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Abstract

For this master's thesis, the researcher conducted a mixed methods study concerning the teaching of literature in Norwegian lower secondary English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms. The focus of this study is on Norwegian lower secondary teachers' cognitions about teaching literature in the EFL classroom. Teacher cognitions, meaning what teachers think, know, and believe in conjunction with literature teaching, are thus important. With an aim of understanding the relationship between teacher cognitions and literature teaching, the study addresses three research questions. The research questions are related to how Norwegian lower secondary teachers approach teaching literature in EFL classrooms, what literary texts and genres the teachers choose for their EFL classrooms, and why the teachers teach literature in their EFL classrooms.

To collect data for this research, a mixed methods research design was employed. Specifically, 209 Norwegian lower secondary EFL teachers answered an online questionnaire before the researcher conducted follow-up interviews with five teachers. The questionnaire gathered a number of text titles and different characteristics about what texts were taught, while the interviews provided an understanding of what was taught and why. With a sustainable data collection of information regarding the teaching of literature, the theoretical orientation helped interpret the findings. Well-known reading theories, such as Krashen's (1997) extensive reading, together with three models for the teaching and learning of literature (Carter and Long 1991), helped the researcher reach an understanding of why these teachers teach the way they do.

Regarding the first research question, the teachers approach teaching literature by being willing to involve the students in the decisions made, but due to different limitations, this is not possible on a regular basis. Ultimately, the teacher-centred model for choosing texts for Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms is the most frequently used despite teachers preferring the student-centred model. Nonetheless, the teachers are future-oriented, turning towards the internet as their primary source of literary texts. Hence, the internet is challenging the textbook as the most frequently used source where Norwegian lower secondary EFL teachers find texts for classroom use.

The second research question investigates what texts and genres are taught in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms. The findings reveal that the literary texts taught in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms have some common characteristics. For example, they are often written by male authors from Britain or the USA, they are often in

categories aimed at young people's interests (namely young adult novels and fantasy novels), and they are often written in the 20th or 21st century. Some books and some authors are also more frequently used than others. Thus, *The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian* by Sherman Alexie and texts by Roald Dahl dominated as literary text taught in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms. Based on the interviews, these texts, among others, are more popular than others due to the themes they contain. In other words, the themes that are relevant to the lives of young people are the most common ones.

The third research question investigates why the EFL teachers teach literature, hence, the reasons why themes that are relevant to the lives of young people are important. The themes are analyzed in relation to the cultural model, the language model, and the personal growth model. The teachers considered the understanding of cultures different from the students' own culture, development of proper language, and development of self-awareness in the student as some of the most important reasons why they teach literature. These findings explain why the teachers approach teaching literature with a willingness to have students involved in the decisions made and why texts relevant to the students' interests and lives are chosen. Nevertheless, a clear answer to why Norwegian lower secondary teachers teach literature in EFL classrooms was not discovered in this research.

There has been little similar research at the Norwegian lower secondary level in the EFL context. Hence, the findings of this study could be relevant for Norwegian lower secondary teachers. For instance, the list of literary texts frequently taught in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms (see Table 4) might help teachers choose texts valued as relevant for young people and be in line with the curriculum. In addition to *The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian* by Sherman Alexie, *Harry Potter* by J. K. Rowling, *Wonder* by R. J. Palacio, and *The Hunger Games* by Suzanne Collins are texts relevant for young people and in line with the curriculum. Additionally, teachers value models and theories that highlight students' interests and participation in the learning of literature because they feel that this makes the students more interested in learning about literature. This finding, together with the list provided in Table 4, might help teachers create their reading lists and understand why a text may or may not be a good choice for the Norwegian lower secondary EFL classroom.

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1. Introduction

1.1 The present study, its aims, and its research questions

This thesis is a mixed methods study of Norwegian lower secondary teachers' cognitions about teaching literature in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms. In this context, teacher cognitions refer to “what teachers think, know, and believe and the relationship of these mental constructs to what teachers do in the language teaching classroom” (Borg 2003: 81). Thus, the study participants were Norwegian EFL teachers working in lower secondary schools (Grades 8-10). The specific research questions addressed in this thesis are the following:

1. How do the Norwegian lower secondary teachers approach teaching literature in their EFL classrooms?
2. What literary texts and genres do the teachers use in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms?
3. Why do the teachers teach literature in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms?

A mixed methods approach was applied to answer the research questions. The researcher conducted an online questionnaire, which was answered by 209 Norwegian lower secondary EFL teachers. Some of the participants did not answer all the questions. Consequently, the completion rate for the questionnaire accounted for 78 %. To elaborate on the results from the questionnaires, the researcher further interviewed five EFL teachers who initially participated in the online questionnaire.

Due to the aim of understanding the relationship between teacher cognitions and literature teaching, the curriculum and the place of literature in the curriculum were important. Norway implemented a new curriculum in 2020, namely the Knowledge Promotion 2020 (LK20). In the LK20, all curricula could be claimed to aim at personal development as well as educational growth. Accordingly, the researcher argues that literature might be a suitable and beneficial way to approach many elements of the LK20 because of the immense scope of literature. The link between literature and its place in the English subject is particularly emphasized in the core curriculum (2017:3), which highlights the fact that education should “open doors to the world” and provide “historical and cultural insight.” Furthermore, the

terms *competence* and *in-depth learning* are given significant attention in the LK20. Competence is the ability to apply knowledge from one area to another, while in-depth learning is to expand student`s knowledge and lasting understanding of concepts, methods, and contexts. This thesis claims that these terms are possible to comprehend by encountering literature. Additionally, the subject curricula relevant for this thesis (The English subject curriculum and the English specialization curriculum respectively) include core elements highly connected to literature, particularly *encountering English-language texts* from the English subject curriculum and *intercultural competence* from the English specialization curriculum. However, these curricula do not include more than three literature-specific competence aims, which is a contradiction of the other elements of the LK20. This thesis aims to understand and explain this contradiction via the research questions.

Furthermore, teacher cognitions have been shown to have a significant influence on the decision-making process a teacher undergoes when planning and conducting activities with EFL students (Borg 2003). The teacher`s primary and secondary schooling, the teacher`s teacher education, what the teacher learns by acting as a teacher, and contextual factors seem to be semi-dependent and essential for what is performed by a teacher, both when the teachers is planning and conducting activities with EFL students. The contextual factors may be rephrased as limitations in a teacher`s day-to-day practice, and some of these factors are further examined in this thesis. After all, if a teacher experiences many obstacles in everyday work, time-consuming activities such as reading can be undermined.

Borg (2006:176) highlights that much more research must be conducted to understand the relationship between teacher cognitions and literature teaching. This statement is supported by other scholars who have researched similar areas, such as Lyngstad (2019:277) and Hjorteland (2017:114). Furthermore, by examining previous research conducted on literature in relation to teacher cognitions, a gap left to investigate was discovered. There is a preponderance of research conducted on both teachers and students in Norwegian upper secondary classrooms compared to lower secondary classrooms. Out of the 10 studies presented in this thesis, six focus on teacher cognitions concerning literature teaching at the upper secondary level, while only two studies do the same at the lower secondary level. Furthermore, topics regarding which literature is taught in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms and why this specific literature is taught do not seem to have been investigated prior to this study. In sum, this thesis explores Norwegian lower secondary EFL teacher cognitions in relation to approaches to teaching literature, types of texts taught, and reasons why these texts are taught.

1.2 Outline of the thesis

The present study investigates teacher cognitions in relation to literature teaching. To do so, an examination of the Norwegian school system, relevant theories, and previous research conducted in this area is necessary. Chapter 2, "Background," describes the Norwegian school system and highlights the different curricula and goals relevant for teaching literature. Chapter 3, "Theoretical orientation," outlines relevant theories for examining teacher cognitions and literature teaching. Borg's (2003) concept of teacher cognition, reading theories such as Krashen's (1997) extensive reading, and different models for the teaching and learning of literature are essential in this context. Chapter 4, "Previous research," provides an overview of similar previous research in the area.

The methods used in this thesis and the results obtained are presented in Chapters 5 and 6, respectively. Chapter 5, "Methodology," explains the mixed methods approach, which involves the use of online questionnaires and interviews. This chapter also discusses validity and reliability and ethical considerations. The results are presented in Chapter 6, "Presentation of findings," in accordance with the corresponding research questions.

Chapter 7, "Discussion," reflects on the results in relation to the Norwegian school system, relevant theories, and previous research and highlights the significance of the results. Chapter 8, "Conclusion," concludes the thesis with a particular focus on the most significant findings as regards teacher cognitions about literature teaching in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms.

2. Background

Information concerning the Norwegian school system (Section 2.1) and the LK20 (Section 2.2) is provided below. The LK20 is compared to the Knowledge Promotion 2006/2013 (LK06/13) before some elements from the LK20 are further explored. The core curriculum, the English subject curriculum, and the English specialization curriculum are the elements emphasized. In the end, the place of literature in the English subject is addressed.

2.1 The Norwegian school system

In Norway, all children and youth up to the age of 18 have the right and the duty to complete primary and lower secondary education according to the Education Act § 2-1 (Kunnskapsdepartementet 2016:3). Primary and lower secondary education consist of 10 years in Norway (1st to 10th grade). Additionally, youths also have the right to complete upper secondary education (Vg1, Vg2, and Vg3) if they want to according to the Education Act § 3-1 (Kunnskapsdepartementet 2016:9). In other words, minors in Norway have the right and duty to undergo 10 years of education and the right but not the duty to continue for three more years. After having completed upper secondary education, the student is qualified for vocational education and can apply for higher education. Vocational education is a shorter vocational alternative to higher education which entitles students to practice in a profession. If students want to complete higher education, they apply for admission to the specific education they wish to complete. Higher education includes the bachelor, master, and Ph.D. levels.

2.2 The Knowledge Promotion 2020

Concerning primary, lower secondary, and upper secondary education, Norway implemented a new curriculum from the autumn of 2020, namely the LK20. The core curriculum was written and implemented in 2017, but all the subject curricula will be renewed during the period of three years (2020 – 2023; Kunnskapsdepartementet 2020:1). Tenth grade and Vg2 will continue to use the former curriculum, the LK06/13, until the autumn of 2021, and Vg3

until the autumn of 2022. All other grades (Grades 1 to 9 and Vg1) implemented the LK20 in August 2020. There is one exception to this, namely elective subjects in lower secondary school. The 10th grade has started using the LK20 in elective subjects even though they still use the LK06/13 in all other subjects. It is relevant for this thesis to examine the core curriculum, the English subject curriculum, and partially the curriculum for students who specialize in English by choosing English as their elective subject.

2.2.1 The Knowledge Promotion 2006/2013

To understand the content in the LK20, it is relevant to compare the LK20 with the previous curriculum. The LK06/13 was used prior to the LK20. The LK06/13 was intended to raise the major levels of achievements in all subjects, focusing on basic skills and competences and including national tests across all school levels (Sjøberg 2017). One of the changes made to accomplish this was the change from aiming at *knowledge* to *competence* (Imsen 2016). *Knowledge* in this sense means to simply know something, while *competence* has a broader sense. When a student has competence, they know why something is the way it is and how to use this knowledge to master other and more complex areas (Imsen 2016). The LK06/13 is in many ways similar to the LK20, but the LK06/13 includes almost twice as many competence aims as the LK20 does. Therefore, the LK06/13 provided insight into a larger number of topics in each subject, but with a narrower focus and timescale than expected from the LK20. The term *competence* is meant to describe the ability to understand and further apply the knowledge gained. This term became one of the most relevant terms in the creation of the LK20 and in its focus on a new concept: *in-depth learning*, which means “applying knowledge and skills in different ways so that over time the pupils will be able to master various types of challenges in the subject” (Core curriculum 2017:11).

2.2.2 The core curriculum

According to the core curriculum (2017:12), the overall goal is to teach students the five basic skills: reading, writing, numeracy, oral skills, and digital skills. Additionally, Norwegian education should contribute to opening “doors to the world and give the pupils and

apprentices historical and cultural insight and anchorage” (Core curriculum 2017:3). To elaborate on this, students should learn about different cultures, religions, and values; national and cultural heritage and traditions; and terms such as “democracy”, “environmental awareness”, and “discrimination”, among others (Core curriculum 2017:3). In short, all the different curricula focus on personal development as well as educational growth. Education in Norway should help produce people with a wide knowledge of the world who can think critically about concerning issues and have an urge to explore.

To achieve this, all the subject curricula in the LK20 have different competence aims. A competence aim is set to attain one specific goal in one specific subject as a part of the overall goals set in the core curriculum. The core curriculum defines *competence* as “the ability to acquire and apply knowledge and skills to master challenges and solve tasks in familiar and unfamiliar contexts and situations. Competence includes understanding and the ability to reflect and think critically” (Core curriculum 2017:11). By this definition, students should learn more than the ability to remember and duplicate, which produces short-term knowledge; they should rather attain in-depth learning. According to the Ministry of Education and Research (Core curriculum 2017:11), *in-depth learning* creates the ability to apply knowledge and skills to other challenges in other subjects and situations. The Ministry of Education and Research has facilitated this by reducing the number of competence aims in the LK20 compared to the LK06/13. This is likely to allow more time to work towards each goal and therefore achieve a deeper understanding of the topic. After such work, students should be able to reflect on and think critically about the concerning issue.

2.2.3 The English subject curriculum

One of the subject curricula in the LK20 is the English subject curriculum. According to this curriculum, the English subject is supposed to help students develop cultural understanding and communication skills and achieve *bildung* and identity development (LK20 2019a:2). *Bildung* is the idea that schools should provide something more than facts and knowledge; schools should also help students develop “their personality, attitudes, values and humanity” (Bjørndal 2005:26). Different core elements have been included in the curriculum to direct the teaching focus towards the elements the English subject should help students achieve. These core elements are communication, language learning, and encounters with English-language

texts. Due to the element of communication, students should have the opportunity to practice speaking and writing in practical and authentic situations and so be able to communicate better (LK20 2019a:2). The element of language learning should allow students to develop language awareness – grammatical, phonemic, and phonological – and expand their vocabulary (LK20 2019a:2). By encountering English-language texts, students will gain knowledge and awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity, which will hopefully help them understand different lifestyles, mindsets, and communication patterns (LK20 2019a:3).

Furthermore, the English subject curriculum has specific competence aims that are part of both the overall goals of the core curriculum and the core elements for the English subject. Competence aims are set for different age groups. There are set competence aims students should master after second grade, fourth grade, seventh grade, tenth grade, the Vg1 vocational education program, and the Vg1 study specialization education program. In this thesis concerning teachers in the eighth, ninth, and tenth grades, the competence aims that should be achieved after 10th grade are the most relevant ones. The competence aims relevant to this thesis are discussed in Subsection 2.2.5.

2.2.4 The English specialization curriculum

Students who specialize in English by choosing English as their elective subject are taught according to the English specialization curriculum. In this curriculum, the core elements are communication, language learning, language and technology, and intercultural competence. The core element of encountering English-language texts from the English subject curriculum is removed but has been replaced by the more advanced intercultural competence element. To gain intercultural competence is to develop comprehension of cultural and linguistic diversity and to be able to use this in interactions with others (LK20 2019b:3). To fulfil this, students shall read different types of English-language texts, which are expected to promote reading pleasure, contribute to developing language skills, and increase intercultural competence. To achieve this, 11 competence aims are included in this curriculum. None of these are directly tied to the teaching of literature. This is further discussed in Subsection 2.2.5.

2.2.5 Literature in the English subject

The relevant competence aims in this thesis are the aims that should be achieved after 10th grade. In the English subject curriculum, there are 19 aims in total, and three of them are directly relevant for teaching literature:

- “Read, discuss and present content from various types of texts, including self-chosen texts” (LK20 2019a:9)
- “Read, interpret and reflect on English-language fiction, including young people`s literature” (LK20 2019a:9)
- “Read factual texts and assess the reliability of the sources” (LK20 2019a:9)

In these competence aims, there is no specificity about which texts students are to read. Teachers are therefore given many choices. This freedom might lead to different practices in terms of which texts are taught, how they are taught, and how much literature is taught, which can lead to the teaching of literature being undermined because reading is a very time-consuming activity. The number of competence aims is reduced from 30 in the LK06/13 to 19 in the LK20. This reduction has been made to promote in-depth learning, which again might provide more time for literature and reading. In contrast with the English subject, which includes three relevant competence aims concerning literature, the English specialization curriculum does not include any. In this curriculum, there are 11 competence aims in total, but none of them directly relate to teaching literature. Thus, by only including three literature-specific aims out of 30 aims in total in the two relevant curricula, it follows that literature is not given much specific focus in the LK20.

In some ways, such undermining contradicts one of the core elements in the English subject curriculum, namely the encounter with English language texts, and the core element of intercultural competence from the English specialization curriculum. One could say that even though the curriculum does not include many competence aims concerning the teaching of literature, the stated core elements signal that literature is essential in the English subject. Furthermore, one could also argue that literary texts are particularly suited for working towards the overall core curriculum goals, which concern opening doors to the world and providing cultural and historical anchorage. In the case that these contradictions are included in the discussion of the place of literature in the English subject, more competence aims are relevant regarding the teaching of literature, such the aim to “explore and describe ways of

living, ways of thinking, communication patterns and diversity in the English-speaking world” (LK20 2019a:9). From this perspective, including time to read and discuss literary texts will help students acquire most of the competence aims in the English subject and in the curriculum for students specializing in English as well as the overall values of the core curriculum. Literature is from this perspective used as a resource for understanding other problems, such as linguistics and social and cultural issues (Parkinson and Thomas 2000:1), which is also in line with the new concept of in-depth learning.

3. Theoretical orientation

Sections 3.1 to 3.4 describe the theoretical orientation of the thesis. Section 3.1 clarifies the concept of teacher cognition, while Section 3.2 outlines the reading theories regarding extensive and intensive reading. Moreover, Section 3.3 provides models relevant for the teaching and learning of literature, such as the cultural model, the language model, and the personal growth model. Finally, Section 3.4 discusses models relevant for choosing texts for classroom use, such as the canon model, the student-centred model, and the teacher-centred model.

3.1 Teacher cognition

Teacher cognition is among the most important terms in this thesis. A thorough exploration of the term is therefore provided. Borg's (2003) concept of teacher cognition is first examined in this thesis. The two following subsections define and elaborate on teacher cognitions concerning teaching more generally (Subsection 3.1.1) and teaching literature more specifically (Subsection 3.1.2).

3.1.1 Defining teacher cognitions

Since this thesis focuses on teachers' cognitions about teaching literature in EFL classes, a clarification of the term *teacher cognition* is necessary. Borg (2003:81) defines teacher cognitions as "what teachers know, believe, and think" as they conduct the "unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching." Borg (2003) further explains that understanding teacher cognitions is important because it plays a significant part in the decision-making process teachers complete when they plan activities for classroom use. Specifically, Borg (2003) reports on four central parts which contribute to what teachers know, believe, and think as they plan, conduct, and evaluate their teaching. These four parts are presented in Figure 1.

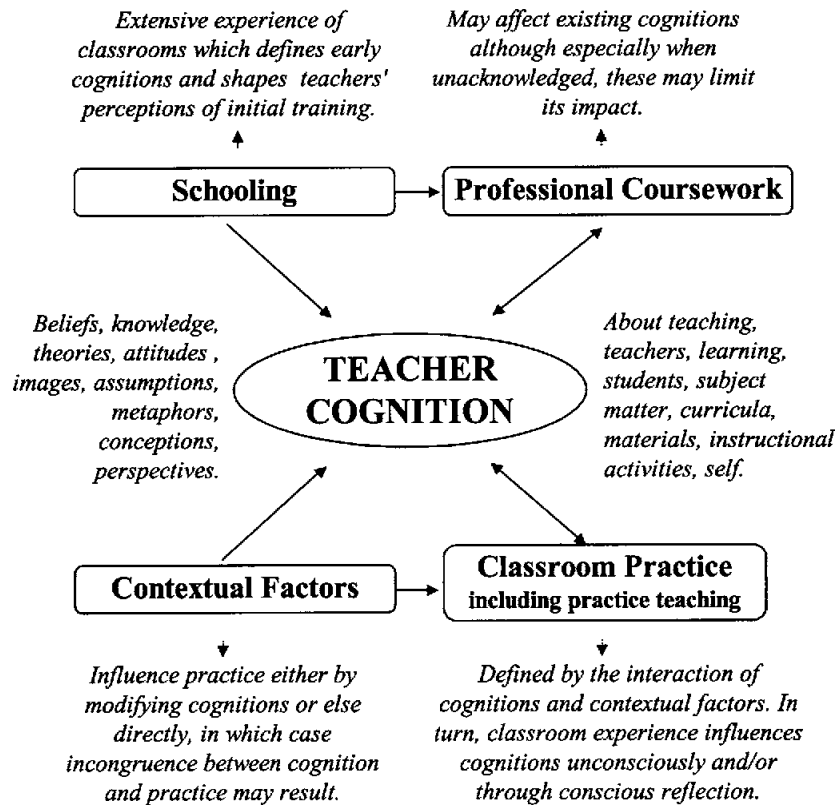


Figure 1: Borg's (2003:82) conceptualization of teacher cognition

Teachers' earlier experience with education through their primary and secondary schooling (called "schooling" in Figure 1) has been shown to be of significance when teachers plan and conduct classroom practice. Eisenstein-Ebsworth and Schweers (1997) found that teachers' own experiences as language learners have a significant impact on what they choose to do as language teachers. Numrich (1996) found that teachers avoided instruction that had given them negative experiences as language learners; for example, they avoided correcting grammatical errors because they knew this could have a negative impact on students' motivation to speak up.

