom practices between the medium-sized and small district, and that there might be a distinction between primary and lower secondary school teachers when it comes to the challenge of having enough time for implementing ER. In order to better see differences and similarities between teachers with varying educational backgrounds, experiences, ages, and genders, further research including a broad, and perhaps generalizable, sampling should be conducted.

The questions of the interview guide did not make it possible to examine what the teachers thought of ER compared to other practices or what other types of reading practices are implemented in the Norwegian English schools. With questions regarding these topics, the results of this thesis could have been different, and one might have gotten a better overview of how highly the teachers regard ER compared to other approaches to language acquisition. For further research it could therefore be advantageous to research teachers' attitudes towards ER compared with other classroom activities for language acquisition.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: NSD approval

Sikt

Meldeskjema / Læreres holdninger til og erfaringer med extensive reading / Vurdering

Vurdering av behandling av personopplysninger

Referansenummer	Vurderingstype	Dato
236505	Automatisk	07.12.2022

Prosjekttittel
Læreres holdninger til og erfaringer med extensive reading

Behandlingsansvarlig institusjon
Universitetet i Sørøst-Norge / Fakultet for humaniora, idrett- og utdanningsvitenskap / Institutt for språk og litteratur

Prosjektansvarlig
Jennifer Duggan

Student
Elisabet Ryste

Prosjektperiode
26.08.2022 - 31.12.2023

Kategorier personopplysninger
Alminnelige

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

Behandlingen av personopplysningene er lovlig så fremt den gjennomføres som oppgitt i meldeskjemaet. Det lovlige grunnlaget gjelder til 31.12.2023.

Meldeskjema

Grunnlag for automatisk vurdering
Meldeskjemaet har fått en automatisk vurdering. Det vil si at vurderingen er foretatt maskinelt, basert på informasjonen som er fylt inn i meldeskjemaet. Kun behandling av personopplysninger med lav personvernulempe og risiko får automatisk vurdering. Sentrale kriterier er:

- De registrerte er over 15 år
- Behandlingen omfatter ikke særlige kategorier personopplysninger;
  - Rasemessig eller etnisk opprinnelse
  - Politisk, religiøs eller filosofisk overbevisning
  - Fagforeningsmedlemskap
  - Genetiske data
  - Biometriske data for å entydig identifisere et individ
  - Helseopplysninger
  - Seksuelle forhold eller seksuell orientering
- Behandlingen omfatter ikke opplysninger om straffedommer og lovovertredelser
- Personopplysningene skal ikke behandles utenfor EU/EØS-området, og ingen som befinner seg utenfor EU/EØS skal ha tilgang til personopplysningene
- De registrerte mottar informasjon på forhånd om behandlingen av personopplysningene.

Informasjon til de registrerte (utvalgene) om behandlingen må inneholde

- Den behandlingsansvarliges identitet og kontaktopplysninger
- Kontaktopplysninger til personvernombudet (hvis relevant)
- Formålet med behandlingen av personopplysningene
- Det vitenskapelige formålet (formålet med studien)
- Det lovlige grunnlaget for behandlingen av personopplysningene
- Hvilke personopplysninger som vil bli behandlet, og hvordan de samles inn, eller hvor de hentes fra
- Hvem som vil få tilgang til personopplysningene (kategorier mottakere)
- Hvor lenge personopplysningene vil bli behandlet

- Retten til å trekke samtykket tilbake og øvrige rettigheter

Vi anbefaler å bruke vår mal til informasjonsskriv.

Informasjonssikkerhet
Du må behandle personopplysningene i tråd med retningslinjene for informasjonssikkerhet og lagringsguider ved behandlingsansvarlig institusjon. Institusjonen er ansvarlig for at vilkårene for personvernforordningen artikkel 5.1. d) riktighet, 5. 1. f) integritet og konfidensialitet, og 32 sikkerhet er oppfylt.

Appendix 2: Form of consent

Vil du delta i forskningsprosjektet

”Læreres holdninger til og erfaringer med extensive reading”?