The research indicates mixed results regarding the impact of what teachers have learned during their teacher education (called "professional coursework" in Figure 1) on teacher cognitions when planning and conducting teaching. Kagan (1992) found that the relationship between teachers' professional coursework and what they did in a classroom was not significant. Nevertheless, most researchers in this area have found that teacher education has impact on teacher cognition and that cognitions change during teacher education (Sendan

and Roberts 1998, Cabaroglu and Roberts 2000). The various results in this area can be connected to what is considered a cognitive change (Borg 2003:105). For example, Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000) found that teachers in training underwent changes at the structural level in the brain, meaning the addition of new constructs to accommodate their existing cognition. In other words, in this research, teacher education had implications for existing cognitions but did not create entirely new beliefs.

Social relationships or limitations in a teacher's day-to-day practice, called "contextual factors" in Figure 1, have also been shown to affect teacher cognitions. Crookes and Arakaki (1990) found that a heavy workload influenced what a teacher did in the classroom. A heavy workload was consistent with less time for planning classroom practice. Consequently, the contextual factor of a heavy workload had a more significant impact on classroom practice than the teacher's earlier experience or teacher education does. Social factors such as a teacher's relationship with co-workers (if negative) or personal affairs from a teacher's home life might also influence a teacher's motivation for preparing for classroom teaching and the teacher's engagement when teaching.

Borg's (2003) analysis shows that classroom practice also influences teacher cognitions. For example, research has shown that what teachers learn and experience throughout years of being a teacher and what they learn during teacher practice during their teacher education influences the choices they make (Breen et al. 2001, Mok 1994, Crookes and Arakaki 1999). In other words, a teacher tends to use earlier input as inspiration for what is done in the classroom. In particular, input from teachers who have impacted the planning teacher seems to be important.

It is possible to examine the four parts of teacher cognition presented in Figure 1 as semi-dependent. They are partially connected in how they all come together and create teachers who "are active, thinking, decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs" (Borg 2003:81). In other words, what teachers do in their classrooms is not only based on what they have learned during their formal education but on earlier experiences in their lives as well as limitations put on them through their professional activities. Teachers must adapt and evolve in their professions as they go, and all experiences, both old and new, come together and form a person able to redistribute knowledge in a time-efficient manner, combined with the responsibility to consider often more than 20 personalities at once.

3.1.2 Teacher cognitions and teaching literature

Teacher cognition regarding teaching literature is an issue that Borg (2003) outlines in his meta-analysis. Borg (2003) particularly emphasizes literacy and grammar teaching in the field of teacher cognition. These two areas are chosen because they are the only two curricular areas that have been researched. Concerning literacy, Johnson (1992:93) found that teachers often base their teaching of literature on the grounds of their own theoretical beliefs. This was especially true for less experienced teachers. Furthermore, Grade (1996:390) found that if a teacher drew away from theoretical beliefs, the teacher did so to plan activities for students who could not perform according to the teacher's expectations. These were expectations set on the ground of the teacher's theoretical beliefs about what the students should be able to perform. The teacher's wish to motivate all students, regardless of individual performance levels, appeared more potent than following their own theoretical beliefs. As these two studies indicate, two of Borg's four parts that shape what is done in classrooms contribute to a complex process in which teachers must draw on their education and professional knowledge to accommodate a third part: contextual factors. In this setting, being a fellow human being with a heavy responsibility – that of making sure every student follows the teaching – was more important to the teachers than following their own theoretical beliefs. Borg (2006:176) concludes that much more research is needed on teacher cognitions about literature teaching in the EFL context to better understand this area.

3.2 Extensive and intensive reading

The reading theories explored in this thesis are extensive and intensive reading (Subsections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2). Generally, intensive reading means working with relatively short texts and having a specific learning goal in mind when doing so, while extensive reading occurs when students choose what they want to read without too many associated tasks. When extensive reading is used as a school activity, it is also called free voluntary reading (henceforth FVR). Extensive reading might also be connected to what some scholars call pleasure reading. Pleasure reading means reading for personal enjoyment and is connected to teachers' reasons for practicing extensive reading. Therefore, FVR and pleasure reading are presented in separate subsections from extensive reading (Subsections 3.2.1.1 and 3.2.1.2).

3.2.1 Extensive reading

According to Krashen (1997:1), extensive reading is performed when “students do self-selected reading with only minimal accountability, writing brief summaries or comments on what they have read.” In particular, students are not supposed to look for details in texts or to achieve specific curriculum aims but instead read for enjoyment. As for extensive reading, the results of letting students select the material they want to read are very positive (Krashen 1997:11). According to Krashen (1997:8), students who participated in extensive reading programs scored better on cloze tests, reading comprehension, writing, and reading speed. As a result, students who read a great deal do better in language subjects, and because reading provides gains in text comprehension, a better understanding of literature can be expected. Ultimately, due to better text comprehension, extensive reading might lead to higher achievement levels in other subjects as well.

Day and Bamford (1998) discuss empirical results from extensive reading programs in their meta-analysis of the subject. The meta-analysis considers research done on students reading English as their foreign or second language. According to Day and Bamford, gains in reading ability after having conducted extensive reading programs are impressive (Elley and Mangubhai 1981, Elley 1991, Mason and Krashen 1991), but what is even more exciting is that students seem to develop “very positive attitudes toward books as they raise their literacy levels in English” (Elley 1991:397). By extension, students experience both gains in reading ability and a more positive way of thinking about reading activities. Day and Bamford (1998:38) conclude that “students who learn to read through an extensive reading approach develop positive attitudes and become motivated to read in a second language.” It may be natural to think that this will also lead to students doing *more* reading, which again might lead to higher levels of comprehension in the English subject and possibly in other subjects as well.

Even though extensive reading has proved to be a powerful tool in language learning, Grabe (2009) notes that extensive reading is not an activity given much time in EFL classrooms. Guthrie and Greaney (1991:80) suggest that as little as 15 minutes are devoted to reading activities in an ordinary school day for lower secondary school students. Grabe (2009:311) calls the “ability to read extended texts for longer periods of time a hallmark of fluent reading,” yet it seems that teachers do not prioritize extensive reading. Furthermore, Grabe (2009:312) suggests some reasons for this: the goal of EFL classes is not necessarily

fluent reading, teachers are not comfortable with this type of teaching since it demands that they know many different texts, and it seems that many teachers think extensive reading is better done as a homework activity. In addition, extensive reading use many resources; it demands a large selection of books – which cost money – and it is also a very time-consuming activity. According to Grabe (2009:312), it is an activity that uses valuable time which could be spent on more examination-related activities such as “language skills, vocabulary, grammar, translation, or study skills”. A contradiction of this is that these are skills that develop through extensive reading (Grabe 2009:313).

3.2.1.1 Free voluntary reading

FVR refers to using extensive reading in language education. Krashen (2004) describes FVR as declaring that students are free to choose what they want to read, and in extension, which is done to motivate students to read. It is a type of reading which requires little to nothing of the reader, and if the reader does not want to, the reader does not have to finish the book. Krashen (2004b:1) acknowledges FVR as “one of the most powerful tools” for language education and as the basis upon which all other learning should be built. Furthermore, as Krashen (2004a:1) claims, people who read more have “better development in reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary”. Consequently, if teachers want students to achieve higher levels of comprehension in the language subjects, motivation for FVR should be encouraged. The aim of FVR is to help students find pleasure in reading, which will hopefully lead to better academic results and motivation for reading.

In-school reading programs that focus on FVR set aside time every day for students to read what *they want* to read. According to Krashen (2004a:2), such in-school reading programs are the best way to increase reading competence. There are three ways to conduct in-school reading following this concept: sustained silent reading, self-selected reading, and extensive reading (Krashen 2004b:2). In sustained silent reading, the students and teacher sit quietly reading for approximately 15 minutes each day. There are no requirements but for the student to read for pleasure. With self-selected reading, the students choose texts they want to read during the language subjects. A discussion concerning the texts the students have read is held at the end of such classes. With extensive reading, a small amount of accountability is required of the students after they have finished reading (e.g., a short summary of what they read).

According to research done on FVR, in-school reading programs are highly effective (Krashen 2004b:2). Results from reading comprehension tests show that in 51 out of 54 comparisons between in-school reading programs and traditional programs, students in the FVR programs did “as well or better than the students in the traditional programs” (Krashen 2004b:2). In studies that have lasted for more extended periods, the results are even more optimistic (2004b:3). For instance, these favourable results are apparent when examining research done on students studying English as a second language. Elley and Mangubhai (1983) compared three groups of students: a group of students doing FVR, a group of students doing traditional audio-lingual methods, and a group of students doing shared reading. In shared reading, the teacher reads to students, who then do different exercises concerning the story they have just heard, such as talking about the book, acting out the story, or drawing parts of the story (2004b:4). In the audio-lingual method, a short passage of text is closely read followed by vocabulary lists (Richard and Rodgers 2014:58). The three different groups worked with these three different approaches to reading for two years. After these two years, the FVR and shared reading groups were superior to the audio-lingual group in reading comprehension, writing, and grammar (2004b:4). Even though Elley and Mangubhai’s (1983) study is fairly old, the extensive reading theory is based on studies like this one. More recent studies are presented in the previous research chapter (Chapter 4).

Regarding the results of FVR programs as a whole, in-school reading programs result in “literacy growth” (Krashen 2004b:2), “superior general knowledge” (Krashen 2004b:3); and gains in spelling, vocabulary development, grammar test performance, writing, and oral/aural language ability (Greaney 1970, Krashen 1989) according to Krashen’s meta-analysis (2004b:2-3). As a summary of studies conducted on FVR, Krashen has created what he calls “the reading hypothesis” (2004b:17). Figure 2 provides an overview of this hypothesis:



Figure 2: The reading hypothesis (Krashen 2004b:17)

The figure shows that FVR, done both in school and out of school, provides gains in reading comprehension, writing style, grammar, spelling, and vocabulary. Based on Krashen's reading hypothesis, it is easy to conclude that FVR is effective, but it could be argued that reading is only one way to develop literacy skills.

Scholars who criticize FVR highlight direct instructions as the best way to build literacy. Direct instructions is a teaching method for reading which builds on two processes skill-building and error correction (Krashen 2004b:18). Skills-building is done when the focus is put on learning one rule, word meanings, or spellings that are then used as many times as it takes for the student to learn them by heart. Error correction is performed when the reading student is corrected when they pronounce something wrong, and they then learn from these previous mistakes. It could be argued that teaching reading by direct instructions is not a method that promotes enjoyment and pleasure while reading. Moreover, it can be argued that a student who is strongly encouraged to memorize words and is constantly corrected when pronouncing something wrong will eventually lose the courage and motivation to read.

3.2.1.2 Pleasure reading

The idea of experiencing pleasure and enjoyment from reading is something Krashen has examined further in what he calls the pleasure hypothesis. He defines the pleasure hypothesis as follows: "if an activity promotes language acquisition, it is enjoyable. But enjoyment does not guarantee language acquisition" (2004b: 28). By this hypothesis, Krashen (2004b:28-34) explains that an activity that promotes language acquisition, such as FVR, is an activity that is considered enjoyable for students – a claim he supports with multiple research projects done in this area. For instance, in a study by McQuillan (1994), students studying English as a foreign or second language were divided into three groups, with one group doing self-selected reading, one doing assigned reading, and one doing grammar tasks. Popular reading materials were given to the students in the second group and were also the texts many students in the first group chose. Popular reading refers to the reading of books that are considered popular among a majority of readers. After finishing one type of reading, the groups switched to the next type of reading. In the end, all the groups had experienced all three types of reading used in this research. When the experiment finished, the students were asked which kind of reading they found most pleasurable. The results indicate that the students found popular reading the

most enjoyable. In FVR, students are free to choose what they want to read, and as McQuillian's (1994) research show, it is possible to assume that students will select popular books for this reading, which have been shown to be pleasurable.

Furthermore, Dahl (1986) sees pleasure reading as one of two central objectives for literature learning. He connects pleasure reading to letting students choose texts for themselves and reading texts with manageable text difficulty. Dahl also claims that the pleasure of reading is related to whether the students *understand* what they are reading. To ensure that students understand, a small discussion about what has been read is beneficial for fostering enjoyment and pleasure around the reading activity. Furthermore, Delanoy (2015:33) also connects "writing and drawing as means to articulate individual responses" to make students understand what they have read. Delanoy argues that there are many ways to making students understand what they read than just discussing it. He particularly highlights students writing about or drawing what they have just experienced through reading. Either way, Dahl (1986) and Delanoy (2015) agree that understanding what one reads is crucial to experiencing enjoyment from reading.

3.2.2 Intensive reading

Intensive reading can be considered the opposite of extensive reading. According to Hafiz and Tudor (1989:5), the difference between the two reading types lies mainly in "the amount of L2 material which learners are required to read" and in "the degree of intensity with which this material is studied and explicitly exploited for language-learning purpose." Extensive reading means flooding readers with learning materials and requiring little or nothing from the reader in terms of tasks afterwards. In contrast, intensive reading means learners work with relatively short texts and a specific goal of achieving a learning outcome concerning, for example, linguistic forms, vocabulary, genres, or text structures. In other words, intensive reading is a close reading of a text with a specific goal in mind, while extensive reading is more so reading for pleasure and interest.

According to Macalister (2011), learners usually read more challenging texts when they read intensively rather than extensively. These texts may be considered more demanding in terms of grammar, content, language, vocabulary, and concepts. Because of this, intensive reading usually requires a teacher to support the students in their work. Macalister (2011:162)

refers to “the four strands” when he explains why teachers choose to teach intensive reading. The four strands are “meaning-focused input, language-focused learning, meaning-focused output, and fluency development” (Macalister 2011:162). Macalister sees these strands as the reason for teaching intensive reading. He also considers the strands in close connection to the four language skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. For instance, the meaning-focused input can be compared to listening and reading skills – that is, the students receive input from the text when reading or when listening to someone reading. Similarly, the meaning-focused output can be compared to the skills of writing and speaking. According to Macalister (2011), language-focused learning and fluency development can be connected to all four skills. In particular, the strands play a specific role in acquiring language such as vocabulary or grammar, focusing on themes or topics, obtaining new skills such as understanding the main ideas in a text, and understanding text features such as genre structures or cohesion. Macalister pinpoints these four learning goals as the primary goals for teaching reading intensively.

Even though many teachers teach literature via intensive reading (Macalister 2011, Gabrielsen et al. 2018, Popova 2010, Krogstad 2018), it is also a teaching method that has been highly criticized. Nation (1979:85) argues that intensive reading is not the same as teaching reading. Nation (2007:26) especially emphasizes intensive reading as a means of learning how to read: “How does today’s teaching make *tomorrow’s* text easier?”. Intensive reading can be considered a means for students to be able to do extensive reading. Moreover, Macalister (2011:162) highlights certain features which need to be present for a student to be able to read extensively: “recognizing conjunction relationships such as cause-effect, guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context, and predicting likely content.” In the spirit of seeing intensive reading as a means to read extensively, it can be argued that the features Macalister emphasizes are features intensive reading works to improve. Suppose these features are refined in a student through intensive reading. It is possible that extensive reading will be easier for the student to engage in and that Nation’s (1979) critique is justified.

3.3 Teaching and learning of literature

Delanoy (2015:21) indicates that when examining different theories of comprehending literature, one must keep in mind that no theory is superior to another. Instead, viewing

theories as interlinked and contributors to each other is a more beneficial way of understanding them (Delano 2015:22). This perspective can take both teachers and learners of literature to a higher literature comprehension level (Delanoy 2015:20-22). Concerning this, Delanoy (2015:20) points to “a shift towards theory mixing” in recent years. This way of mixing theories can in an educational sense be better understood as an eclectic approach with a varied focus on both the choice of reading material and methodology. Moreover, there is no set canon of literature provided by a governmental department for teachers to use when teaching literature in Norwegian schools today. Thus, a wide range of theories for teaching literature is valuable as a support for teachers to select texts on their own. When selecting texts for classroom use, teachers must adapt to a “dynamic learning environment” (Delanoy 2015:20). Teachers are faced with having to select texts, combine texts, choose approaches for teaching texts, and teach them in ways that take ethical issues into consideration all at the same time.

According to Bredella (2008:15), the educational value gained from reading a text must also be considered when teaching literature. Hall (2005:26) makes Bredella’s (2008) idea specific when stating that literature can improve a student’s understanding of “spoken and written features, diverse levels of formality, social, professional styles, dialects, sociolects, and idiolects.” According to these perspectives, literature improves much more than reading capacity. It can benefit writing skills and understanding of speech and social interaction in general. Blau (2003) takes a different approach to connect literature learning to educational value. He speaks of literature as a broad scope of different and complex lifestyles combined with insight into many different fields such as different occupations (Blau 2003:77-78). As a result, exploring literature is of value no matter which profession the reading student plans to pursue. As a summation of these different perspectives on why literature has an educational value, Delanoy (2015:26-27) claims, “Literature invites a safe, personally meaningful, and creative experimentation with feelings, ideas and language ... [due to being] a rich resource for language and socio-cultural learning because of its complexity, creativity, and linguistic diversity.” In this claim, all consumers of literature should be able to find something or someone they can relate to when working with literature, and in an educational sense, both a range of competence aims and the overall goals of the core curriculum could be fulfilled by working with literature.

The upshot of all this is that for a teacher to teach literature in Norwegian upper and lower secondary schools, it is beneficial to have a specific thought as to why they want to teach that particular piece of literature. These thoughts can be traced to different educational

models for teaching and learning literature. According to Delanoy (2015), Bredella (2008), Hall (2005), and Blau (2003), a teacher should follow models which are dialogic and didactic in approach. In this spirit, three specific models explaining the reasons for teaching literature are presented below. These models clarify how a teacher can go about teaching literature to students in line with the Norwegian curriculum. The following models were collected from Carter and Long (1991) and include the cultural model, the language model, and the personal growth model. It is important to emphasize that none of these models are considered superior to the others by any of the referenced scholars. They are merely different ways of focusing the literature teaching and learning and in practical use probably blend into one another.

3.3.1 The cultural model

The cultural model (Carter and Long 1991:2) is a representation that focuses on the experience of others' way of living, other ideologies, and other religions across time and space – that is, reading about other peoples' thoughts and feelings. Such reading provides insight into ways of thinking which might not be possible to comprehend in any other way. One can become familiar with all cultures and religions existing in the universe of literature. It is possible to learn about what goes on in all areas of the world. Experiencing what happened in other historical periods through memoirs, fiction, or historical literature is also possible. Through literature, people's feelings and thoughts can be expressed in ways not possible in other media. Consequently, the likelihood of learning something new and unfamiliar is huge when encountering literature.

This model favours a teacher-centred approach where the attention is given to the information collected from the text (Carter and Long 1991:8). Individual work and discussions that go beyond the actual text are also possible (Carter and Long 1991:8). In texts which present a culture different from the reader's, it is essential to help the student understand these new ways of thinking. In particular, there can be differences in "language, food, dress and behaviour" (Carter and Long 1991:153) and in social, historical, and personal matters. Discussions to help students understand these differences are important. According to Carter and Long (1991:153-54), "background information" for texts which endorse the cultural model is of significance to "develop awareness" in the student before reading such texts.

3.3.2 The language model

The language model is more concerned with “promoting language development” (Carter and Long 1991:2). For example, language can be used to teach “specific vocabulary or structures” (Carter and Long 1991:2). According to Delanoy (2015), the language focus of studying literature is the most common in an educational sense. Thus, teachers use excerpts from texts to teach a specific genre or text structure. In other words, a small part of a text is isolated to show the learners a specific structure the teacher would like the students to understand. This can also be done when teaching vocabulary. A teacher can use a text which contains vocabulary relevant to a theme the teacher would like to teach. For instance, one can consider a vocational teacher who wants to teach their students specific words in the direction of the professional careers the students have chosen. A teacher would then find a text containing a range of that vocabulary and ask the students to read that text to expand their vocational vocabulary.

According to Carter and Long (1991:2), the main argument for choosing this direction to teach literature is that “literature is *made* from language.” Consequently, one must understand the language before one can understand literature. In this way, literature is considered in terms of studying literature instead of using it as a resource for obtaining the “background of specific historical, social, and ideological contexts” (Carter and Long 1991:3). In other words, this model is associated with a language-based approach in which a process-centred and activity-based teaching method is used. It is process-centred in that the learning outcome derives from the actual work the student does, not the product that work produces. It is activity-based in that it can draw on activities such as cloze reading or rewriting to understand the linguistic patterns in a text. By working this way, the learner should become able to understand linguistic forms and literary meanings.

3.3.3 The personal growth model

A model that is considered a resource for obtaining something more than the content of the text is the personal growth model. A teacher’s aim in this model is to help students “achieve an *engagement* with the reading of literary texts” (Carter and Long 1991:3). This engagement is concerned with passing on a “love for literature” (Carter and Long 1991:3). This devotion

should carry on beyond the classroom and stay with the students throughout their lives. This loyalty to books will contribute to a growth in the students' understanding of the world, which will continue long after they have finished their education. The philosophy is that the students will learn about other ways of living and about themselves and consequently undergo personal growth. Conceivably, the students will learn to understand their place in society.

This model aims at a student-centred teaching method in which students should read texts that contain themes they are interested in. Simultaneously, the teacher is responsible for expanding the scope of students' reading material. Literature can then become "a special resource for personal development and growth" and "encourage greater sensitivity and self-awareness" (Carter and Long 1991:3). In this model, students are responsible for evaluating the text and encouraged and inspired by the teacher to find new ways of understanding the world. The teacher can make a connection between the students' old and new thoughts by "relating the literary text to the student's personal world" (Carter and Long 1991:45). The teacher has to know the student to be able to do this. Many students have a limited experience of the world in general (Carter and Long 1991:45), yet they will have had exist experiences that can connect to the literary point of discussion. These connections can be exploited if the teacher knows how to ask questions or make statements correctly. The outcome of such work and discussion can be personal growth for the involved parties.

3.4 Choosing texts for teaching literature in the English subject

According to Carter and Long (1991:141), "questions of which texts to select, establishing criteria of difficulty and deciding on how to evaluate students' performance" are the most fundamental issues a teacher must consider. This section particularly examines the question of which texts to select. An additional problem that may occur when texts are considered for classroom use is that many students are not very motivated to read (Carter and Long 1991:141). A teacher must take this into account when making text choices. Furthermore, Carter and Long (1991:141) explain that a student's first encounter with literature is highly likely to determine whether that particular student will be interested in literature in the future. Hence, the teacher's choice of reading material can be crucial. There are many points to keep in mind when making this potentially decisive choice of which texts to use in a classroom. Among these points are the general availability of the printed text; whether the text belongs to

a representative selection of that text type; whether the text is familiar to the reader or whether it highlights unfamiliar themes; whether the text is modern or not; whether the text is conceptually easy or difficult for the reader; whether the text is lengthy or short; whether it is a complete text or an excerpt; whether the text will be taught for its own sake or in connection to some other text(s); and whether the text is selected for its theme, genre, or period (Carter and Long 1991:145-46). To make all these choices, the teacher can draw on a canon model, a student-centred model, or a teacher-centred model. These models are presented below.

3.4.1 The canon model

Teachers must consider whether there are restrictions on what they are allowed to teach (Carter and Long 1991:145). In Norway, no specific texts are referred to in the English subject curriculum. Professional teachers are allowed to choose the syllabus they would like to teach. Whether a fixed syllabus should exist in the language subjects is an ongoing discussion. Scholars who endorse the fixed syllabus argue that using a democratically selected syllabus gives students a more balanced reading experience, ensuring that students encounter all the different text types (Fleming 2007:37). Scholars who criticize the fixed syllabus concept argue that it will undervalue professional teachers' judgment (Fleming 2007:37). However, what seems to be common in literature teaching today is using a literary canon based on texts used in textbooks (Gilje et al. 2016, Juuhl et al. 2010, Solstad and Rønning 2003, Krogstad 2018, Bakken 2018, Lyngstad 2019, Hjorteland 2017). A *literary canon* can be defined as “an authoritative list of approved books” (Fleming 2007: 31). In other words, some texts are considered more valuable for teaching in terms of goals to achieve, and teachers seem to favour these texts for classroom use.

3.4.2 The student-centred model

A student-centred approach is another possibility for how to choose texts for classroom use. Students can choose what they want to read or are given a chance to influence the reading list without having the final word in this model. Carter and Long (1991:24) note that this can be done in the form of a student survey. Students are given a list of texts chosen by the teacher

and are asked to give their opinion about which of these texts they would like to read and to add to the list if they have relevant suggestions. According to Carter and Long (1991:17), this way of choosing texts motivates students to read because “the process of reading is related to them as individuals.” Hopefully, students will know what they would like to read, especially if suggestions are presented in the form of a student survey. A student survey can contain suggestions from the teacher, the student, and fellow students, providing a good scope of literature from which to choose. If the student is given a chance to participate in choices concerning them, they will probably be more motivated to read (Carter and Long 1991, Ryan and Deci 2000).

3.4.3 The teacher-centred model

Carter and Long (1991:23) identify teachers choosing the texts to be read in the classroom as the most common process. On the one hand, this way of choosing texts can be considered positive because students are encouraged to read more widely and develop opinions and judgments based on an educated adult’s choices. On the other hand, teachers may base the choices of texts on their reading lists and thereby perhaps on their interests and opinions. By this selection process, the teacher may also be able to select texts which support their opinions (conscious or unconscious) when it comes to political, religious, or other sensitive issues, which can lead to the teacher shaping individuals and personalities in the direction they consider best. This way of choosing texts may also lead to a list of books based on an adult’s interests that youths are expected to read. In sum, there are many considerations to take into account when choosing texts, and the students are not in a place where they understand all of these considerations. It is positive that the teacher is likely to know whether a text is representative of a text type; whether a text is conceptually easy or difficult; and whether the text is connected to the theme, genre, or period the class is working with. However, it is important that teachers not let their own opinions and interests influence their professional choices.

4. Previous research

This section describes 10 relevant studies that have previously been conducted regarding teaching literature. The section outlines research conducted in both Norwegian lower and upper secondary schools, including the Norwegian subject and the English subject. Eight of the ten studies explored the topic in terms of the English subject, while two studies focused on the Norwegian subject. Even though this thesis does not examine teaching literature in the Norwegian subject, the findings are still relevant for this thesis. This section is divided into research conducted with a focus on lower secondary teachers' perspectives (Section 4.1), lower secondary pupils' perspectives (Section 4.2), upper secondary teachers' perspectives (Section 4.3), and upper secondary pupils' perspectives (Section 4.4).

Previous research on teaching literature shows that this topic is a well-investigated one in the Norwegian context, especially at the upper secondary level. Most of the research conducted on the teaching of literature concerns the perspectives of upper secondary school teachers. Five of the ten studies focus on teachers in upper secondary school. It also seems that researchers are mainly interested in teacher cognitions and the methods teachers use to teach literature. The context, aims, and main findings of these research projects are described below.

4.1 Research on lower secondary teachers' perspectives

Krogstad (2018) conducted a study on Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms with a focus on teachers' attitudes towards teaching literature. She attempted to investigate teachers' attitudes towards the use of literature in EFL lessons. Krogstad (2018) conducted five in-depth interviews with lower secondary teachers and found that the teachers emphasized three main reasons for teaching literature in an EFL classroom: literature as content, literature for language acquisition, and literature as personal enrichment. The teachers considered the latter the most important. Krogstad (2018) also found that the teachers' primary source for finding literary texts was the textbook, that motivation was important to get students to read, and that the teachers chose texts based on their pupils' preferences.

Bakken (2018) conducted research in the field of teacher cognitions in lower secondary schools. Her study focused on lower secondary English teachers' reasoning about

their text practices. Particularly, she investigated how the teachers reasoned as they chose texts for EFL teaching. To establish an understanding of this topic, Bakken (2018) interviewed 18 lower secondary teachers. Her main findings indicate that the textbook was the primary source from which the teachers found their texts for classroom use and that the teachers emphasized detailed readings and translations of these texts. This focus on reading textbook texts was prioritized above other reading, such as providing the students with authentic texts. Bakken (2018:97) also found that the teachers tried to balance the text choice between taking struggling students into consideration and “putting emphasis on the collective process.” It seemed these teachers wanted to build common ground in the classroom by providing all students with the same literary texts but not expecting the same results from every student in the end.

4.2 Research on lower secondary pupils’ perspectives

Gabrielsen, Blikstad-Balas and Tengberg (2019) researched lower secondary students’ perspectives regarding the role of literature in the Norwegian subject. Gabrielsen et al. (2019) studied 47 eighth graders by filming 178 Norwegian lessons. The research revealed that reading literary texts was “strongly connected to students’ own writing” and that the main focus was on “generic text features that were relevant for texts across the same genre” (Gabrielsen et al. 2019:1). According to Gabrielsen et al. (2019), the focus of literature teaching was not on the enjoyment of reading but on the learning outcome and how to use reading materials in other connections such as for writing. Furthermore, Gabrielsen et al. (2019:1) claim that there are “strong evidence and empirical support for students reading literature in school” but that the classrooms in this study did not reflect these practices.

Krogstad’s (2020) study also considered the perspectives of lower secondary pupils regarding literature in the EFL lower secondary classroom. Krogstad (2020) wanted to study lower secondary pupils’ attitudes towards the use of literature in the EFL classroom and used questionnaires and interviews with 54 10th graders to do so. The study showed that pupils acknowledged the benefits of reading to enhance their knowledge about English culture, society, and language and increase their English proficiency. The pupils also valued factual texts and poetry as the most preferred text types. The texts *Of Mice and Men* by John Steinbeck and *I Have a Dream* by Martin Luther King were the most popular texts among the

students. Nevertheless, the students in this study did not find literature in the EFL context interesting.

4.3 Research on upper secondary teachers' perspectives

Lyngstad (2019) performed a study on a topic similar to that of this thesis, namely teacher cognitions about teaching literature, but in upper secondary school. Lyngstad (2019:5) describes her aims as determining “which literary texts English teachers view as suitable and/or select for classroom use, and which beliefs about literature influence their choices.” She used a questionnaire that 110 upper secondary EFL teachers answered, and she conducted interviews with eight upper secondary EFL teachers. Lyngstad’s (2019:272) main findings indicate that contemporary novels from the 20th and 21st centuries written by male Anglo-American authors dominate the teaching of literature in upper secondary school. In terms of genres, she found that the genres of classic and young adult literature are used frequently, while genres such as graded readers, comics, illustrated novels, and graphic novels are used to a lesser degree (Lyngstad 2019:272). No specific texts are used by all the teachers in her study. Moreover, Lyngstad (2019:273) highlights that teachers use the textbook as their primary source for finding texts for classroom use. Lyngstad (2019:271) explains that “the teachers relied heavily on textbooks” when finding texts for classroom use but that they also “used their professional judgment” when doing so.

Skaug and Blikstad-Balas (2019) investigated the teaching of literature in the Norwegian subject at the Vg3 level. The Vg3 level is the last year of upper secondary school in Norway. These researchers investigated whether whole books or excerpts were used in upper secondary Norwegian classes and teachers’ attitudes towards using whole books and excerpts in class. The researchers used a survey which 153 Vg3 Norwegian teachers answered. Skaug and Blikstad-Balas (2019:101) suggest a hidden canon within the Norwegian subject in Vg3. This canon is based on texts from the 19th century written by male authors. Specifically, one author was far more frequently used than the others, namely the Norwegian author Henrik Ibsen (Skaug and Blikstad-Balas 2019:94). In addition to these observations, Skaug and Blikstad-Balas (2019:97) found that excerpts of texts were used far more frequently than complete works were. This favouring of excerpts seemed to be connected to time; that is, these teachers argued that there was too little time to teach whole works.

Hjorteland (2017) performed research in the area of teacher cognitions at the upper secondary level. Her main aim was to explore “teacher cognition (attitudes, beliefs, knowledge, and practices) in relation to literature teaching in English as a foreign language classroom at the upper-secondary level in Norway” (Hjorteland 2017:2). She used interviews and classroom observations with five upper secondary teachers in her project. Hjorteland (2017:110-113) found that the textbook was the predominant source from which the teachers found literature for classroom use and that the teachers varied their teaching methods between class discussion, written assignments, teacher presentation, and group work. What literary texts were taught seemed to be strongly connected to curricula aims. She also notes that the teachers seemed to be influenced by their teacher education when they decided on the methods to apply when teaching literature in EFL classes and that they saw extensive reading and FVR as beneficial (Hjorteland 2017:110-112).

Popova (2010:9) defines her project as an attempt to “investigate how English language literature is used in Norwegian upper secondary school.” She conducted her study by interviewing three upper secondary teachers. Popova’s (2010:94-95) study showed that short stories dominate the teaching of literature in upper secondary school and that literature is mainly used as a tool to help students to gain communicative competence and cultural awareness. In particular, Popova (2010:94) states that literature is mainly used for practical reasons, such as “giving insight into other peoples’ culture and way of life,” even though the teachers understood that this approach was not very motivating for the students. Furthermore, her findings also indicate that the teachers did not like the idea of a standard syllabus, that it was difficult to motivate students to read, and that the interviewees expressed the idea that they did not think they had enough time to teach literature (Popova 2010:95).

Stavik (2015) investigated the teachers’ perspective on the teaching of literature at the upper secondary level. A questionnaire that 16 teachers completed and four in-depth interviews were used to understand this. Stavik (2015) found considerable differences in the methods teachers use for literature teaching, but more importantly, the teachers in this study were conscious of the choices they made. Specifically, the teachers in this study focused on the importance of literature teaching as a part of gaining intercultural competence.

4.4 Research on upper secondary pupils' perspectives

Finsrud (2017) studied upper secondary students' perspective on learning literature. She used a questionnaire, which 56 students in the Vg3 answered. This study indicated that students evaluated literature as an essential part of their education, especially to develop their language skills, develop as people, and understand culture and society. These students found reading and discussions based on what they read to be the most important teaching methods, and they evaluated novels, short stories, and factual texts as the most important text types.

To summarize the studies described in this chapter, across levels, the textbook is teachers' primary source for finding literary texts for classroom use, there is a canon for teaching literature at the upper secondary level, and teachers vary in the approaches they use to teach literature, but nevertheless, both teachers and students acknowledge the benefits of learning to understand literature.

5. Methodology

This chapter explains the mixed methods approach used in this study. Thus, Section 5.1 focuses on the mixed methods approach and its strengths and weaknesses. Section 5.2 discusses the questionnaire as a research method as well as the sampling technique and piloting of the questionnaire and questionnaire data analysis. Section 5.3 outlines interviews as a research method, explains the interview guide and sampling in this thesis, and discusses the conduction and analysis of the interviews. Finally, validity and reliability and ethical considerations are addressed in Sections 5.4 and 5.5.

5.1 Mixed methods approach

Answers to the research questions posed in this thesis are pursued via a mixed methods approach. Dörnyei (2007:44) defines the mixed methods approach as combining both quantitative and qualitative methods within one project. In this project, the quantitative part was an online questionnaire, and the qualitative part consisted of five interviews. Two hundred and nine teachers answered the questionnaire. The answers collected from the questionnaire were used to create an interview guide. Thus, five teachers were subsequently interviewed. The questionnaire questions can be found in Appendix 1, and the questions used in the interview guide can be found in Appendix 2.

5.1.1 Strengths and weaknesses of the mixed methods approach

According to Dörnyei (2007:45-6), the benefits of the mixed methods approach are associated with combining quantitative and qualitative research techniques. By combining the two, one can limit the weaknesses associated with quantitative and qualitative research and simultaneously increase the strengths. Hence, the weaknesses of the questionnaire have been reduced due to the subsequent interviews, and vice versa. On the one hand, the questionnaire provided shorter and less complex answers, but on the other hand, it reached more teachers than the interviews did. In contrast, the interviews were more time consuming and labour intensive, but they are likely to provide new and detailed information. In sum, the mixed

methods approach allows a multi-level analysis and reaches a large number of diverse audiences (Dörnyei 2007:45).

According to Dörnyei (2007:170), an essential weakness of questionnaires is that “the respondents’ engagement tends to be rather shallow and therefore we cannot explore complex meaning directly.” Through the questionnaire, the researcher explored interrelationships between the variables measured in the questionnaire, but the unexpected results could not be interpreted based on the answers obtained through the questionnaire. Additionally, approximately 50 % of the teachers provided relatively short answers to the open-ended questions. A qualitative research method was implemented to reduce the weakness of potentially shallow engagement. The qualitative part was included to produce more complex answers and investigate the unexpected results. The respondents in the interviews were asked questions to elaborate on specific issues and illustrate patterns apparent in the questionnaire.

Similarly, Dörnyei (2007:143-4) highlights an important weakness of interviews: “the interview format does not allow for anonymity”. Because of this, the respondent may try “to display him/herself in a better than real light” (Dörnyei 2007:144). It is also possible that the respondents might “be too shy and inarticulate to produce sufficient data, or at the other extreme, they can be too verbose, generating a lot of less-than-useful data” (Dörnyei 2007:144). In this study, the questionnaire helped neutralize the stated examples of the weaknesses of interviews, such as not allowing anonymity. The questionnaire produced simple, countable answers. These answers were the basis for the interviews. Consequently, this basis helped create an interview guide which made the aspect of too-talkative or too-shy participants more manageable. The researcher knew what to target based on the interview guide, and as a result, obtaining the accurate information from the interviewees was easier. However, the benefit of the interviewees being willing to contribute to the interviews by providing lengthy and elaborate answers is that they might provide new and unexpected results, which is why all the data from the interviews must be carefully listened to and processed (Dörnyei 2007:144).

5.2 Questionnaire

This mixed methods study first employed a questionnaire as a research method. Data on the sampling technique for the questionnaire, the construction and piloting of the questionnaire, and data analysis are presented below.

5.2.1 The questionnaire

Brown (2001:6) defines questionnaires as “any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers.” Dörnyei (2007:101) adds to Brown’s definition by explaining that “survey studies aim at describing the characteristics of a population by examining a sample of that group.” In line with these definitions, the questionnaire used in this project was intended to present Norwegian lower secondary teachers with questions and statements about their literature teaching, which they were to react to by writing their answers. By this answer collection, the researcher attempted to describe that group of teachers’ characteristics based on the information they provided.

The questionnaire included 48 questions in total and consisted of both open-ended and closed-ended questions. Thirty-two closed-ended questions were provided in a Likert scale format. A Likert scale question format “consists of a characteristic statement and respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree” (Dörnyei 2007:105) by marking which option is most appropriate. The questionnaire also included 10 closed-ended questions given as multiple-choice items. These multiple-choice questions targeted introductory or closing information from the teachers, such as which county the teacher worked in. The questionnaire mainly consisted of closed-ended questions, which did not require any free writing from the participant because such questionnaires are seen as the most professional and the best way to produce countable results (Dörnyei 2007:105). This gives each question a unique possibility to be analyzed numerically and therefore provides a statistical analysis over trends (Dörnyei 2007:104).

Furthermore, five questions in the questionnaire were open ended. These questions were the following: “Provide the titles and authors of the literary works you are using to teach literature in the English subject this year, e.g., *The Adventures of Sherlock Holmes* by Arthur

Conan Doyle”, “Provide the title(s) of the textbook(s) you use when teaching lower secondary English”, “Provide examples of the sources other than the textbook you use to find literary texts for classroom use”, “If you answered yes to the previous question [willingness to participate in a further interview], please provide your e-mail address here”, and “Do you have any additional comments to the survey you have just participated in?” Dörnyei (2007:107) would define the first four open-ended questions as “specific open questions”. Such questions “ask about a concrete piece of information” (Dörnyei 2007:107). The last open-ended question was a “completely open question” (Dörnyei 2007:107) implemented if the teacher could think of anything the researcher might benefit from knowing. The open-ended questions were mainly included to provide the research project with an overview of the most used texts, textbooks, and other sources. They were not included to explore the teachers’ reflective thoughts. According to Dörnyei (2007:105), such study is best conducted via qualitative research, which is why such exploration was left to be conducted in the interviews.

When the questionnaire was created, consideration of the wording of the questions was taken into account. This consideration was made by eliminating a significant weakness associated with questionnaires: that of producing “unreliable and invalid data by means of an ill-constructed questionnaire” (Dörnyei 2007:115). Dörnyei (2007:103) highlights that when interviewees are asked about “attitudes, beliefs and other personal or mental variables”, the wording can be essential to avoid unreliable data. A minor difference in how a question is asked or framed can “produce radically different levels of agreement or disagreement” (Dörnyei 2007:103). In this questionnaire, such consideration was made when the teachers were asked about why they taught literature. The topic was investigated through a closed-ended question which asked about different reasons why teachers teach literature. The teachers were asked to respond to this question on a 5-point Likert scale from agree to disagree. The question used the exact wording from the theoretical section to describe the cultural model, the language model, and the personal growth model as reasons why the teachers teach literature. This was done to ensure that the teachers reflected on the exact theories the researcher was exploring. Had the researcher used different wording to describe these models, the teachers and the researcher might have considered different models. Additionally, the researcher tried to keep the questions short, to use natural and straightforward language, and to avoid asking more than one question at once. These considerations regarding the wording were in line with Dörnyei’s “rules about item wording” (2007:108).

The questionnaire format was also made in line with scholars’ advice on creating

questionnaires (Dörnyei 2007:109). For example, the questionnaire had specific instructions concerning the questions which the researcher saw as necessary (e.g., the last part in the open question: “Provide the titles and authors of the literary works you are using to teach literature in the English subject this year, e.g., *The Adventures of Sherlock Holmes* by Arthur Conan Doyle”). The specific instructions in the questions were included to help the teachers understand how much information the researcher was asking for. Furthermore, the order of the questions was designed to accommodate the Likert scale format. Hence, the questions were put into the different Likert scale formats where they seemed to fit in best. The open-ended questions targeting texts, textbooks, and other sources were put first so the teachers could finish the most demanding questions first when they were at their best in terms of motivation. The length of the questionnaire was designed to take between eight and twelve minutes to answer. The average time taken to complete the questionnaire was 8 min. 29 s.

5.2.2 The questionnaire sampling

The questionnaire was sent to all the lower secondary schools in Norway through the digital platform SurveyMonkey. The Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research provided the researcher with a list of contact e-mails for all the Norwegian lower secondary schools. The researcher’s e-mails contained a request for the person who opened the e-mail to forward the attached questionnaire and information to English teachers working in that particular school. In total, the researcher sent over 1,000 e-mails. This e-mail can be found in Appendix 3.

This project was intended to collect data from Norwegian lower secondary EFL teachers who were willing to provide the needed information based on their knowledge and experience. Dörnyei (2007:151) acknowledges this as a purposive sampling technique because the study targeted this information from lower secondary EFL teachers only. The purposive sampling technique was chosen over the more traditional random sampling technique usually used with questionnaires because the project was aimed at EFL teachers working in Norwegian lower secondary schools rather than any other teachers or some random members of the population. In this project, this technique gathered data from 209 EFL teachers working in Norwegian lower secondary schools.