Dette er et spørsmål til deg om å delta i et forskningsprosjekt hvor formålet er å få innsikt i norske læreres tanker, erfaringer og holdninger til bruken av extensive reading i engelsk. I dette skrivet gir vi deg informasjon om målene for prosjektet og hva deltakelse vil innebære for deg.

Formål
Formålet med prosjektet er å finne ut av:

- Hvordan lærere definerer begrepet ER
- Om de har gjennomført det i egen klasse, eventuelt hvordan
- Hvilke tanker og holdninger de har til temaet

Omfanget til prosjektet:

- 8-10 engelsklærere fordelt på et stort og et lite område
- Lærerne jobber eller har jobbet i trinn 5-10

Problemstilling er som følger:

- Hva er norske engelsklæreres tanker, erfaringer og holdninger om extensive reading i engelskfaget?

Forskningen er til en masteroppgave.

Hvem er ansvarlig for forskningsprosjektet?
Universitetet i Sør-Øst Norge (USN) er ansvarlig for prosjektet. Jennifer Duggan er veileder: jennifer.duggan@usn.no. Magdalene Melaas Skjelsvik og Elisabet Ryste er ansvarlige for datainnsamling og analyse.

Hvorfor får du spørsmål om å delta?
Utvalget for oppgaven er basert på bekvemmelighetsutvalg og snøballutvalg.
Kriteriene for utvalget er som følger:

- Arbeider som lærer
- Underviser i eller har undervist i engelsk
- Jobber eller har jobbet i trinnene 5-10

Det er omtrent 10 lærere som får henvendelse om å delta.

Hva innebærer det for deg å delta?
Hvis du velger å delta i prosjektet, innebærer det at du deltar i et intervju. Intervjuet begynner med at du svarer på et kort fysisk spørreskjema. Hele intervjuet vil ta deg ca. 30 minutter. Intervjuet inneholder spørsmål om dine tanker og erfaringer med ER. Intervjuet blir tatt opp på lydopptak, og blir deretter transkribert og lagret elektronisk. Det fysiske spørreskjemaet blir skrevet inn i transkriberingen av intervjuet.

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. Hvis du ønsker å trekke deg etter intervjuet, vennligst gjør dette før 1. mars ettersom dataanalyserings

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.

- De som vil ha tilgang til opplysningene er
    - Elisabet Ryste (Masterstudent)
    - Magdalene Melaas Skjelsvik (Masterstudent)
    - Jennifer Duggan (Veileder)
- Navnet ditt vil vi erstatte med et fiktivt navn som lagres sammen med transkriberingen. Listen over fiktive navn og korresponderende informant vil bli lagret på en liste som er fysisk adskilt fra øvrige data.
- Lydopptaket blir lagret på Nettskjema og slettes etter anonymisert transkribering. De fysiske spørreskjemaene vil også bli destruert etter transkribering er gjennomført. Transkripsjonene av intervjuet og spørreskjema blir lagret på Teams som er passordbeskyttet med to-faktor autentisering.

Deltakerne vil ikke kunne gjenkjennes i publikasjonen.
Opplysninger som vil bli publisert er

- Kjønn
- Erfaring
- Klassetrinn læreren arbeider på
- Uspesifikk geografisk lokasjon (Liten eller stor by på bakgrunn av generelt innbyggertall)

Hva skjer med personopplysningene dine når forskningsprosjektet avsluttes?
Prosjektet vil etter planen avsluttes innen slutten av desember 2023. Etter prosjektslutt vil alle personopplysninger, det vil si informasjonen som kan identifisere deg, bli slettet fra personlig oppbevaring. Kun personopplysningene som er nevnt ovenfor vil bli inkludert i publikasjonen. Anonymisert transkripsjon av intervjuet vil muligens bli publisert sammen med masteroppgaven. Den samme informasjonen kan bli publisert som tidsskriftartikkel i fremtiden.