5.2.3 Piloting the questionnaire

The questionnaire was piloted before it was distributed. The researcher distributed the e-mail with the attached questionnaire to two lower secondary EFL teachers and one computer engineer for piloting. One of the lower secondary teachers gave feedback that three of the questions needed to be adjusted. She said two of the questions could be misunderstood and that not all teachers use a textbook when teaching; hence, the phrasing of questions related to the textbook needed to take this into account. The questions which the teacher felt could be misunderstood were closed-ended Likert scale questions. They were initially designed with this wording: “I adapt the literary texts I teach according to my students’ interests” and “I adapt the literary texts I teach according to my students’ skills”. The teacher noted that the wording “I adapt” could mean that the teacher makes specific text changes to accommodate students’ interests or skills before teaching the literary text. This was not the researcher’s intention. The researcher intended to ask the teachers upon what grounds they choose the texts used in their EFL classroom. Therefore, the wording was adjusted to “I choose the literary texts I teach according to my students’ interests” and “I choose the literary texts I teach according to my students’ skills.” In short, the phrasing “I adapt” was replaced by “I choose” to better indicate the researcher’s intention. The same teacher also commented on the open-ended question that asked about the textbook(s) the teachers used. The question was initially designed with this wording: “Provide the title(s) of the textbook(s) you use when teaching lower secondary English.” She noted that not all teachers used a textbook for teaching lower secondary English. Therefore, an extra sentence was included in this question: “If you do not use a textbook, please write that.” The other teacher who participated in the piloting of the questionnaire did not make any comments. The computer engineer provided feedback about distributing the questionnaire effectively and safely. The questionnaire was distributed in accordance with his advice. The computer engineer did not find any technical faults with the survey. Except for the feedback given above, the questionnaire seemed to be in order.

5.2.4 Questionnaire data analysis

The questionnaire results were processed through the online platform where the questionnaire was created: The Monkey Survey. The Monkey Survey performed the statistical procedures needed, and it prepared the data collection for analysis. The results are presented in Chapter 6, in line with the research questions. By extension, results relevant for Research Question 1 are highlighted in Section 6.1, results relevant for Research Question 2 are highlighted in Section 6.2, and the results relevant for Research Question 3 are highlighted in Section 6.3.

The results are mainly described as “descriptive statistics” (Dörnyei 2007:209), which means the presentation summarizes numerical datasets. The minimum and maximum values are also included among these results. According to Dörnyei (2007:209), this presentation of quantitative results is “a well-rounded description of the scores that would satisfy most purposes.” These results were used for two purposes: to attempt to answer the research questions and to create the interview guide for the qualitative part of this project.

5.3 Interviews

Teacher interviews followed the questionnaire. According to Kvale (1996:5-6), interviews can be defined as a one-to-one “professional conversation” where the goal is “to obtain descriptions of the life world of the interviewee with respect to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena”. In this project, the researcher conducted professional conversations with five teachers concerning the teaching of literature. Information regarding the construction of the interviews, sampling, conducting, and data analysis is presented below.

5.3.1 The interview guide

Based on the answers obtained through the questionnaire, the researcher created a semi-structured interview guide. A semi-structured interview guide is a set of pre-prepared guiding questions, but the format is open ended, and the respondents are encouraged to elaborate when answering the questions (Dörnyei 2007:136). One of the benefits of this structure is that

it encourages the interviewee to give more complex answers, providing a better chance of the researcher finding new and interesting results (Dörnyei 2007).

The interview guide consisted of 50 questions and was divided into five parts. The first part consisted of preliminary questions, such as how many years of teaching experience the teacher had and what county they worked in. The second part of the interview targeted Research Question 1, which investigated how teachers approach teaching literature. The third part of the interview targeted Research Question 2, which investigated what literary texts and genres the teachers use. The fourth part of the interview targeted Research Question 3, which investigated why the teachers choose to teach literature. The last part of the interview consisted of additional questions that did not fit directly into any of the research questions but were still of interest based on the questionnaire results, such as whether the teacher could see any differences in the teaching of literature from the LK06/13 to the LK20. The interview questions were mainly based on the questionnaire data, but they also elaborated on some of the same issues from the questionnaire items. Some of the topics were addressed in both data collection methods because the interview questions had a more open-ended format than the closed-ended items in the questionnaire, which provided this project with different information.

The researcher aimed to ask questions that would not lead the respondents to answer the questions in a certain way, but some of the questions had follow-up examples to guide the respondents if they did not understand what the question was targeting. An example of this is the following question: “What do you consider *most important* when you decide on which texts to teach? For example, do you consider the students’ skills or interests most important?” In this question, the first part was asked (“What do you consider most important when you decide on which texts to teach?”), and if the respondent did not fully understand the question, more content was supplied (“For example, do you consider the students’ skills or interests most important?”).

Moreover, Dörnyei (2007:137-8) claims that the last question in an interview guide can be very informative because this “permits the interviewee to have the final say.” Based on many scholars’ recommendations, Dörnyei (2007:138) suggests a closing question similar to “is there anything else you would like to add?” Dörnyei (2008:138) argues that a closing question can add richness and complexity to data collection. In this interview guide, the last question was in line with the example given above. The interview guide can be found in Appendix 2.

5.3.2 The interview sampling

Five teachers were interviewed. Five teachers were chosen for theoretical saturation and due to pragmatic considerations (Eisenhardt 1989). According to Glaser and Strauss (1967), *saturation* is the point at which the researcher decides that new information will not “develop the concept any further.” The researcher chose teachers with different backgrounds and geographical locations, and thus the researcher attempted to gather extensive data from the five teachers. A larger sampling would demand more time than this project allowed, which was the *pragmatic consideration* that had to be taken into account. Dörnyei (2007:127) defines the ideal sampling size for interviews as being 6 to 10 participants. Based on Dörnyei’s advice, the researcher decided that five teachers for the interviews and 209 participants for the questionnaire would together be in line with this scholar’s advice. In sum, five teachers were chosen because this seemed an appropriate number for balancing getting enough data and having enough time, and because it seemed to be in line with scholars’ advice on sampling sizes.

The teachers were selected through the purposive sampling technique. The sampling was purposive because the project was interested in conducting interviews with EFL teachers working in lower secondary schools. Furthermore, the teachers were selected based on “maximum variation sampling” (Dörnyei 2007:128). Dörnyei (2007:128) defines maximum variation sampling as the researcher choosing participants based on their “markedly different forms of experience” within the field being investigated. Thus, the researcher chose five teachers who were likely to have different experiences as lower secondary EFL teachers. In this project, the different experiences desired were geographical location and years of teaching experience. A consideration of including teachers of different ages and both genders was also taken into account. The researcher wanted participants from different counties and with varied teacher experiences, but partially also with different ages and genders. Such teachers were selected based on who indicated that they were willing to participate in an interview. The last questionnaire item asked if the teacher would participate in a further interview on the same topic. If the teachers answered yes to this question, they were asked to type in their e-mail address. These e-mail addresses were used to contact the teachers for the interviews. Forty-two teachers volunteered for the interview. Among those 42, three men and two women were selected based on geographical location and years of teaching experience. The sampling for the interviews is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Overview of the interview participants

	Gender	Age	County	Years of teaching experience
Teacher 1	Man	66	Troms og Finmark	35
Teacher 2	Woman	51	Rogaland	17
Teacher 3	Woman	55	Viken	8
Teacher 4	Man	28	Møre og Romsdal	2
Teacher 5	Man	44	Vestland	21

By this sampling of teachers, all categories within years of teaching experience found in the questionnaire were covered, and a broad spectrum of geographical locations was included. Additionally, the sampling included both males and females from different age groups.

5.3.3 Interviews

All the interviews were conducted in English, but all the teachers were provided with the opportunity to speak Norwegian if they wanted to. All the interviews were also conducted through the digital platform *Teams*, except for that with Teacher 2. This interview was conducted as a personal meeting between the researcher and Teacher 2. There were no problems in conducting the interviews either online or in the personal meeting with Teacher 2. The personal meeting was arranged because Teacher 2 lived geographically close to the researcher. The other interviewees were too far apart in terms of geographical location for the researcher to conduct the interviews in person. Ideally, the interviews should all have been conducted in personal meetings because, according to Dörnyei (2007:138-142), this helps keep a natural flow to the interview and makes it easier to establish a relaxed environment between the interviewer and the respondent.

The interviews lasted approximately one hour. This length was chosen in line with Dörnyei's (2007:134) suggestion of letting one-time interviews last for 30 to 60 minutes. The

ideal setting would be to divide an interview into three sequences (Polkinghorn 2005). Such division would help maintain “rich descriptions” from the teacher and “sufficient depth and breadth” in the interview (Dörnyei 2007:134-5). Because of the pragmatic consideration of time, this was not possible in this project. To compensate for this limitation, the maximum length of 60 minutes based on Dörnyei’s advice was used. Furthermore, scholars agree that “to be able to catch all the details of the nuance of a personal meeting”, recording is necessary (Dörnyei 2007:139). Thus, the interviews were recorded using the platform OBS Studio.

5.3.4 Interview data analysis

The data from the interviews were gathered via recording. According to Dörnyei (2007:246), the first step in analyzing such data is to “transform the recordings into a textual form.” All the recordings were carefully listened to, and relevant information was written verbatim. This was done to uncover factors that were likely to affect the teachers’ cognitions about teaching literature. Furthermore, the researcher categorized the information via a content analysis of the interviews. Patton (1990:381) defines content analysis as involving “identifying, coding, and categorizing the primary patterns in the data.” In other words, the content from each interview was analyzed, and then the information from the different interviews was compared. The results from this analysis are presented in line with the research questions. By extension, results relevant for Research Question 1 are highlighted in Subsection 6.1.2, results relevant for Research Question 2 are highlighted in Subsection 6.2.2, and results relevant for Research Question 3 are highlighted in Subsection 6.3.2.

5.4 Validity and reliability

Validity and reliability are concepts that can be used to evaluate the quality of a study. *Reliability* refers to the consistency in the data; in other words, reliability “indicates the extent to which our measurement instruments and procedures produce consistent results in a given population in different circumstances” (Dörnyei 2007:50). *Validity* can be defined as the accuracy of the data, or the quality of the interpretation of the data (Dörnyei 2007:52). In this study, both the consistency and the accuracy of the data were addressed through two data collection methods, which is possibly a significant strength of the present study.

In the questionnaire, validity was ensured by piloting the questionnaire and presenting the data honestly. Since not all the questionnaire participants answered all the questions, the data was presented in terms of the number of teachers who did. This was done even though the more familiar way of presenting such data might be by percentage. This presentation by number of teachers might make it easier for a reader to understand the results to the fullest and is hence an honest data presentation. The data gathered through the online questionnaire were further processed by the digital platform it was collected through (SurveyMonkey). Moreover, the researcher also processed the data. This double processing of the data increased the reliability of the data collected from the quantitative research.

The interviews followed the questionnaire. In this qualitative research, the researcher considered validity and reliability by recording and transcribing the interviews before the data was processed. However, a limitation to this data might be that five interview participants is a relatively low number. Thus, the results cannot be used to make any general claims on teacher cognitions and literature teaching. Nevertheless, because the information in this study was addressed through two data collectors and was built on a theoretical framework, the results might still be valuable contributions to both fields.

5.5 Ethical considerations

In Norway, the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (henceforth NSD) helps ensure that research is in line with privacy requirements. An NSD application process was conducted before the data collection commenced. The NSD gave the following feedback on the application: “We assess that the processing of personal data in the project will be in accordance with privacy legislation” (the researcher’s translation). The NSD notes that the project obtained consent from the participants to process personal data according to the requirements. The information letter provided for the teachers before answering the questionnaire and participating in the interview follows the NSD’s privacy principles. The NSD also evaluated SurveyMonkey as an acceptable data processor in this project. The complete NSD permission can be found in Appendix 4.

When the questionnaires and interviews were conducted, all NSD guidelines were followed. In particular, the questionnaire answers were only available to the researcher, and the recordings from the interviews were safely stored during the research period. The recording was deleted when the research period was over. All interviewed teachers were

informed about the recording and the storing of the recordings. Ethical considerations included in this project are informed consent to participation, voluntary participation, confidentiality from the researcher, participants anonymized in the thesis, no private information collected from the interviews presented, and the researcher's attempt to present the results from the interviews in a way that caused no harm to the respondents. Ultimately, all participants were asked to read an information letter where all this information was stated and sign a consent form before contributing to any data collection. The information letter and consent form can be found in Appendix 5.

6. Presentation of findings

This chapter presents the findings from the questionnaire and the interviews. The findings from the questionnaire and interviews are presented separately within the research questions. Not all the questionnaire participants answered all the questions. Consequently, all the results are presented in terms of the exact number of teachers who answered each question. Thus, Section 6.1 presents the findings relevant to Research Question 1. Sections 6.2 and 6.3 do the same for Research Questions 2 and 3, respectively. Section 6.4 presents findings apart from the research questions that are still relevant for this thesis.

6.1 Research Question 1

The first research question is the following: How do the EFL teachers approach teaching literature in Norwegian lower secondary classrooms? A particular focus on where the teachers found the texts for classroom use was emphasized to answer the question. In addition, the researcher also studied whether the teachers or students chose the texts for classroom use.

6.1.1 Findings from the questionnaire

The findings from the questionnaire connected to Research Question 1 are presented item by item. In total, nine items in the questionnaire were relevant to this research question. Questions 11, 12, 13, 29, and 30 in the questionnaire targeted where the teachers find the texts they use when teaching literature. This topic is presented in Subsection 6.1.1.1. Items 14 and 15 concern the teachers' perspective on letting their students choose texts for classroom use, and this topic is presented in Subsection 6.1.1.2. Additionally, some relevant results explaining how teachers approach teaching literature appear in the answers to an open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire. In this question, several teachers highlighted having difficulty getting students to read, having little time to teach literature, and experiencing a weakened school economy. These topics are presented in Subsection 6.1.1.3.

6.1.1.1 The textbook as the main source for finding literary texts for classroom use

Previous research on literature teaching has shown a tendency for the textbook to be the primary source where teachers find texts for classroom use (Gilje et al. 2016, Juuhl et al. 2010, Solstad and Rønning 2003, Krogstad 2018, Bakken 2018, Lyngstad 2019, Hjorteland 2017). Thus, several questions concerning this claim were included in the questionnaire. These questions are presented starting with item 11. Item 11 was an open-ended question which asked the teachers about the title(s) of the textbook(s) they used. Of the 209 teachers who participated in the questionnaire, 149 answered this question. Figure 3 presents the responses to this question. Figure 3 does not specify which version of the textbook some of the teachers gave (e.g., *Stages 8* or *Enter 10*), and the figure only contains the textbooks referred to by at least 10 teachers.

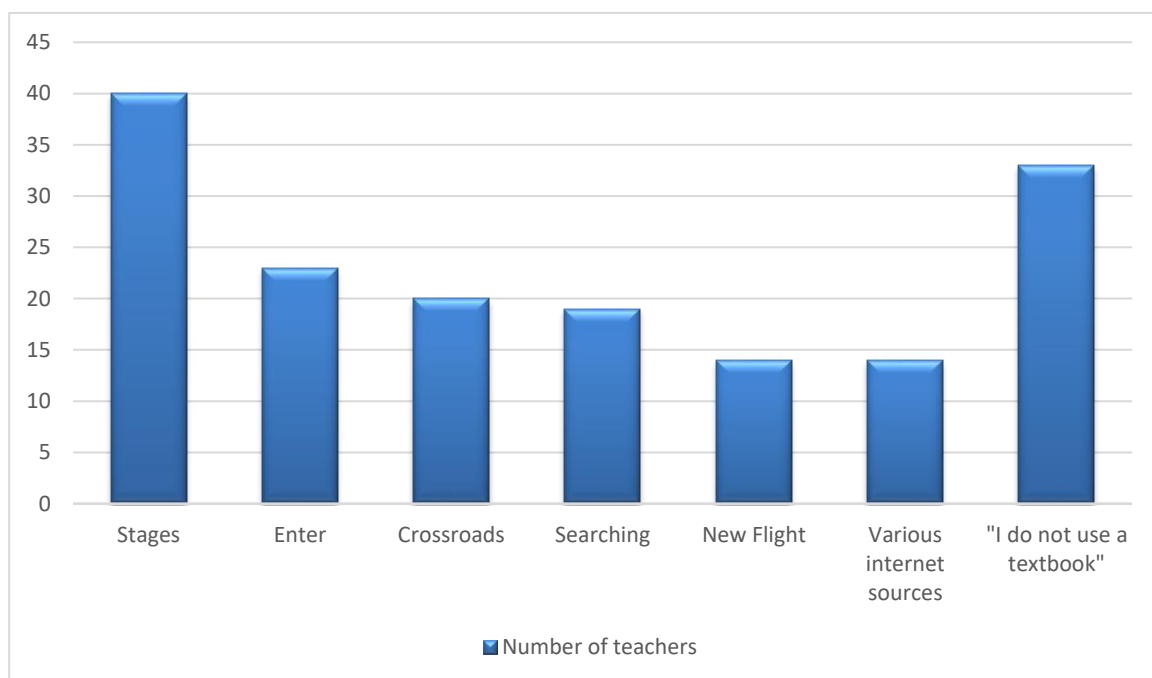


Figure 3: Textbooks used by the teachers

According to Figure 3, some textbooks were used more than others. The most commonly used textbook was *Stages* (used by 40 teachers). The unexpected result was the tendency not to use a textbook, which 33 teachers do not. Furthermore, 14 teachers also mentioned various internet sources.

Item 12 was a closed-ended question which asked the teachers to denote the degree to

which they were satisfied with the textbooks they used. Their degree of satisfaction was given on a scale of 1 to 5 from very unhappy to very happy. After all, if a teacher was satisfied with their textbook, it was more likely that they would regularly use the book for teaching purposes. Of the 209 participants, 151 teachers answered this question. Figure 4 presents the responses to this question.

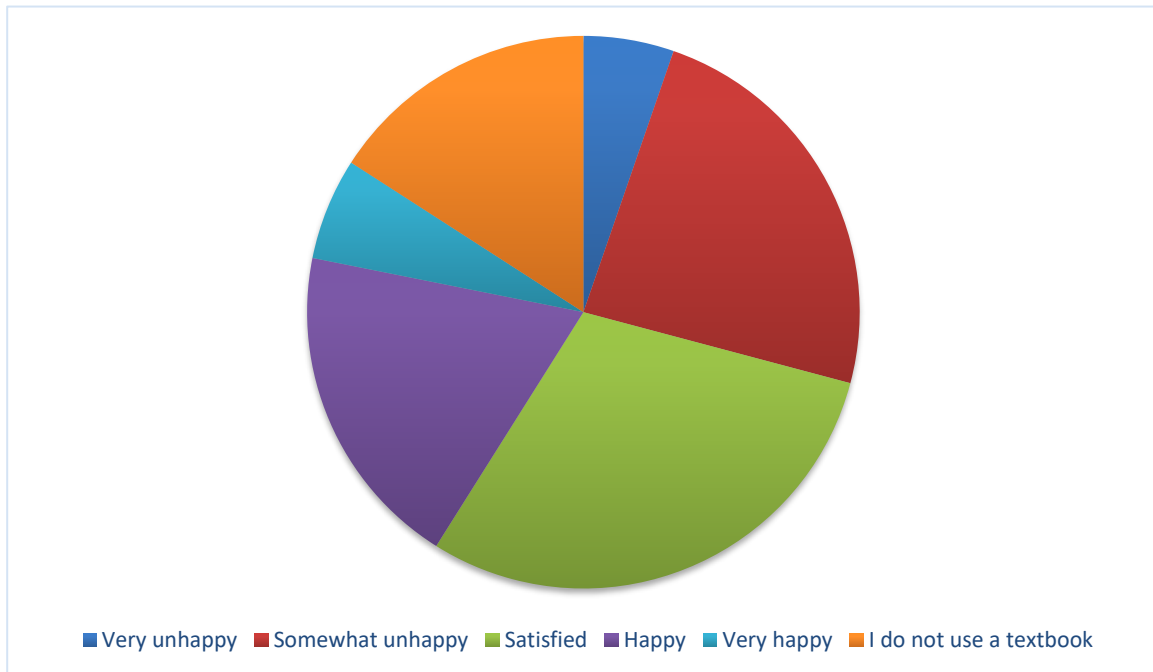


Figure 4: The teachers' satisfaction with the textbook

Overall, the teachers seemed satisfied with the textbooks they use. The majority of the respondents (45 teachers) were “satisfied” with the textbook they use. However, it might be relevant to assume that the teachers who responded that they did not use a textbook (24 teachers) might not use the textbook because they were “very unhappy” with it. If this was the case, the number of teachers who answered that they were “very unhappy” with the textbook should be even higher than the number presented in Figure 4 (eight teachers).

Item 13 was an open-ended question which asked the teachers to provide examples of sources other than the textbook they used to find literary texts for classroom use. Of the 209 participants, 141 answered this question. Figure 5 presents the responses to this question. The figure only contains sources referred to by at least 10 teachers.

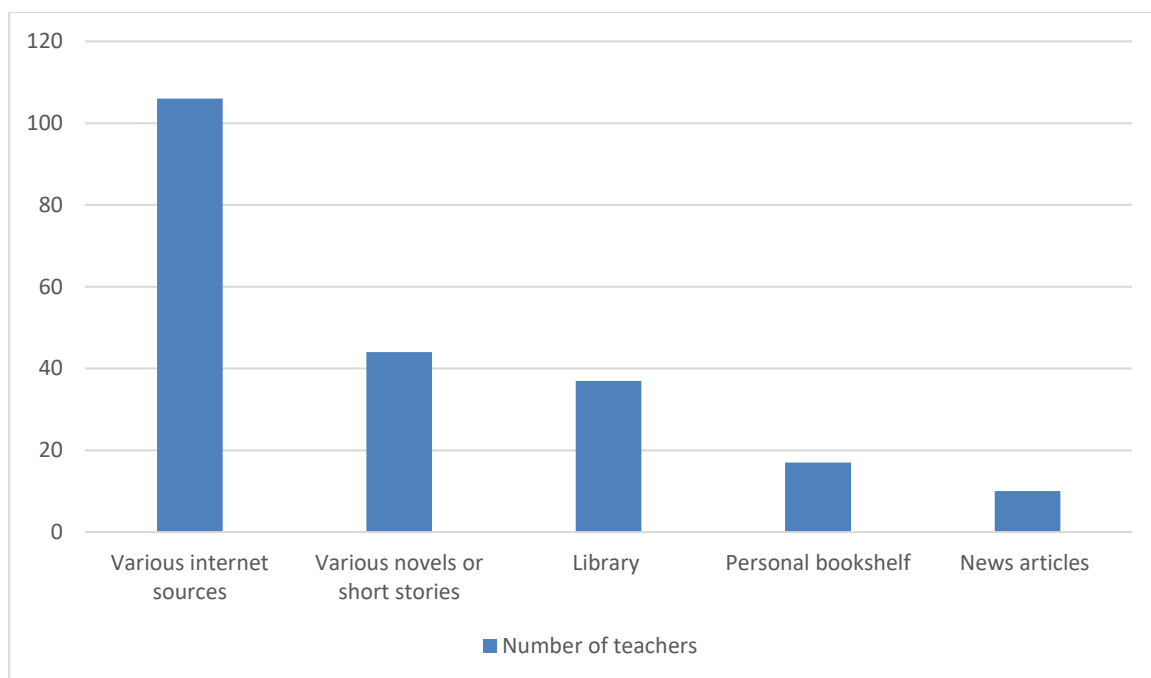


Figure 5: Sources used in addition to the textbook

In Figure 5, one source stands out, namely different internet sources. The majority of the participants (namely 106 teachers) said they use various internet sources to find literary texts for classroom use. More than half the teachers in the questionnaire chose various internet sources. In other words, the internet may be more preferred than the textbook as the primary source where teachers find texts for classroom use. Furthermore, and unexpectedly, 17 teachers said they bring books from their own personal bookshelves to accommodate their literature teaching.

Items 29 and 30 were part of a Likert scale which asked the teachers to give their opinion about four statements. The teachers were asked to respond according to what best described their English teaching practice on a scale from 1 to 4 where 1 = inaccurate and 4 = accurate. The statements targeted whether the teachers used the textbook or sources other than the textbook most often. Of the 209 participants, 148 evaluated these statements. Figure 6 presents the responses to these statements.

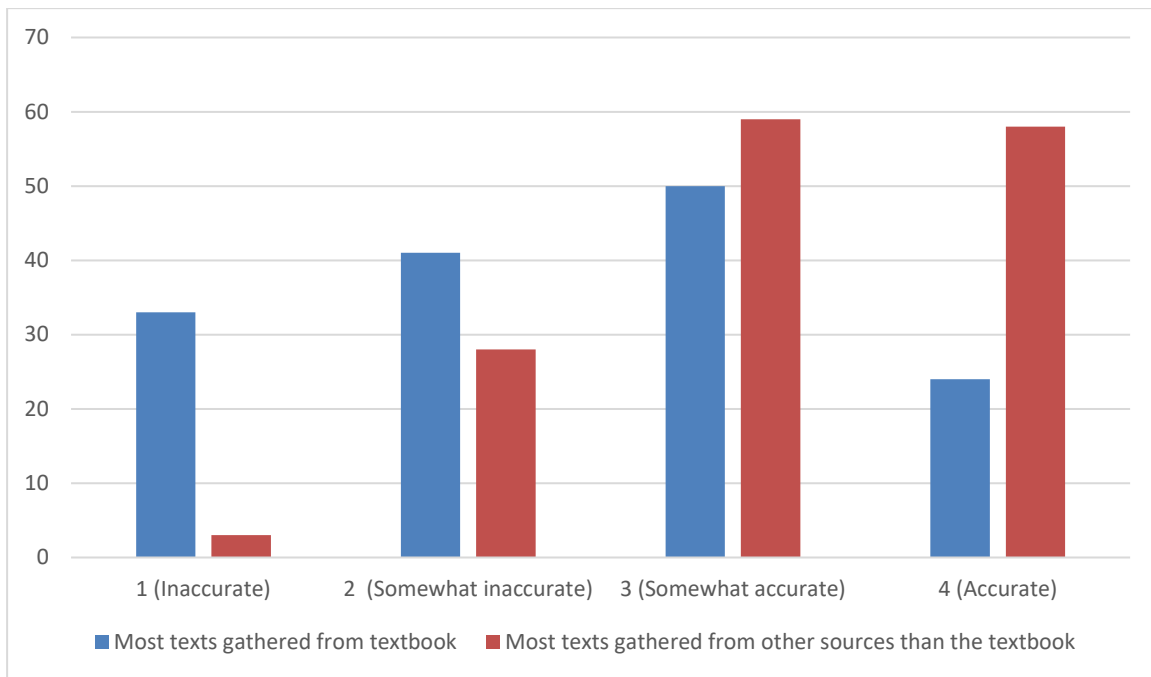


Figure 6: The textbook as a source for finding literary texts

Figure 6 indicates that sources other than the textbook were more frequently used. A majority of the teachers answered 3 or 4 (59 and 58, respectively) to the statement about using sources other than the textbook, whereas as for the statement about the textbook being their primary source, the teachers were more divided in their answers. Still, most teachers (59 teachers) found the statement about using the textbook as the primary source somewhat accurate (answered with option 3). Consequently, it seems that teachers had different opinions about whether the textbook should be the primary source for finding literary texts.

Furthermore, questionnaire item 36 used a similar Likert scale to that above, but with four options from “disagree” to “agree.” Of the 209 participants, 141 answered these items. The teachers were asked if they thought the textbook was the best source for finding literary texts. There seemed to be a trend of the teachers moving away from the textbook as their main source. Most of the teachers (75 teachers) answered “somewhat disagree” to the statement about the textbook being the best source for finding literary texts, and only two teachers answered “agree.”

From the questionnaire items presented so far in this section (Items 11, 12, 13, 29, 30, and 36), it does not seem that the textbook is the primary source where teachers find texts for classroom use. At best, the textbook shares this position with various internet sources. This

questionnaire also studied teacher versus student selection of texts. Questionnaire items 14 and 15 examined this topic.

6.1.1.2 Teacher versus student selection of texts

Items 14 and 15 were part of a Likert scale which asked the teachers to choose the alternative that best described how often they were engaged in the following practices when teaching English on a scale from 1 to 5 from never to always. The statements targeted how often the teacher chose the texts for classroom use versus how often the teacher let the students choose. Of the 209 teachers, 149 responded to these statements. Figure 7 presents the responses to these statements.

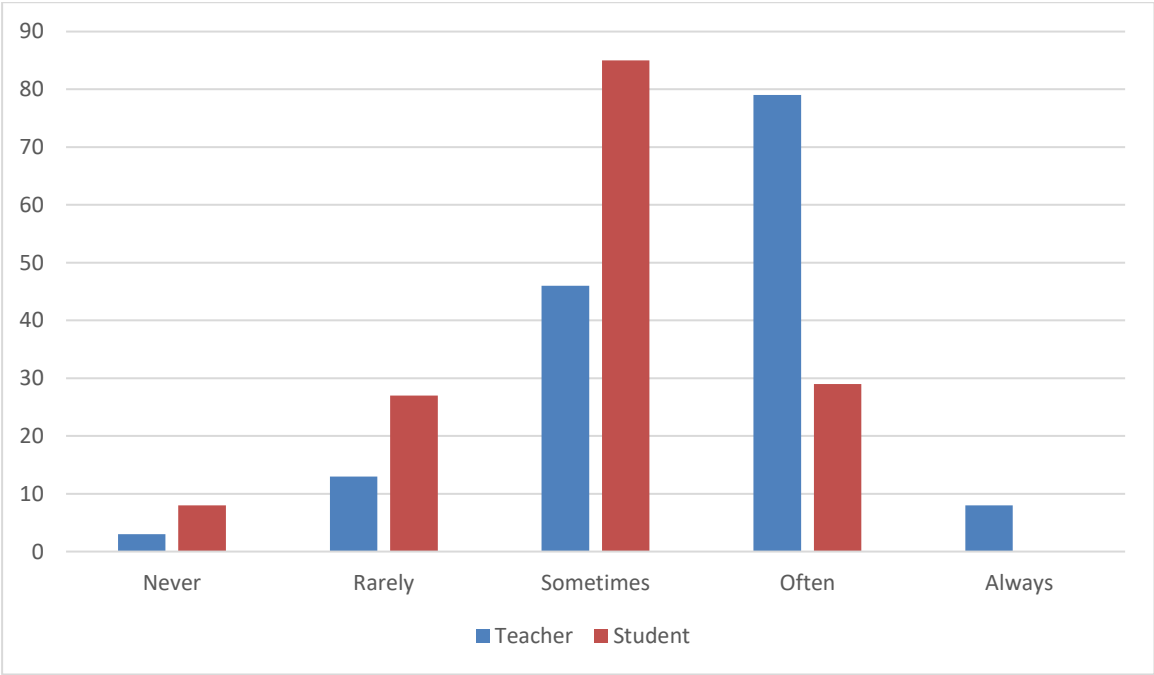


Figure 7: Student versus teacher selection of texts

Figure 7 shows the tendency for the teachers to choose the texts to be read in the classroom. Eighty-seven teachers answered that they often or always choose the texts to read in the classroom, while 29 teachers answered that they often let the students choose the texts they read. No teachers answered that they always let their students choose. Nevertheless, 85

teachers claimed to sometimes let their students choose. Consequently, it does not seem that student selection is a common approach to teaching literature in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms.

6.1.1.3 The use of entire books, time to read, and school economy

The last question, item 48, was an open-ended question that let the teachers make additional comments. Several of these comments seemed relevant for examining how the teachers approached teaching literature in lower secondary EFL classrooms. For example, it appears that the teachers found it challenging to make students read entire books. Along the same lines, having enough time to teach literature and school economy also seemed to prevent some of these teachers from teaching literature. The following three excerpts from comments exemplify this. The rest of the comments from item 48 are attached in Appendix 6.

“Teaching literature is HARD. Most of our students do not read a lot of texts. Only a few have read a book out of a free will. We need to put our main focus in encouraging the majority, and then we have to sacrifice a lot when it comes to contents and genre...”

“...As to choosing texts from other sources than the textbook, that is a question of time and capacity. We have English 3 X 45 minutes a week; we don't have time to work through many long books each year...”

“Municipality's economy plays a great (almost defining) role in my choice of literature. Our library is quite small, and we do not have access to many books in English that are different levels, as well as we do not have aims to buy lots of books for the whole school...”

6.1.2 Findings from the interviews

The interview findings relevant for answering how teachers approached teaching literature are presented below. The presentation is structured around the questions from the interview guide relevant to Research Question 1. Questions 8 to 27, 43, and 44 in the interview guide targeted where the teachers found the texts they used when teaching literature. How the teachers evaluated student selection of texts versus teacher selection of texts was also examined. Where the teachers found their texts is described in Subsection 6.1.2.1, and the teachers' thoughts on student selection of texts are presented in Subsection 6.1.2.2.

6.1.2.1 Teachers' main sources for finding texts for classroom use

Eleven interview questions examined where the teachers found texts for classroom use. These questions were mainly follow-up questions to the questionnaire items. Hence, based on the questionnaire findings, such as that teachers sometimes brought books from their own personal bookshelves, the interview guide included follow-up questions. The teachers' primary source for finding texts for classroom use was the central question for targeting where the teachers found texts for classroom use. Table 2 presents the primary sources named by the teachers in the interviews.

Table 2: Teachers' main sources for finding texts for classroom use

	Main source for finding texts for classroom use	Other sources for finding texts for classroom use
Teacher 1	Different internet sources	The textbook, the library
Teacher 2	The textbook	Different internet sources, the school library
Teacher 3	Own personal bookshelf	Old examinations, the textbook
Teacher 4	Different internet sources	The school library, the textbook
Teacher 5	The library	Different internet sources

Table 2 indicates that teachers found texts from different sources. No pattern was discovered based on the answers given by the teachers in these interviews. However, only one teacher listed the textbook as the primary source. What seemed relevant was that all the teachers agreed that the internet was becoming more frequently used as a source for finding literary texts. Teacher 3 answered that she did not use the internet as a source at present but said, “I can see myself going in that direction.” She thought she was going in that direction because of the accessibility of the internet. This was in line with Teacher 1’s responses. He explained that the textbooks “must become better and include short stories if they want to continue on the market,” which was the reason he used the internet more often. Similar to Teacher 1, Teacher 5 commented, “The textbooks are so outdated that they are almost not relevant anymore.” Teacher 2 would like to use the internet more, but it is “easier and less time-consuming to use the textbook.” Teacher 4 thought the use of internet sources was accruing because of the “digitalization of society” and “the volume of the internet.” Furthermore, he explained that “you have so many different sources to choose from there [on the internet] instead of, for instance, the learners’ book.” All five teachers agreed that they were following a shift from the textbook as the primary source for finding literary texts for classroom use to different internet sources.

The library also seemed to be a place where some of the teachers found texts for classroom use. Teachers 5 and 1 stressed that they were very fortunate to have a school library connected to the public library, and these well-equipped libraries were located in the school area. Teacher 3 explained that the public library was located right next to the school. Teacher 3’s school library was “little and not very well equipped,” so the opportunity to also use the next-door public library was welcome. In contrast, Teacher 2 described a “mini-library” at her school which she did not use very often. She explained, “Because we do not have enough money,” the library has few English books and only two class sets. She did not use the public library, even though there was one. Teacher 4 also said they had a small school library, but this one was “decently equipped,” and he sometimes found texts there. He did not use any public libraries because his town did not have one anymore. Thus, the teachers with good access to well-equipped libraries seemed to use them a great deal, while the teacher who did not have this access did not use the library very often.

Some of the teachers discussed their own personal bookshelves. What seemed relevant in terms of these bookshelves was that the teachers used them to accommodate weaker or stronger students. In this context, weaker and stronger students refer to students below and above the average skill level. Teacher 2 explained that she used her personal bookshelf to find

books for “higher- and lower-level students.” Teacher 3 evaluated her own personal bookshelf as her main source for finding books. Using her own bookshelf allowed her to “provide books to both higher-level and lower-level students.” Teacher 4 brought books from his bookshelf to accommodate advanced readers. Teachers 1 and 5 could each recollect one time when they had brought books from their own bookshelves to school. Teacher 1 said this “was a complicated book, an advanced text, to use with a 10th grader.” Teacher 5 brought books from to “meet the needs of some weaker students.” It follows, then, that these teachers used their personal bookshelves to help weaker or stronger students.

The teachers were asked about whether they taught texts they had worked with in their own schooling and/or read in their spare time. The teachers agreed on using texts they had worked with in their own schooling, but they were divided on the matter of using texts they read in their spare time. Teachers 1, 3, and 5 had used at least one text they worked with in their primary, lower secondary, or upper secondary school, and all the teachers said they had taught texts they worked with in their teacher education. Nevertheless, texts they had worked with at the upper secondary level were more used than those from lower secondary and primary education. In addition, the texts they had worked with in their teacher education were more used than the ones from their upper secondary education. Additionally, the teachers taught some texts they read in their spare time. Teacher 3 did this often, while Teacher 5 never did this. The other teachers did this from time to time. Likewise, all the teachers were open to receiving advice and guidance from colleagues about which texts to teach but did not do this very often. However, Teacher 2 found it “important and interesting to listen to what other teachers say. And also to the students – what they have experienced before. I use this to awaken students’ interests, like ‘this book works, and this book does not work’.” Teacher 2’s comment about listening to the students relates to the next subsection, namely the teachers’ perceptions concerning students’ selection of texts.

6.1.2.2 The teachers’ perceptions concerning students’ selection of

The teachers’ opinions about letting their students participate in the choice of texts for classroom use varied. The teachers’ main perceptions about this are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Teachers' main perceptions of student selection of texts

	Student vs. teacher selection of texts	Thoughts on letting students choose texts for classroom use
Teacher 1	Teacher selection only	"I have tried letting the students choose, but they don't always choose texts that apply [to the curriculum]."
Teacher 2	Teacher selection (60 %) and student selection (40 %)	"I listen to the students, and I tend to ask them as much as I can."
Teacher 3	Teacher selection only	"Hopefully, teachers will learn to loosen up a little bit and let the students start choosing some of the books they read."
Teacher 4	Teacher selection (60 %) and student selection (40 %)	The teacher's understanding of where the students are "in terms of the capability of learning is sometimes better than their own. So, us choosing could be beneficial in many cases, although choosing for yourself is also important."
Teacher 5	Teacher selection only	"I have to participate in the choices to make sure the selection is within the curriculum," but "the students need to feel that they are participating."

All the teachers in this study reported mainly being responsible for choosing texts to be read. Nevertheless, all the teachers agreed that it would be beneficial and desirable to let the students choose for themselves. It seems that the curriculum guides teacher selection of texts for Teachers 1 and 5, and for Teacher 3, the impossibility of "the teacher teaching in a lot of different directions" seemed to stop her from letting her students choose more. The teachers saw the benefits of letting the students choose the texts in relation to motivation. Thus, the teachers emphasized that a student selection of texts would increase students' interest in the text and motivation to read. Teacher 2 claimed, "Texts are more interesting to the students if they have themes that interest them [the students]" and if the students get to choose, "they actually do read." Teacher 5 noted that "if the students at least get an impression that they have participated in the choice, their motivation to read goes up." Teacher 4 saw the benefits of letting students choose texts connected to accomplishment. He said, "If the students finish their own book [own chosen book], I guess that is a really good learning experience. It also gives them student participation and reading motivation." Teacher 3 explained that "the main benefit is that you see what interests they have. And if I see a lot of the students like the same

text, then that helps me find the next text. It is just about creating that common interest.” All the teachers also agreed that very few students read outside of school. Teacher 5 said, “It varies a lot” whether the students read in their spare time; “either they read everything, or they read nothing.” Teacher 3 summarized the teachers’ answers by saying, “Very few students read.” As an illustration, Teacher 2 estimated that 98 % of her students did not read in their spare time.

However, the teachers agreed that the students learn a great deal from working with literature. All the teachers highlighted language as the primary skill that developed from working with literature. Teacher 2 said that her students learned “everything” by working with English language texts, “in particular, vocabulary, vocabulary, vocabulary and linking words, linking words, linking words”, but also “culture and more.” Teacher 1 said, “Language itself. Proper language.” Teacher 3 agreed and said, “Especially language capability; expanding their vocabulary, getting them exposed to expression that we do not use every day.” Teacher 5 discussed the students’ writing skills improving as a result of reading: “I can actually see that the students write better if they read.” Teacher 4 said, “Vocabulary is definitely one of the biggest things they learn, but also how to think about, how to reflect, on different topics.” In sum, based on these teachers’ answers, students develop language skills by reading literary texts.

What the teachers considered to be most important when they chose texts for classroom use varied. Teacher 5 wanted the texts he used to be written by famous authors and preferably be classics. Teacher 3 emphasized that the texts she used needed to be interesting; hence, she needed her texts “to have something to discuss in relation to interesting themes.” Teacher 1 wanted to teach mainly classic texts because he felt it was important that his students “know the history.” Teacher 4 clarified that themes and topics connected to the curriculum were the most crucial issue for him. Teacher 2, however, found her students’ interests to be the most important factor when she chose texts. She said, “The students have to like the book. If they do not, they will not read.”

The teachers were also asked about what they believed their students thought about working with literary texts. The teachers seemed to disagree with each other about this. Teacher 2 clearly stated that “the students find it boring [to work with literary texts].” Teachers 5 and 4 had more nuanced perspectives on this topic. Teacher 5 said, “It varies a lot. Some like it; some hate it.” Teachers 3 and 1 agreed that most of their students enjoyed reading literary texts. When the teachers were asked what they did to facilitate reading pleasure, they gave detailed answers. Teacher 4 emphasized that he made sure his students

were comfortable and without disturbances. Teacher 1 said, “First of all, I give the students enough time. Secondly, I put away grammar and let them concentrate only on the book.” Teacher 5 agreed with Teacher 1’s opinion about giving the students enough time: “I let them get enough time to sit and do it [read] – to find peace.” Teacher 2 tried to find books the students liked. Teacher 3 explained that she “creates an environment for reading” in addition to “try[ing] to expose them to different kinds of texts – because maybe you do not know that you like a mystery if you have never read a mystery, you know – it is just about opening doors for them.”

In the last part of the interview, the researcher explicitly asked the teachers about extensive and intensive reading. The researcher briefly explained the different reading strategies to the interviewees and then asked them if they supported this kind of reading in their teaching. Teacher 3 evaluated extensive reading as the most beneficial reading strategy and said that she would like to teach extensive rather than intensive reading, but this was not always possible due to time. Teacher 5 also evaluated extensive reading as the method he would like to use and “stretch towards.” Teacher 1 said he preferred extensive reading over intensive reading. Teacher 2 would ideally like to have an equal balance between the two methods. She said, “I can see the benefits from both.” Teacher 4 saw the two methods as completely different matters: “They [extensive and intensive reading] fit into completely different spheres of learning.” Teacher 4 did not evaluate one of the reading methods as more or less important; instead, he “uses them at different times” and connected intensive reading to non-fictional texts and extensive reading to fictional texts. In short, there was a tendency for the teachers to favour the extensive reading method.

6.2 Research question 2

The second research question raised in this thesis is the following: What literary texts and genres do the teachers use in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms? This was mainly investigated in the questionnaire. In the questionnaire, the teachers were explicitly asked about the different genres and titles they used when teaching literature in EFL lessons. The issue of varying which text type was taught was also investigated in the questionnaire. In the interviews, text titles and genres were discussed by asking about some of the texts and genres that stood out in the questionnaire and asking the teachers to define *quality literature*.