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

På oppdrag fra Universitetet i Sør-Øst Norge har Personverntjenester vurdert at behandlingen av personopplysninger i dette prosjektet er i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

Dine rettigheter

- Så lenge du kan identifiseres i datamaterialet, har du rett til:
- innsyn i hvilke opplysninger vi behandler om deg, og å få utlevert en kopi av opplysningene
- å få rettet opplysninger om deg som er feil eller misvisende
- å få rettet personopplysninger om deg
- å sende klage til datatilsynet om behandlingen av dine personopplysninger

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

- Studentene som er ansvarlige for prosjektet: Elisabet Ryste: elirsyte@outlook.com og/eller Magdalene Melaas Skjelsvik: magdalenems@hotmail.com
- Veilederen for prosjektet: Jennifer Duggan, jennifer.duggan@usn.no.

- USNs personvernombud: Paal Are Solberg, personvernombud@usn.no.

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

- Personverntjenester på epost (personverntjenester@sikt.no) eller på telefon: 53 21 15 00.

Med vennlig hilsen

Jennifer Duggan (Veileder) Magdalene Melaas Skjelsvik Elisabet Ryste

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Samtykkeerklæring

Jeg har mottatt og forstått informasjon om prosjektet «*Læreres holdninger til og erfaringer med ER*», og har fått anledning til å stille spørsmål. Jeg samtykker til:

- ☐ å delta i intervju
- ☐ å fylle ut et kort spørreskjema i begynnelsen av intervjuet
- ☐ at opplysninger om meg publiseres slik at jeg ikke kan gjenkjennes

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

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(Signert av prosjektdeltaker, dato)

Appendix 3: Background questionnaire

Fiktivt navn: _____ Alder:_____ Mann: ☐ Kvinne: ☐

1. Hvor lenge har du jobbet som lærer?
   _____

2. Hvor mange år har du jobbet som engelsklærer totalt?
   _____

3. Hvilke(t) trinn underviser du i engelsk nå?
   _____

4. Hva slags utdanning har du?
   _____

   _____

5. Hvor mange studiepoeng har du i engelsk?
   _____

6. Var "ER" et tema i din utdanning?
   Ja ***nei*** ***vet ikke***

7. Hvor viktig mener du lesing generelt er?
   Ikke viktig ***lite viktig*** ***nokså viktig*** ***veldig viktig***

8. Hvor mye leser du på fritiden?

Ikke i det hele tatt ***i liten grad*** ***i noen grad*** ***i stor grad***

9. Hvor viktig mener du lesing på engelsk er?

Ikke viktig ***lite viktig*** ***nokså viktig*** ***veldig viktig***

10. Hvor mye leser du på engelsk på fritiden?

Ikke i det hele tatt ***i liten grad*** ***i noen grad*** ***i stor grad***

Appendix 4: Interview guide

1. Har du hørt om/lest om extensive reading andre steder enn i utdanningssammenheng (f.eks. forskningsartikler, seminarer, kurs, etc.)?
    a. Hvor?
2. Dersom du skulle forklart begrepet extensive reading, hvordan ville du gjort det?
    a. (Forskjellen mellom extensive reading og intensive reading?)
3. Hva anser du som målet med å bruke extensive reading?

Extensive reading er lesing av bøker eller lengre tekster der elevenes fokus skal være på innholdet i teksten og ikke tekstens form.

4. Snakker du med elevene dine om bøker og lesing på engelsk?
    a. Hvordan?
5. Har du gjennomført extensive reading med en klasse?
    a. Hvorfor/Hvorfor ikke?
    b. Tidsbruk?
        i. Som lekse?
    c. Hvordan?
        i. Hvordan foregår bokvalget?
        ii. Får elevene oppgaver tilknyttet lesingen?
        iii. Hvordan er lesesituasjonen/omgivelsene?
            1. Hva gjør læreren mens elevene leser?
    d. Hva er erfaringene dine med dette?
6. Hvilken nytte mener du extensive reading i klasserommet har for elevene med tanke på deres språklæring?
    a. Hvorfor/Hvorfor ikke?
    b. Hva med utenfor klasserommet?
        i. Ville du gitt det som lekse?
            1. Ville du kontrollert om elevene har lest hjemme?
                a. Hvordan?
7. Hva opplever du som de største hindringene med å gjennomføre ER?
8. Liker du/ville du likt å jobbe med extensive reading med elevene dine?
    a. Hvorfor/Hvorfor ikke?
9. Er det noe mer du har lyst til å si eller fortelle noe om?