6.2.1 Findings from the questionnaire

The findings from the questionnaire relevant to Research Question 2 are presented below. In total, 14 items in the questionnaire were relevant to this research question. Questions 10 and 18 to 28 examined titles and genres the teachers used, while questions 31, 32, and 38 investigated variation between genres. The findings connected to text titles and genres are presented in Subsection 6.2.1.1, and the findings connected to variation are presented in Subsection 6.2.1.2.

6.2.1.1 Commonly used text titles and genres

The questionnaire gathered an extensive collection of text titles used in lower secondary classrooms. This collection mainly derives from item 10. Item 10 asked the teachers to provide the titles and authors of the literary works they used to teach English literature. Of the 209 participants, 132 answered this question. Table 4 presents the responses to this question. The table includes details such as information about the author, text type, and year of publication to highlight any common characteristics of the texts taught in lower secondary school. The table is arranged in an order where the most commonly used text is placed first followed by the second most used text and so on.

Table 4: Texts used by two or more teachers in the EFL classroom

Texts used by two or more teachers						
Title	Author	Text type	Year of publication	Author's gender	Author's geographical origin	Used by teachers
<i>The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian</i>	Sherman Alexie	Novel; young adult fiction	2007	Male	USA	25
<i>Harry Potter*</i>	J.K. Rowling	Novel; fantasy	1997 – 2007 *	Female	Great Britain	11
<i>Wonder</i>	R.J. Palacio	Novel; children's fiction	2012	Female	USA	11

<i>The Hunger Games</i>	Suzanne Collins	Novel; young adult dystopian	2008	Female	USA	10
<i>Holes</i>	Louis Sachar	Novel; young adult fiction	1998	Male	USA	9
<i>The Hate U Give</i>	Angie Thomas	Novel; young adult fiction	2017	Female	USA	8
<i>Romeo and Juliet</i>	William Shakespeare	Play; tragedy	Exact year unknown; 1595 – 1597	Male	Great Britain	7
<i>Mathilda</i>	Roald Dahl	Novel; fantasy	1988	Male	Great Britain	7
<i>The Giver</i>	Lois Lowry	Novel; young adult dystopian	1993	Female	USA	6
<i>The Boy in the Striped Pyjamas</i>	John Boyne	Novel; historical fiction	2006	Male	Ireland	5
<i>Narnia*</i>	C. S. Lewis	Novel; fantasy	1950 – 1956*	Male	Great Britain	5
<i>Lamb to the Slaughter</i>	Roald Dahl	Short story	1953	Male	Great Britain	5
<i>Fantastic Mr. Fox</i>	Roald Dahl	Novel	1970	Male	Great Britain	5
<i>The Curious Incident of the Dog in the Night-Time</i>	Mark Haddon	Novel; mystery	2003	Male	Great Britain	5
<i>The Twists</i>	Roald Dahl	Novel; children's comic	1980	Male	Great Britain	4
<i>Frankenstein</i>	Mary Shelly	Gothic novel; science fiction	1818	Female	Great Britain	3
<i>Hills Like White Elephants</i>	Ernest Hemingway	Short story	1927	Male	USA	3
<i>Coraline</i>	Neil Gaiman	Novel; children's dark fantasy	2002	Male	Great Britain	3

<i>Diary of a Wimpy Kid</i> **	Jeff Kinney	Novel; children's comic	2007 – 2020 **	Male	USA	3
<i>Animal Farm</i>	George Orwell	Novel; political satire	1945	Male	Great Britain	3
<i>The Fault in Our Stars</i>	John Green	Novel; young adult fiction	2012	Male	USA	3
<i>The Landlady</i>	Roald Dahl	Short story	1959	Male	Great Britain	2
<i>Charlie and the Chocolate Factory</i>	Roald Dahl	Novel; children's fantasy	1964	Male	Great Britain	2
<i>Indian Camp</i>	Ernest Hemingway	Short story	1924	Male	USA	2
<i>Am I Blue?</i>	Bruce Coville	Short story	2006	Male	USA	2
<i>Lord of the Flies</i>	William Golding	Novel	1954	Male	Great Britain	2
<i>1984</i>	George Orwell	Novel; dystopian science fiction	1949	Male	Great Britain	2
<i>Black Beauty</i>	Anna Sewell	Novel; children's fiction	1877	Female	Great Britain	2
<i>Unwind</i>	Neal Shusterman	Novel; young adult dystopian	2007	Male	USA	2
<i>The Witches</i>	Roald Dahl	Novel; children's fantasy	1983	Male	Great Britain	2
<i>The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn</i>	Mark Twain	Novel; children's fiction	1884	Male	USA	2
<i>A Christmas Carol</i>	Charles Dickens	Novella; ghost story	1843	Male	Great Britain	2
<i>Home of the Brave</i>	Katherine A. Applegate	Novel; realistic fiction	2007	Female	USA	2
<i>The Perks of Being a Wallflower</i>	Stephen Chbosky	Novel; young	1999	Male	USA	2

		adult bildung				
<i>To Kill a Mockingbird</i>	Harper Lee	Novel; gothic bildung	1960	Female	USA	2
<i>Oliver Twist</i>	Charles Dickens	Novel; fiction bildung	Published as a serial; 1837–1839	Male	Great Britain	2
<i>Hamlet</i>	William Shakespeare	Play; tragedy	Exact year unknown; 1599–1601	Male	Great Britain	2

* Novel series consisting of seven books; teachers did not specify which book they meant.

** Novel series consisting of 15 books; teachers did not specify which book they meant.

According to Table 4, texts written by British or American authors are by far the most commonly used in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms. Of the 37 texts the teachers listed, only one text was from an author of an origin other than Great Britain or the USA. Texts written by male authors are also more commonly used than texts written by female authors. Male authors wrote 26 of the 37 texts listed in Table 4. In addition, fiction texts are more strongly represented than non-fiction texts, and the text types of young adult and fantasy seem to outnumber the other genres. As for specific authors, there were 37 instances of teachers using Roald Dahl’s various texts. Similarly, *The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian* by Sherman Alexie seems to be the most commonly read text in Norwegian lower secondary school according to Table 4.

Questions targeting which genres the teachers used were also present in the questionnaire. Items 18 to 28 investigated this topic. Items 18 to 28 were part of a Likert scale which asked the teachers to choose the alternative that best described how often they were engaged in the practices when teaching English. The Likert scale was a 5-point scale from “never” to “always”. Of the 209 participants, 149 responded to these statements. Figure 8 presents the responses.

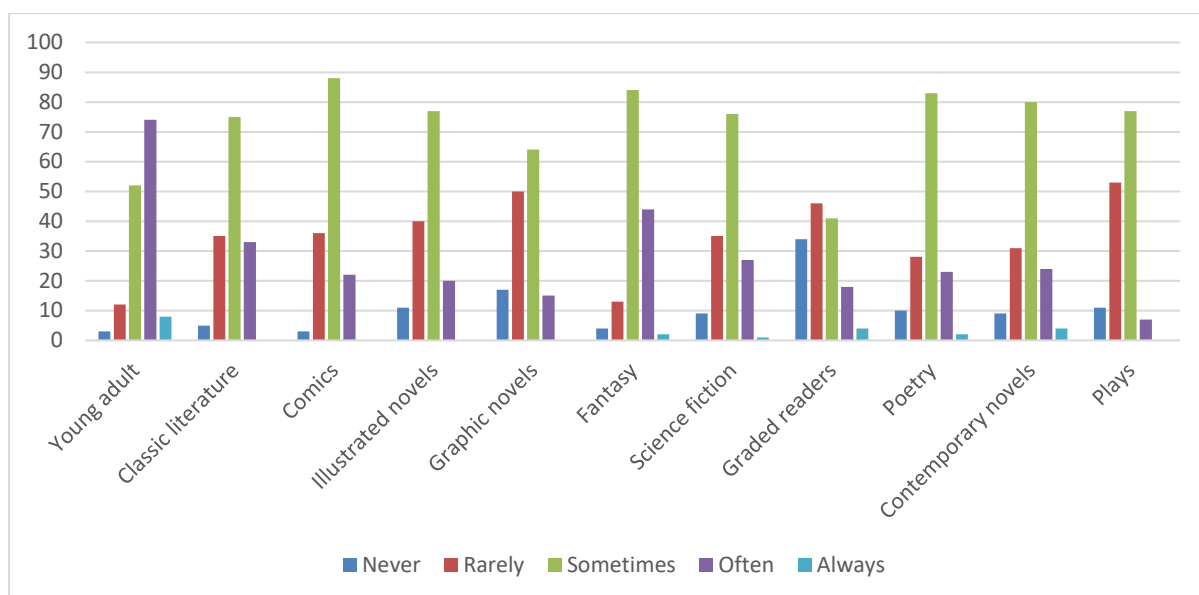


Figure 8: Genres used in the EFL classroom

Figure 8 shows that the genres of young adult fiction and fantasy are the most commonly used text types. This assumption is based on these genres having the highest scores for the options “often” and “always” combined (82 and 46 teachers, respectively). Furthermore, plays and graphic novels are less frequently used text types. This assumption is based on these genres having the lowest scores for the options “often” and “always” combined (seven and 15 teachers, respectively). Nevertheless, none of the genres from the questionnaire were reported to never be used. Hence, it seems that the teachers vary their genre choice during a school year.

6.2.1.2 Variation among genres

Whether the teachers varied their choices of genre was further investigated via Questionnaire Items 31 and 32. These items were part of a Likert scale which asked the teachers to give their opinion about four statements. The Likert scale question provided a scale from 1 to 4, where 1 = inaccurate and 4 = accurate. Of the 209 teachers, 148 responded to these statements. A significant number of the teachers varied their literature teaching among the different genres. One hundred thirty-seven teachers chose option 3 (somewhat accurate) or 4 (accurate) regarding whether they teach different genres during a school year versus the 11 teachers who

chose option 1 (inaccurate) or 2 (somewhat inaccurate) regarding the same statement. One hundred twenty-three teachers answered option 3 (somewhat accurate) or 4 (accurate) regarding whether they teach both shorter and longer literary texts in a class during a school year versus 25 teachers who answered option 1 (inaccurate) or 2 (somewhat inaccurate) regarding the same statement. In other words, the teachers varied the types of literary texts they choose for classroom use in terms of both genre and shorter versus longer literary texts.

6.2.2 Findings from the interviews

The interview findings connected to text titles and genres used in lower secondary EFL classrooms are presented below. The presentation is structured around four subtopics: the teachers' most frequently used texts, the word *quality* in relation to literature, elaboration on the texts listed in the questionnaire responses, and the use of whole works versus the use of excerpts.

6.2.2.1 The teachers' most frequently used texts

Which texts were most frequently used according to the interviewed teachers was studied through a question that asked the teachers which texts they normally used in classes they were currently teaching or had taught before. Table 5 presents the teachers' answers to this question.

Table 5: The texts most frequently used by the interviewed teachers

	The main text(s) or author(s) the teachers answered	Other texts or authors the teachers answered
Teacher 1	“The Killers” by E. Hemingway, “For Sale: Baby Shoes, Never Worn” by E. Hemingway, “The Snows of Kilimanjaro” by E. Hemingway, <i>Romeo and Juliet</i> by W. Shakespeare	
Teacher 2	C. Dickens, <i>Romeo and Juliet</i> by W. Shakespeare, R. Dahl	<i>A Midsummer Night’s Dream</i> by W. Shakespeare, E. Hemingway
Teacher 3	<i>The Boy in the Striped Pyjamas</i> by J. Boyne, “Hills Like White Elephants” by E. Hemingway, <i>The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian</i> by S. Alexie	<i>Down Under</i> by B. Bryson
Teacher 4	W. Shakespeare, <i>The Boy in the Striped Pyjamas</i> by J. Boyne, “Beat! Beat! Drum!” by W. Whitman	
Teacher 5	<i>Boy</i> by R. Dahl, R. Dahl	C. Dickens, J. Steinbeck

Table 5 shows that some authors are more commonly used than others. Various texts by Ernest Hemingway, Roald Dahl, and William Shakespeare stand out. Teacher 1 reported that he often used the same authors but switched which texts by those authors he used. Teacher 3 was concerned about choosing texts which were appropriate to the student group she was teaching but also stated, “I use the same texts for two-three years and then shift texts.” Teacher 5 said that he always used Roald Dahl but stated, “Other than him [Roald Dahl], I do not have any regular texts I always use.” In contrast, Teacher 5 said, “It has a tendency to become the same texts I teach from year to year.” Teacher 3 made a connection to the textbook when she answered the question about regularly used texts. She explained, “The textbooks are more or less the same,” which means that it “does not have to be the same authors or texts, but I use the same textbooks” to find texts every year. By contrast, Teacher 4 explained, “[I] switch it up as much as I can.” In sum, the interviewed teachers used the same texts for a number of years and then changed their selections. Nonetheless, some authors were

more commonly used than others, namely Ernest Hemingway, Roald Dahl, and William Shakespeare.

6.2.2.2 The word “quality” and literature

The interviewed teachers were specifically asked to define the word *quality* when discussing literature. The teachers had different perspectives on this topic. Teacher 1 defined quality literature as classic literature using proper language. He gave examples of texts such as *The Old Man and the Sea* by Ernest Hemingway and *Death of a Salesman* by Arthur Miller. He could not think of any low-quality texts because he said, “I do not use any of those.”

Teacher 2 defined quality literature as texts written by well-known authors and “the language and the writing” in the texts as trademarks of quality. She mentioned Ernest Hemingway as an example of an author who produced quality texts. Teacher 5 agreed with Teacher 2. Teacher 5 also defined quality literature as texts written by famous authors, but he also said that in a teaching context, quality literature also means that the texts “has a theme which is recognizable for the students.” Teacher 5 mentioned *Jane Eyre* by Charlotte Brontë as a text of high quality.

Teacher 3 emphasized that in a teaching context, a quality text needs to “have something to discuss.” She specified what she meant by saying, “Quality is ‘can you use it?’ If you cannot think of anything to start a discussion about, then do not use it.” She mentioned *The Boy in the Striped Pyjamas* by John Boyne, Ernest Hemingway, and *The Hunger Games* by Suzanne Collins as high-quality texts and, in a teaching context, William Shakespeare as low quality. She explained defining William Shakespeare as low quality by saying, “There is nothing in there to discuss, and it is hard!” She further stated, “I do not say Shakespeare produces low-quality literature, but it is of low quality for my teaching purposes.”

Finally, Teacher 4 said that a quality literary work has accessibility. He further explained, “I mean accessible so that the students can understand it.” He said, “It also has to be difficult, but just difficult enough so that the students can understand it themselves, maybe with a little push.” Teacher 4 mentioned four texts by William Shakespeare as examples of high-quality literature, and the previous learners’ book they had used, *Searching*, as an example of a low-quality book. In short, the teachers had various opinions on what a quality

literary work is; however, they agreed that a quality text in a teaching context is something different from a quality text in a literature context.

6.2.2.3 Elaboration on the texts and text types referred to in the questionnaire

In the interviews, elaboration on the most frequently mentioned texts, authors, and genres in the questionnaire was attempted. This elaboration started with the teachers being asked about the most used book according to the questionnaire, which was *The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian* by Sherman Alexie. The teachers were asked if they knew this novel, about their experiences with it, and why they thought this book seemed to be a commonly used novel. Only Teacher 3 had used the book for teaching purposes, while all the other teachers had only heard about the book. Teacher 2 stated, “Young people could easily relate to the topic, and I guess the language is easy.” Teacher 4 said, “It deals with very important topics ... which all students can relate to.” He listed “fitting in, diversity, racial sensitivity, and demographics” as the topics he found interesting in this book. Teacher 5 explained that “the topic is relevant due to the curriculum and exams.”

Nevertheless, the most relevant answer to this question was probably from the teacher who had used the book in class. Teacher 3 explained that she used the book to “talk about the Native Americans, human rights, and a little bit on racism.” She also said that it is a book which a teacher can “go in a lot of different directions [with] ... and it is about a young person. And you know, young people reading about young people is a pretty good fit” because they can then relate to it; “yeah, you know, they can put themselves in that person’s shoes and say ‘How would I react to that; how would I feel in that situation?’” As a summary of what the teachers said about *The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian*, they found it relevant for teaching purposes due to several themes relevant to young people in Norway.

Furthermore, according to the questionnaire results, Roald Dahl seemed to be the most frequently used author in Norwegian lower secondary school. The teachers were asked about their use of Roald Dahl’s texts and why they thought he was a commonly read author. All the teachers had used this author’s texts, and all the teachers discussed Roald Dahl’s book themes. Teacher 2 was the one who used Roald Dahl’s texts the most. She said his stories “are really good” and “everyone can relate to the themes. Students also like Roald Dahl.” Teacher 5 suggested that Dahl was used so often because “he has a lot of variation in his texts. He has both easy and hard texts, and he is a famous author. Even the weaker students can follow his

texts.” Teacher 1 said that Roald Dahl’s texts have themes about “not well-treated children and rich versus poor society.” These are themes young people might relate to. From these interviews, it appears that Roald Dahl is a frequently used author because he writes about themes young people can relate to.

The questionnaire also revealed that young adult novels and the fantasy genre were the most frequently used text types, while graphic novels and plays seemed to be less frequently used. The teachers in the interviews were asked why they thought this was the case and whether this information corresponded with their teaching practice. Teacher 1 did not relate to this. He was more interested in teaching classic literature, but he tried to teach young adult novels and the genre of fantasy sometimes because “this appeal to the students.” Teacher 2’s teaching corresponded with the results from the questionnaire. She said that young adult novels and the fantasy genre “are easy to relate to for students” and “all students like fantasy.” She did not use graphic novels or plays in her teaching. Teacher 3’s teaching corresponded with the results from the questionnaire. She emphasized the fantasy genre in her answer: “The students are at that phase in their life where their future is uncertain. They need to dream and escape their lives. They need a little bit of escape from reality as well.” She did not use graphic novels or plays in her teaching. She explained that plays are probably used to a lesser degree because “we are talking about a different language in old plays and keeping track of the different characters are difficult for all of us, not just students.” Teacher 4 said he taught fantasy a great deal, and he thought this was a popular genre because “the students relate to this genre, and also the topics the genre deals with.” Despite this, he thought plays were less frequently used because “with plays, you have to be really into drama to enjoy it.” For Teacher 5, the most commonly used text types did not correspond with his teaching, but the less commonly used text types did. The upshot of all this might be that texts and genres with topics close to the students’ interests are more likely to be welcomed by the students, even though these might not contain the most relevant topics for teaching purposes.

6.2.2.4 Whole books versus excerpts

During the interviews, the concept of using whole works versus excerpts was investigated. Specifically, the balance between the teachers’ use of whole works versus excerpts was examined. The teachers had different opinions on this topic. Teacher 2 stated, “There has been a development here. Some years ago, more novels than excerpts were used; now more

excerpts and short stories are used.” Her opinion was that this was happening because “there is not enough time to teach whole works.” Furthermore, she said, “We spend much more time with shorter texts and short stories than with novels.” Teacher 3 supported Teacher 2’s opinions about this: “It is very rare that I can teach whole work, unless it is a shorter version. It is just about time. It is almost exclusively excerpts. I don’t have the time to teach whole works.” Teacher 5 explained that he took time to teach one whole work during a school year. He said, “I like best to teach whole works ... and I don’t spend a lot of time on excerpts.” Teacher 1 explained that he combined the two, but he thought whole works was a better alternative. Teacher 4 said his balance of this was “in favour of excerpts.” However, he would like to teach more whole works. In sum, these teachers would like to teach whole works, but they cannot do so for different reasons, such as time and economy.

6.3 Research question 3

The third research question is “Why do the teachers teach literature in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms?” This question was investigated in both the questionnaire and the interviews. The questionnaire presented the teachers with different statements concerning why they taught literature and then asked them to signal their agreement or disagreement with these statements. In the interviews, the researcher presented the teachers with three different models (the cultural model, language model, and personal growth model) and asked them to give their opinions about these models.

6.3.1 Findings from the questionnaire

The questionnaire findings relevant for answering why the teachers teach literature are presented item by item. In total, 13 questionnaire items are relevant to this research question.

6.3.1.1 Reasons for teaching literature

The reasons for teaching literature were explored through closed-ended questionnaire items. The results are presented below, beginning with items 16 and 17. These items were part of a

Likert scale which asked the teachers to choose the alternative that best described how often they engaged in the practices on a 5-point scale from “never” to “always”. The teachers were asked how often they based their text choices on the students’ interests and skills. Of the 209 teachers, 149 evaluated these statements. The teachers were more concerned about choosing texts appropriate to the students’ skills than the students’ interests. One hundred twenty-three teachers answered “often” or “always” regarding the choice of texts based on their students’ skills, while 64 teachers answered “often” or “always” regarding the choice of texts based on their students’ interests. Nonetheless, both items were highly rated, indicating that the teachers considered both the students’ interests and skills important.

The most relevant parts of the questionnaire to the teachers’ reasons for teaching literature are items 33 to 36 and 39 to 45. These items were part of a Likert scale which asked the teachers to choose the best description of their opinion on a 4-point scale from “disagree” to “agree”. The items presented 11 reasons that might be relevant to why the teachers teach literature. Of the 209 teachers, 142 responded to these statements. Figure 9 presents the responses.

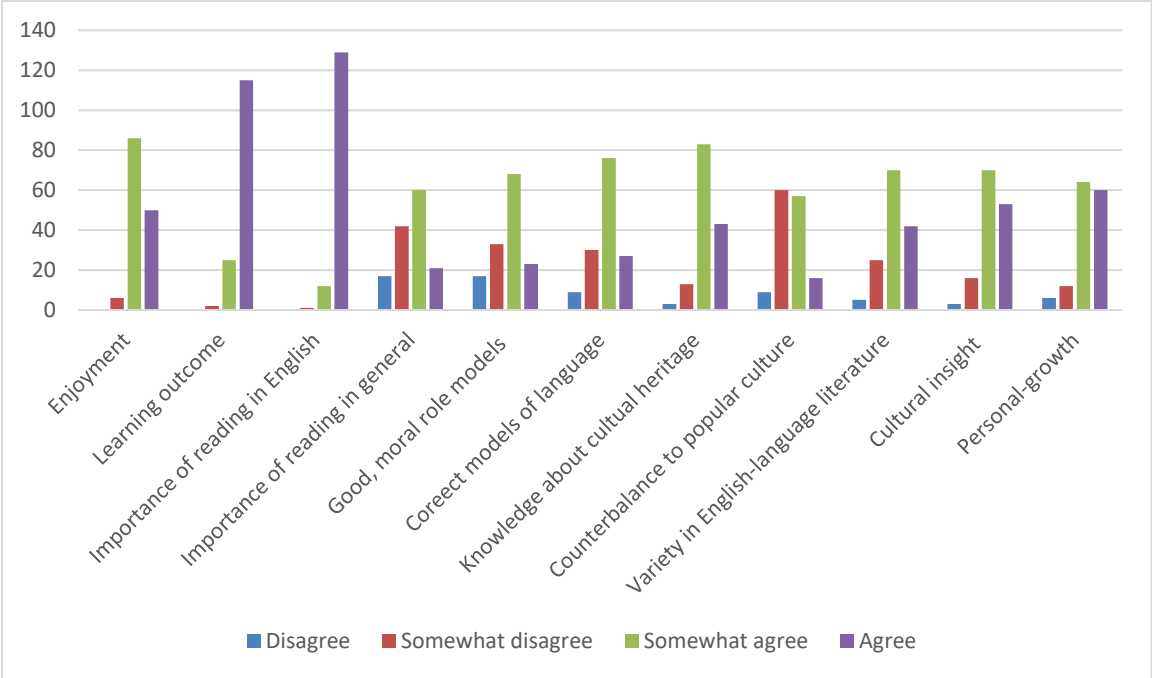


Figure 9: Reasons for teaching literature

Figure 9 indicates that the teachers considered the learning outcome and the importance of reading in the English language the most important aspects. One hundred fifteen teachers agreed with the statement that they thought students learnt a great deal by working with literature, and 129 teachers agreed that they found it important that their students read in the English language. Figure 9 also shows that the cultural model and personal growth model are highly rated. Fifty-three teachers answered “agree” concerning whether they found the cultural model important, and 60 teachers answered “agree” regarding whether they found the personal growth model important. By contrast, teaching literature as a counterbalance to popular culture seems to be the least popular reason according to Figure 9. This model had the lowest number of “agree” answers (namely 16). In sum, it seems that the teachers taught literature due to the personal growth model and because they thought students learned a lot great deal from reading and emphasize the importance of reading in English.

6.3.2 Findings from the interviews

The findings from the interviews relevant to why teachers teach literature are presented below. The presentation is structured around the three models: the cultural model, the language model, and the personal growth model.

6.3.2.1 Reasons for teaching literature

To explore why the teachers taught literature, the cultural model, the language model, and the personal growth model were presented to the teachers. The teachers could also express their free opinion about why they taught literature apart from these models. The teachers’ main reasons are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: The interviewed teachers' main reasons for teaching literature

	Main reason(s) why the teachers taught literature	Model(s) the teachers related most to
Teacher 1	“because literature improves the lesson and because of the language the students get”	The cultural model and the language model
Teacher 2	“to teach students to like literature”	The language model
Teacher 3	“To start a conversation and get a discussion going”	The cultural model
Teacher 4	“Because it is a great way of acquiring vocabulary ... and a great way of reflecting on your own life and others”	The language model
Teacher 5	“Because the curriculum says we [teachers] should”	“I place the three models equally”

Even though most of the teachers could place one model and/or one reason as the most important reason why they taught literature, it seemed all the teachers, in one way or another, related to all the models the researcher presented. Thus, Teacher 1 saw the cultural model and the language model as two sides of the same model, and the personal growth model as “an additional feature.” He explained that he felt the personal growth model was primarily relevant for students who read a great deal, and there “are few of those.” He said, “The personal growth model is probably too advanced for many [students in the lower secondary level].”

By contrast, Teacher 2 did not find the personal growth model too ambitious for lower secondary students. She explained that she would like to “open doors to the world and to everything” for her students, and the personal growth model was one way to do that. Teacher 3 was mainly concerned with using the literature she teaches to initiate a discussion. She explained that she would like to “stretch the students’ minds a bit and let them express themselves” by teaching literature. Teacher 4 said that “it is very important that the teacher and students enjoy working with literature,” which is why he had a difficult time reflecting on which model(s) he found most important. He explained, “For teaching purposes, I would have to say the language model.” Teacher 5 was very clear about the fact that he taught literature because that “is how I understand the curriculum,” but he also acknowledged that all three presented models were relevant in terms of why he taught literature. He noted that he wanted his students to “understand the world, get different points of view, and evolve their language”

by working with literature. Based on the interviewed teachers' answers, in terms of teaching purposes, the language model was the highest-rated model.

6.4 Findings apart from the research questions

The findings from the questionnaire and the interviews which did not explicitly belong to any of the research questions but were still interesting and relevant to the research focus are presented below. The presentation is structured around the following topics: little time to prepare, the non-existence of a fixed literature list of texts teachers should teach, and the LK20. The time aspect became relevant in exploring teacher cognitions because it seemed to prohibit the teachers from spending the time they wanted to on planning literature. The teachers' perspectives on the non-existence of a fixed literature list helped exclude the canon model (Subsection 3.4.1) as the primary way teachers choose texts for classroom use. Furthermore, the topic of the LK20 became important because it might bring changes to how teachers teach literature. These three topics became relevant for this thesis due to some of the answers in the questionnaire. In the interviews, these topics were more closely researched.

6.4.1 Findings from the questionnaire

Questionnaire Item 48 was an open-ended question that asked the teachers if they had any additional comments. At least eight responses to this item seem relevant. In particular, the aspect of time was emphasized. The two following quotations show some of the teachers' perceptions of the time aspect when teaching literature.

“Time is usually of the essence when it comes to reading – I find it sometimes hard to give time to read in the classroom.”

“Not enough time is devoted to literature.”

It might be relevant to assume that the teachers would like to give their students more time to read. Similarly, the absence of a fixed literature list and the LK20 were highlighted in Questionnaire Item 48 (see Appendix 6 for all the quotations relevant to these topics).

6.4.2 Findings from the interviews

The interviews were based on the research questions and elaborated on specific issues derived from the questionnaire that seemed to be important in teaching literature. The three aspects elaborated on were the time aspect, the fixed literature list, and the LK20. The following subsections are structured around these three aspects.

6.4.2.1 The time aspect

The interviewed teachers unanimously agreed that they had too little time to teach literature. The teachers would have taught literature differently if they had more time. Teacher 2 said that if she had more time to teach literature, she would let her students “read one whole book per semester at the level where they are at.” Teacher 3 “would have more structured reading hours with whole works and longer texts.” Teacher 1 explained that “a lot of time is spent on not school related-stuff”, which is why he felt there was not enough time to teach literature. Teacher 4 stated that if he had more time, he would at least include the reading of one whole novel each school year and that he would “maybe even introduce different works to the students” depending on the individual student’s ability level. Teacher 5 said that he did not have the time to teach anything to the extent he wanted to: “we are only poking the surface of everything, really.”

The time aspect was also discussed at the end of the interviews. The researcher asked the teachers if they had any additional information the research project might benefit from. Teachers 2 and 5 said that having too little time was the most important element. Teacher 2 said, “I would like to have more time and more money to spend to teach literature. I think it is a pity that we do not have more time for it.” Teacher 5 also stressed the time problem: “I have too little time to spend on teaching literature. I think about this limitation all the time.” Teacher 4 also talked about the time aspect at the end of the interview, but not as the most important issue. He said, “We are left with too little time to teach all the things that would be

beneficial to the students. There is too little time to teach in general.” In sum, the teachers thought the time aspect was a problem when teaching literature.

6.4.2.2 Fixed literature list

The teachers were asked for their opinions on the lack of a fixed literature list of texts to teach. The teachers highlighted this as being positive, but four teachers would like to have a list of suggestions. Teacher 2 answered, “It is good that we can choose, but it would be nice with some advice, like ‘these texts are good’.” Teachers 1 and 5 agreed with Teacher 2. Teacher 3 added, “To give a required list, I think that would be a mistake ... I need to have the freedom to choose the correct texts that are at the correct level of my students.” Teacher 4 said that a fixed literature list “would take away the fun in teaching.” He further explained that “I do not think a compulsory list would be a great idea, but to have a suggestion list would be a better option.” To summarize, these teachers were not in favour of a fixed literature list but wished a list of suggestions.

6.4.2.3 The Knowledge Promotion 2020

The LK20, or “Fagfornyelsen,” as the teachers called it, was also interesting in terms of literature teaching. The researcher asked the teachers about potential future changes in the teaching of literature due to the LK20. All the teachers admitted that due to a lot of extra work resulting from the COVID-19 restrictions, they had not started using the LK20 to the extent they were supposed to. Nevertheless, they expected that the new changes would be positive for the teaching of literature. Teachers 2, 3, and 4 focused on the crossover between subjects as positive, and Teacher 5 focused on the in-depth learning as the most positive aspect of this change. Teacher 1 expected “a tendency of more digital versions [of texts] used.” Teacher 4 said that he would not expect significant changes and that “the new curriculum is all about reading different texts from different parts of the world.” Teacher 5 said, “It will be interesting to see how the exams will be; this will probably, unfortunately, lead the way, I think.” In conclusion, these teachers considered the new curriculum positive for the teaching of literature, but they had not started using it, which must be taken into account when evaluating the significance of these results.

7. Discussion

This chapter discusses the findings presented in Chapter 6 in connection with the place of literature in the English subject in Norwegian lower secondary schools described in Chapter 2, the theoretical orientation discussed in Chapter 3, and the previous research presented in Chapter 4. This connection is made to answer the three research questions raised in this thesis. The first research question examines how Norwegian lower secondary EFL teachers approach teaching literature. The discussion concerning this research question is presented in Section 7.1. The second research question concerns what texts and genres are used in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms. These findings are presented in Section 7.2. The third research question explores why the teachers chose to teach literature in their EFL classrooms. Their reasons for doing so are discussed in Section 7.3. At the end of this section, a summary of the discussion is provided.

7.1 Teachers' approaches to teaching literature

The first research question investigated through questionnaires and interviews how Norwegian lower secondary EFL teachers approach teaching literature. In particular, the focus was on where teachers find texts for classroom use and how they evaluated teacher selection of texts versus student selection of texts. Based on the findings of this study, the internet is more popular than the textbook as the primary source for finding texts for classroom use. Furthermore, teacher selection of texts is more common than student selection of texts. Nevertheless, the interviewed teachers appeared to wish for more student participation, but this was not seen as possible for various reasons, such as the teachers having too little time to teach literature.

Teacher selection of texts was the predominant way the teachers in this study found texts for classroom use. Teacher selection of texts for classroom use corresponds with Carter and Long's (1991) statement that a teacher-centred approach is the most common process for text selection. Nevertheless, Carter and Long (1991) also emphasize that a student-centred approach is more likely to motivate students to read – a statement the teachers in this study supported. Krashen's FVR also favours the student-centred approach, emphasizing that FVR motivates students to read by letting students choose what they want to read. In other words,

the teachers' cognitions in this study is supported by Carter and Long's (1991) statement that teacher selection of texts is most common but also Krashen's (2004) perspective that student selection of texts is more beneficial in terms of motivating students to read.

Extensive reading was favoured by the teachers in this study. According to Krashen (2004), student selection of texts is connected to students' engagement to read. Motivating students to read by letting them participate in choices around the reading process is part of extensive reading. When extensive reading is used in language education, it is called FVR. FVR focuses on finding pleasure in reading and setting aside time every day to read what the students want to read. Prominent scholars such as Krashen (2004) have called FVR the most powerful tool available in language learning. Delanoy (2015) emphasizes that texts must also be manageable in terms of difficulty and that students must understand what they read if they are to find pleasure in reading. All the interviewed teachers discussed language learning in terms of wishing to let students choose what they want to read because they found that approach to be the most pleasurable for the students. The teachers also wanted more time set aside for reading. The teachers understood the connection between freedom to choose and motivation for reading, but they also highlighted that students need help to expand their literature scope (cf. Delonaoy 2015). Carter and Long (1991) emphasize that students are often young adults who do not know how broad the scope of literature is. In addition, students know less about social and educational perspectives than a teacher might be expected to. Hence, students also need help from their teacher to expand their scope of literature. According to the teachers' perspectives, careful balancing between motivating students to read and helping them expand their scope of literature should be attempted. In sum, the teachers seemed to favour extensive reading, but also needed the teacher-centred approach to be part of the process to ensure that the reading process was connected to the curriculum.

It is possible to connect this chain of thoughts traced among the teachers (namely motivating students through FVR but also helping them to expand their literature scope) to intensive reading. One way of viewing this is that in Nation's (2007) words, students first need intensive reading to learn *how* to read and master the skill of reading. Furthermore, the students need extensive reading to expand their knowledge about literature. In this vein, one could compare intensive reading to the teacher-centred approach, which the teachers use more than the student-centred approach. The student-centred approach could be compared to extensive reading. Hence, the teachers in this study predominantly use approaches similar to intensive reading but would like to use extensive reading if they had more time. Teachers did not seem to have the time to teach both methods and ended up with intensive reading, in many

cases leaving extensive reading out. Thus, based on the research conducted in this project, the teacher-centred model seems to be the most common approach to teaching literature in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms. The student-centred model might be the desirable approach, but this was not regularly possible in the Norwegian lower secondary classrooms for various reasons, especially the time aspect.

In this study, the time aspect prevented the use of the student-centred approach. The time aspect can be seen as a contextual factor from Borg's (2003:82) conceptualization of teacher cognition. Borg (2003) emphasizes that four factors influence what a teacher does in a classroom: schooling, professional coursework, classroom practice, and contextual factors. These factors can change what a teacher thinks, knows, and believes concerning literature teaching (Borg 2003). In this study, the contextual factor of the teachers having too little time prevented them from teaching literature in the way their professional schoolwork and classroom practice urged them to do. Hence, the teachers experienced inconsistencies in their teacher cognitions and their actual behaviour. In other words, the time aspect forced the teachers to disregard their knowledge gained from professional coursework and classroom practice in favour of the contextual factor of having too little time.

Some previous research has also highlighted the use of intensive reading more than extensive reading in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms (e.g., Macalister 2011, Gabrielsen et al. 2018, Popova 2010, Krogstad 2018). Gabrielsen et al. (2019) studied the Norwegian in Norwegian lower secondary schools. They found that reading was strongly connected to features similar to intensive reading, such as generic features relevant for texts in the same genre, and that the reading focus was not on enjoyment in reading. When comparing Gabrielsen et al.'s (2019) results and the findings in this study, the predominant use of intensive reading over extensive reading is supported.

Fostering motivation for reading through extensive reading is also supported by previous research (e.g., Krogstad 2018). Krogstad (2018) studied Norwegian lower secondary EFL teachers with a focus on attitudes towards literature teaching. She found that basing the text choice on students' preferences helped motivate students to read. This finding is somewhat similar to one finding of this study. If a text is selected based on pupils' preferences (cf. Krogstad 2018), the pupils must in some way have provided this information about what text they prefer. Granted this, one could argue that the students have taken part in choosing the text; hence, the student-centred model which was emphasized in this study. In other words, it could be argued that favouring the student-centred approach is supported by Krogstad (2018).

Reading theories that agree with student selection of texts (e.g., extensive reading) are also viewed as positive by other previous research studies (e.g., Hjorteland 2017). Hjorteland (2017) asserts that extensive reading and FVR were seen as positive by teachers in the Norwegian upper secondary school, which correlates with the findings of this study. Thus, extensive reading seems to be connected to the student-centred approach the teachers in this study favoured and some previous research supports this finding.

Extensive reading might also be compared to elements from the LK20. According to Krashen (1997, 2004), research on extensive reading is very positive. Students can expect better text comprehension, gains in reading ability, and a more positive attitude towards books as a result of extensive reading (Krashen 1997, Day and Bamford 1998). Extensive reading might even lead to better achievement levels in other subjects (Krashen 1997). Better achievement levels in other subjects are in line with the term *competence* from the LK20. In this context, to have competence means to be able to use the knowledge gained and able to apply knowledge from one problem to another. In other words, extensive reading might lead to competence which can be applied to other subjects. By this, one could argue that extensive reading is connected to the LK20 through the term competence.

Moreover, reading literature also promotes *in-depth learning* as defined in the LK20. In-depth learning is in this context means expanding students' knowledge and lasting understanding of concepts, methods, and contexts. If a teacher wants their students to embrace a specific topic for educational purposes in line with the requirements for in-depth learning, the students should be motivated to do so. This motivation could be found through FVR, and there should be literature that covers the topic the students have chosen regardless of what the topic might be. The teachers in this study favoured reading theories such as FVR. FVR can help teachers motivate students to work with their in-depth learning, which aligns with the LK20. In sum, what the teachers in this study seemed to value as the best way to teach literature correlates with the elements of competence and in-depth learning from the LK20.

The other finding concerning the first research question is related to the textbook losing its position as the primary source where teachers find texts for classroom use. This finding might also be connected to the LK20, and this connection might explain why this unexpected shift occurred. This shift was unexpected because it contradicts some previous research findings. These findings strongly suggest that the textbook is the primary source where teachers find texts for classroom use (Gilje et al. 2016, Juuhl et al. 2010, Solstad and Rønning 2003, Krogstad 2018, Bakken 2018, Lyngstad 2019, Hjorteland 2017).

Bakken (2018) states that the textbook is the primary source where teachers find texts for classroom use because the teachers emphasized detailed readings and translations of textbook texts above reading for enjoyment. Bakken (2018) also explains that teachers want to build a common ground where all level students are considered, and this is more easily done by reading from the textbook. Bakken's (2018) findings support the statement that intensive reading is more commonly used than extensive reading in Norwegian lower secondary school, which this thesis claims. Nevertheless, the present study challenges the idea of the textbook being the primary source for teachers to find texts for classroom use which Bakken argues.

In this study, the questionnaire findings indicate that many teachers were not happy with the textbook they used due to outdated and limited textbooks. This dissatisfaction could explain why other sources are more popular. However, the interview findings do not support the claim that interest in the textbook as a place where teachers find texts for classroom use is declining as significantly as the questionnaire findings suggest. The age of the interviewed teachers could explain these results. The average age of the interviewed teachers was 49. It is possible that the younger generation of teachers might have different preferences when it comes to sources than the relatively small number of more experienced teachers interviewed. Regardless, the quantitative research in this study supports the argument that interest in the textbook as a place where teachers find texts for classroom use is declining.

According to this study, the internet is taking the textbook's place as the primary source where teachers find texts for classroom use. One of the more experienced teachers highlighted the possibility of this shift being related to the LK20. According to the core curriculum (2017), students are supposed to explore certain subjects in more depth. It might be relevant to assume that a textbook might limit this journey due to the information being limited to a certain number of pages in a book. When using the internet, this journey can be as broad and comprehensive as the teacher or student wants it to be. By this, the use of the internet allows the teachers to follow the curriculum. In short, it might be natural that the internet becomes more and more prominent in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms because of the new curriculum.

7.2 Literary texts and genres taught in Norwegian lower secondary school

An examination of which literary texts and genres teachers in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms teach was also conducted in this project. This topic was especially explored in the questionnaire, where 132 teachers provided the titles of the literary texts they use to teach literature. Some texts and genres are more popular than others. The reasons for this were elaborated on in the interviews. In the questionnaire, *The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian* by Sherman Alexie, the author Roald Dahl, and novels in the young adult and fantasy genres were the more popular choices. Some specific characteristics about the texts (such as texts written by male authors) also stood out. By these results, this thesis argues that male authors' fiction texts written in the 20th and 21st centuries are more popular than others. Texts in genres that appeal to students also seem to stand out.

The questionnaire findings reveal that texts written by British and American male authors dominate literature teaching in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms. These texts are predominantly fiction texts from the 20th and 21st centuries. To some extent, this claim is supported by previous research. Lyngstad (2019) obtained similar results regarding the English subject at the upper secondary level. Specifically, contemporary novels written by male Anglo-American authors in the 20th and 21st centuries dominate literature teaching in EFL lessons at the upper secondary level.

In the Norwegian subject in Norwegian upper secondary school, Skaug and Blikstad-Balas (2019) found that texts written by male authors in the 19th century were most commonly used and that one author, Henrik Ibsen, was more popular than the others. Even though Lyngstad (2019) and Skaug and Blikstad-Balas' (2019) projects did not provide the same precise results and were not conducted at the lower secondary level, there is still one considerable similarity, namely texts written by male authors. Based on findings from Lyngstad (2019) and this project, one might also point to contemporary texts being more frequently used. Moreover, according to Skaug and Blikstad-Balas (2019) and the present project, some particular authors are frequently used, namely Henrik Ibsen and Roald Dahl, respectively. Some texts become more popular than others for educational purposes, and these texts are often written by a limited number of male authors.

Furthermore, these characteristics of taught literary texts can also be broadened to include some specific genres. There is a tendency for young adult fiction and fantasy novels to be the most commonly used genres. Plays and graphic novels are used to a lesser extent.

Comparing Lyngstad's (2019) project to the present study, there are some similarities in genre preferences. Lyngstad studied EFL lessons at the upper secondary level. She found that classic and young adult novels were more used than others, and graded readers, comics, and illustrated novels were used less frequently. Young adult novels were popular in both studies, and graphic novels in this study and illustrated novels in Lyngstad's (2019) study might be considered somewhat the same, suggesting that the results are similar. The differences in the results from these projects, especially the more frequently used classic literature at the upper secondary level (Lyngstad 2019), might derive from the fact that the projects were conducted at different schooling levels. It is possible that an upper secondary student might be better able to receive and understand a piece of classic literature than a lower secondary student.

Regarding text titles, it is also possible to compare the results of this project to Lyngstad's (2019) project. In Lyngstad's (2019) project, *The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian* by Sherman Alexie was the third most commonly used title (named by 11 teachers), while in this project it was the most commonly used title (named by 25 teachers). Similarly, in Lyngstad's (2019) project, 12 teachers named texts written by Roald Dahl, while in this project, 33 teachers did so. No specific author stood out as significantly in Lyngstad's (2019) project as Roald Dahl did in this study.

The interviews revealed that Ernest Hemingway and William Shakespeare are also frequently read. In Lyngstad's (2019) project, no teachers mentioned texts by William Shakespeare, while texts by Ernest Hemingway were referred to 12 times. The explanation for this might be that students have already encountered Shakespeare's texts several times when they reach the upper secondary level. Shakespeare's texts include language that might be difficult for students, as highlighted by Teacher 3, which could be why excerpts from more modern versions of his texts were instead taught in lower secondary school in comparison with more demanding versions in upper secondary school.

Some texts and authors stand out in the questionnaire responses. These findings were further investigated in the interviews. In the interviews, the teachers were asked to elaborate on why *The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian* by Sherman Alexie, texts by Roald Dahl, and young adult fiction and fantasy novels might be more popular than others. The interviewed teachers found *The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian* relevant for teaching purposes due to several themes relevant to young people in Norway. In general, these teachers consider it necessary that the literature taught have connections to the students' interests. This also explains why these teachers said Roald Dahl is a commonly used author. They emphasized that Roald Dahl's works include themes young people can relate to. It is

possible to connect this to the most commonly used genres as well. According to this project, the most frequently used genres are young adult fiction and fantasy, which are also genres that align with students' interests. Hence, it is important to the teachers to teach literary texts that are relevant to young people's lives and align with their interests.

Moreover, in line with these observations, McQuillian (1994) found that students valued reading as more pleasurable if they could read popular texts, meaning literary texts currently popular among most reading people. The findings of this study show that young adult fiction and fantasy novels are frequently used, and they are literary texts in genres popular among young people today.

Additionally, excerpts seem to be more commonly used than whole works. This might be connected to Borg's (2003) contextual factors. In the interviews, all the teachers said that they want to teach whole works more often, but due to the contextual factor of having too little time, this is not possible. The teachers argued that work tasks that do not have anything to do with teaching occupy much of their time and that little time is set apart for the English subject in general. With this limited time span to teach English, the teachers also have to divide the little time they have between many different English subject topics, not just literature. In short, this means that literature is often taught in the form of excerpts instead of whole works. The teachers also seemed to be to some degree prohibited from teaching literature due to economic limitations. Some teachers said their schools only had one or two whole class sets of novels, which noticeably restricted the teaching of literature. To put it bluntly, the contextual factors of having too little time and a limited economy prohibited teachers from teaching literature in the way they wanted to. Because of these contextual factors, excerpts are more used than whole works even though the teachers want to do the opposite.

This tendency to use excerpts more often than whole works is supported by previous research (e.g., Popova 2010, Skaug and Blikstad-Balas 2019). Popova (2001) studied literature teaching in the English subject at the Norwegian upper secondary level and found that short stories dominate the literature teaching. According to Popova (2010), this is because the teachers did not think they had enough time to teach literature. Popova's (2010) findings are consistent with the findings of the present study. Skaug and Blikstad-Balas (2019) studied literature teaching in the Norwegian subject at the Norwegian upper secondary level and focused on whole books versus excerpts. They concluded that excerpts were far more commonly used than complete works. Thus, the finding of this study that teachers use excerpts as a compromise between teaching literature and handling time limitations is

supported by some previous research.

A discussion of types of literary texts taught in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms must also involve the curriculum. The core curriculum, the English subject curriculum, and the curriculum for English specialization are relevant here. The core curriculum requires that students acquire a vast knowledge base, including personal development and educational growth. Moreover, the concepts of competence and in-depth learning indicate that students should be able to apply knowledge and skills across subjects and be able to think critically about these issues. The English subject curriculum emphasizes the concept of *Bildung* and identity development together with language learning and encounters with English-language texts as core elements. The English specialization curriculum refers to language learning and intercultural competence when teaching literature. In other words, the findings of this project correlate with the LK20 and it appears that teachers choose texts that have the qualities the Ministry of Education and Research requires them to have.

There are three literature-specific competence aims in the English subject curriculum (LK20 2019a:9): “read, discuss and present content from various types of texts, including self-chosen texts”; “read, interpret and reflect on English-language fiction, including young people’s literature”; and “read factual texts and assess the reliability of the sources”. The findings in this study seem to be compatible with these three competence aims. These aims embrace reading, interpreting, and understanding various fiction and factual texts, with an extra focus on young adult literature and self-chosen texts. In particular, young adult literature seems to be compatible with the findings in this project that one of the most used genres in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms is young adult fiction. Young adult literature also seems to align with why the teachers in this study believe this genre is popular. The teachers seem to value texts that reflect young people’s minds, and choosing texts from the genre of young adult fiction is one way these teachers manage to do at the same time as following the curriculum.

Additionally, the English subject curriculum has other aims relevant to this project. An example of such aims might be to “explore and describe ways of living, ways of thinking, communication patterns and diversity in the English-speaking world” (LK20 2019a:9). Such competence aims focus on learning about other cultures, ways of living, and diversity in the English-speaking world. These concepts align with the cultural model, the language model, and the personal growth model. These concepts also align with what literature can offer: a

broad scope of knowledge that includes every desired topic. Hence, it is possible to argue that literature has a more prominent place in the curriculum than it may at first appear to.

7.3 Reasons for teaching literature

The final research question explored why the teachers choose to teach literature in their EFL classrooms. To do so, a study of the cultural model, the language model, and the personal growth model was particularly explored in both the questionnaire and the interviews. On the one hand, a clear answer to which model or reason the teachers applied when teaching literature was not discovered. On the other hand, the cultural and the personal growth models are both among the main reasons the teachers in the questionnaire gave to why they teach literature, and the language model is one of the main reasons the interviewed teach literature.

The studied models (namely the cultural model, the language model, and the personal growth model) were not the most popular answers. More teachers valued the importance of reading in English, the learning outcomes, and enjoyment as the most important reasons why they teach literature. These answers might be popular because they emphasize the language model and reading theories such as FVR. The learning outcomes from reading is what the language model aims at and FVR is connected to bringing pleasure and enjoyment from reading. Hence, the language model might be considered an important reason why teachers teach literature in Norwegian lower secondary EFL lessons, and because FVR is connected to enjoyment from reading, it may be argued that FVR is considered important by teachers.

Nevertheless, the personal growth model, which focuses on gaining personal development and social understanding, followed by the cultural model, which focuses on understating different cultures, were also popular answers. Hence, the questionnaire participants seemed to favour these two models over the language model, which focuses on educational growth. This view was not supported by the interviewed teachers. These teachers seemed to view the language model as the most important model. However, they also value the cultural model and personal growth model. By extension, the research from this project does not support that one model is more used as a reason for teaching literature than another.

Additionally, reasons similar to the language model, which is concerned with promoting language development (Carter and Long 1991), have also been highlighted in some previous research. Krogstad (2018) recognizes reasons similar to the language model (literature as content and literature for language acquisition, respectively) together with

literature as personal enrichment as the main reasons why teachers teach literature. Moreover, Gabrielsen et al. (2019) suggests a reason similar to Krogstad's (2018) by stating that the learning outcomes from reading and how to use the reading materials in other connections, such as for writing, are the most important reasons teachers teach literature. Popova (2010), however, suggests cultural awareness as one of the most important reasons. Finsrud (2017) asserts that language learning, cultural studies, and personal development are important reasons for teaching literature. In sum, the present study and some previous research point to different reasons why teachers teach literature, and because of that, the findings regarding why teachers teach literature in this study are not significant.

However, Delanoy's (2015) perspective on mixing different theories becoming more popular among teachers might correspond with this. The teachers seem to value a combination of the three models for teaching and learning literature (the cultural model, the language model, and the personal growth model) and the student-centred and teacher-centred models as the best option. Different teachers had various reasons for teaching literature; still, they all seemed to be using more than one theory as suggested by Delanoy (2015).

Although it may be true that no model represents the only reason the teachers teach literature, it is also true that all the reasons to teach literature stated in this thesis and previous research correlate with the core curriculum. As an illustration, the core curriculum emphasizes educational growth and personal development among students and focuses on students achieving a broad knowledge of the world. Therefore, the language model, the personal growth model, and the cultural model are all called for in the core curriculum. Admittedly, different teachers may choose which area they want to focus on, but ultimately, there is no model which can be viewed as the correct way to do this. Individual teachers may choose how to approach this, and that is what the teachers seem to be doing according to this research and previous research presented in this thesis.

7.4 Summary

This chapter has discussed the findings in light of the relevant reading theories and previous research. The study confirmed some of the presumptions based on the previous research but also challenged some. As for the first research question concerning approaches to teaching literature, this study supports the claim that the teachers valued students' thoughts and opinions when planning for teaching literature but does not support the strong claim made by

previous research that the textbook is the most commonly used source for finding texts for classroom use. A new source seems to have taken this place, namely the internet. Furthermore, teacher selection of texts is preferred in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms because it is less time consuming. This aligns with intensive reading being more used than extensive reading. The teachers favour student selection of texts and extensive reading; nevertheless, teacher selection and intensive reading are more commonly used. Moreover, regarding the second research question, some characteristics were discovered regarding which texts and genres are taught in the Norwegian lower secondary EFL classroom. Contemporary fiction texts in popular genres such as young adult fiction and fantasy novels written by American or British authors are the most commonly taught. Regarding the third research question, no model stood out as the main reason for teaching literature in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms. Instead, the teachers emphasized the importance of reading in English, the learning outcomes, and experiencing enjoyment of reading as the most important reasons why they teach literature. Nevertheless, the teachers seemed to follow the LK20 when giving reasons for why they teach literature.

8. Conclusion

This thesis explored Norwegian lower secondary teachers' cognitions about teaching literature in EFL lessons by answering three research questions regarding the teachers' approaches to teaching literature, what texts and genres they use, and why they teach literature in their EFL classrooms. The term *teacher cognitions* includes teachers' thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs about their teaching of literature. The data was collected through an online questionnaire and five semi-structured interviews conducted with Norwegian lower secondary EFL teachers. The answers to the three research questions are summarized below.

First, the internet seems to have replaced the textbook as the primary source for finding literary texts to teach. This shift seems to have occurred because of the accessibility of the internet as opposed to somewhat outdated textbooks and their limited content. It also seems that teachers would like to involve students to a greater degree when planning lessons, but due to different limitations, especially the time limitation, this is not possible. In particular, the teachers choose texts for literature teaching more often than their students do, even though the teachers find it beneficial to let the students choose the text to be used in the classroom. As a result, intensive reading is more frequently used than extensive reading in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms, even though the teachers desire the opposite.

Furthermore, contemporary fiction texts written by British and American male authors are the primary texts teachers choose. These texts are often written in genres that appeal to young adults, such as fantasy texts. It is also important that the literary pieces taught have themes that the students can connect to. Consequently, a novel about a teenager who does not fit in, namely *The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian* by the American male author Sherman Alexie, is the most commonly read book in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms. Additionally, different texts by the British male author Roald Dahl are also popular in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms because of the relevant themes they contain. In terms of what is taught, text excerpts are more frequently used than whole works, primarily due to the time limitation. However, the teachers expressed the idea that they would like to teach whole works more frequently.

Reasons such as the importance of reading in English, the learning outcomes of reading, and experiencing enjoyment from reading were the most popular reasons why teachers teach literature. The teachers also consider the understanding of cultures different from the students' culture, students' development of proper language, and students'

development of self-awareness some of the most important reasons why they teach literature. Nevertheless, there were no significant results regarding which model the teachers prefer as their reason to teach literature; hence, no conclusion can be drawn regarding why teachers teach literature in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms. However, the teachers are concerned about following the curriculum, especially the core curriculum's overall goals and the English subject curriculum's specific goals, when teaching literature. The LK20 include the teaching of literature, which could be considered an important reason why the teachers teach literature.

Ultimately, this thesis was intended to clarify the relationship between literature teaching in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms and teacher cognitions. To be able to do this, a connection to the LK20 had to be made. The teachers agreed that literature is beneficial for helping students encounter the cultural model, the language model, and the personal growth model. Thus, literature helps to achieve the overall goals of the core curriculum of opening doors to the world and helping students evolve personally and educationally. Additionally, literature can help students understand any specific subject at a deeper level and thus promotes *in-depth learning*. Literature can also be used in all subjects and can work as a bridge between different subjects, which is the goal of the term *competence* the LK20 promotes. Nevertheless, the teachers understood all these connections but could not encounter literature to the extent they wanted to because of the time limitation. On the one hand, if the LK20 included more than three literature-specific competence aims, teachers might include more literature in their teaching. On the other hand, the LK20 includes so many other literature-relevant suggestions, such as the core curriculum goals, in-depth learning, and competence, that literature's place in the subject of English might be self-explanatory. Regardless, it seemed to be the contextual factor of time that stopped teachers from pursuing the time-consuming but highly relevant world of literature.

The data used to answer the three research questions above were gathered based on a relatively large number of respondents compared with some other research done in this area. Compared to some previous research on EFL teachers in lower secondary school (Krogstad 2018, Bakken 2018) and EFL teachers in upper secondary school (Lyngstad 2019, Hjorteland 2017, Popova 2010, Stavik 2015), the sample in this study is relatively large. Two hundred nine teachers participated in the questionnaire and five teachers were interviewed, whereas the average number of respondents in the previous research studies presented above was 48. Although some of the teachers did not answer all the questionnaire items, the questionnaire completion rate was 78 %. Hence, many teachers answered most of the questions. It is not

clear why some teachers did not answer all the questionnaire items. Nevertheless, a sampling of 209 teachers for online questionnaires and five teachers for interviews was not significantly high. Accordingly, generalizations about the entire EFL teacher population in Norway cannot be made.

The contribution of this research is connected to the schooling level this study was conducted at and teacher cognitions. This research has contributed to a better understanding of a recent and underexamined field within educational research, namely teacher cognitions. The study has attempted to contribute to an understanding of teacher cognitions about literature teaching in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms. Hence, the study contributes to a more comprehensive picture of teacher cognitions and a better understanding of literature teaching in lower secondary school, which compared to the upper secondary level is underrepresented in the research literature.

Moreover, a more extensive understanding of what texts and genres are taught in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms was achieved. This might benefit EFL teachers in terms of choosing what texts to use in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms. Other recommendations for EFL teachers might also be made. For instance, applying a teacher-centred approach when selecting texts for classroom use might help teachers deal with the time-limitation, and teaching literary texts with genres and themes relevant to the students' interests seems to help motivate students. Norwegian EFL teachers might benefit from knowing this because it may become easier to create eagerness and interest in students who initially do not enjoy the time-consuming activity of reading.

Based on the results of this study, some recommendations for further studies can also be made. Teacher cognitions, meaning what teachers think, know, and believe as they plan, conduct, and evaluate teaching (Borg 2003), is a broad area within teaching which needs more examination. A thorough exploration of *why* teachers make the choices they do, both when planning what to teach and how to teach, could be a starting point for such research. Additionally, different limitations in a teacher's day-to-day practices and the establishment of some elements from the LK20 (such as in-depth learning) could also be worth studying. This project reveals that some teachers find it frustrating not to have enough time, money, or resources to teach what they want to. Studying how great of an impact this has on teaching quality would be interesting. Likewise, it would be interesting to research whether the new curriculum, the LK20, make a difference to the teaching and learning quality in Norwegian EFL classrooms.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: The questionnaire

Part A, introductory questions (closed answer options)

1. I have carefully read the consent form and volunteer to participate in this survey (yes, no)
2. Which county do you work in? (Troms og Finnmark, Nordland, Trøndelag, Møre og Romsdal, Vestland, Rogaland, Agder, Vestfold og Telemark, Viken, Oslo, Innlandet)
3. Age - optional! (20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, 60-69, 70 and up)
4. Gender (male, female)
5. Professional title (adjunkt, adjunkt med tilleggsutdanning, lektor, lektor med tilleggsutdanning, lærer, faglærer uten pedagogisk utdanning, annet)
6. Formal competence in English (less than 60 study points, 60 study points, bachelor degree/"mellomfag", Master`s degree/"hovedfag", PhD/Dr. Art.)
7. How many years of teaching experience do you have? (0-5, 6-10, 11-20, 21-30, more than 30)
8. Which grade are you teaching this year? – can select more than one option (8th grade, 9th grade, 10th grade)
9. What kind of reading do you read in your spare time? – can select more than one option (fiction, non-fiction, short literary texts (e.g., poems and short stories), longer literary texts (e.g., plays and novels))

Part B, questions about specific texts and textbooks (open answer questions)

10. Provide the titles and authors of the literary works you are using to teach literature in the English subject this year, e.g., *The Adventures of Sherlock Holmes*, by Arthur Conan Doyle.
11. Provide the title(s) of the textbook(s) you use when teaching lower secondary subject English. If you do not use a textbook, please write that.
12. **Answer options denoting 5 degrees of options: from 1 not at all to 5 extremely satisfied.** How satisfied are you with the selection of literary texts in the textbook(s) you use?

13. Provide examples of other sources than the textbook you use to find literary texts for classroom use.

Part C1, questions about classroom practice (answer options denoting 5 degrees of option: never – rarely – sometimes – often - always)

14. I choose the literary texts that my students read
15. I let the students choose the literary texts they wish to read
16. I choose the literary texts I teach according to my students` interests
17. I choose the literary texts I teach according to my students` skills
18. I use young adult literature in my classroom
19. I use classic literature in my classroom
20. I use comics in my classroom
21. I use illustrated novels in my classroom
22. I use graphic novels in my classroom
23. I use fantasy in my classroom
24. I use science fiction in my classroom
25. I use “graded readers” in my classroom
26. I use poetry in my classroom
27. I use contemporary novels in my classroom
28. I use plays in my classroom

Part C2, questions about classroom practice (answers denoting 4 degrees of option from inaccurate to accurate in numerical form)

29. I take most of the literary texts I use from the students` textbook(s)
30. I use other sources than the students` textbook when I select literary texts for my students to read
31. I teach several different genres with a class during a school year
32. I teach both short literary texts (e.g., poems and short stories) and longer literary texts (e.g., plays and novels) with a class during a school year

Part D, questions on the teachers` beliefs about literature and literature teaching (answers denoting 4 degrees of option: agree – somewhat agree – somewhat disagree - disagree)

33. I teach the literary texts I do, because I think my students enjoy them

34. I teach the literary texts I do, because I think my students learn a lot from working with them
35. I think it is important that students in lower secondary school read English-language literature
36. I think the textbook(s) is the best source for finding literary texts
37. I do not think it is important *what* the students read, as long as they read
38. When I choose literary texts for classroom use, I include at least one longer work (e.g., play or novel) for the students to read during a school year
39. When I choose literary texts for classroom use, I try to find texts that include good, moral role models
40. When I choose literary texts for classroom use, I try to find texts that provide correct models of language
41. When I choose literary texts for classroom use, I try to find texts that will provide my students with knowledge about the cultural heritage of the English speaking world
42. When I choose literary texts for classroom use, I try to find texts that can serve as a counterbalance to popular culture
43. When I choose literary texts for classroom use, I try to find texts that reflect the variety present in the English-language literature
44. When I choose literary texts for classroom use, I try to find texts that include insight to cultures which are different from my students' culture
45. When I choose literary texts for classroom use, I try to find texts which promote self-awareness and personal growth for my students

Part E, further contact and summary

46. **Close answer options (yes, no).** Would you be willing to participate in a further in-depth interview on the subject of teaching literature in the Norwegian lower secondary school?
47. **Open answer question.** If you answered yes to the previous question, please provide your e-mail address here.
48. **Open answer question.** Do you have any additional comments on the survey you have just participated in?

Appendix 2: The interview guide

Part A, introductory questions

1. Age? (optional)
2. Which county do you work in?
3. Which grades do you teach this year?
4. What other subjects do you teach?
5. How long have you been working as a teacher?
6. What is your academic background?
7. Do you think literature has/should have an important place in the English subject in lower secondary school?

Part B, Research Question 1: How do the Norwegian lower secondary teachers approach teaching literature in their EFL classrooms?

8. Do you follow other teachers` teaching plans or do you create your own?
9. Where do you find the texts you use when teaching literature in lower secondary English?
10. Do you think English literature texts are easily accessible?
11. When examining research done in the field of teaching literature in Norwegian schools, it seems the textbook is the main source where teachers find texts for classroom use. Does this apply to your teaching practice?
12. In my survey, it seems there is an ongoing shift from the textbook to different internet sources as the main source where teachers find their texts. Does this apply to your teaching practice? Why do you think this shift is accruing?
13. Does your school have a school library? If yes, is it a well-equipped library? Do you find texts for classroom use here? If no, how do you think this affects your teaching?
14. Do you sometimes visit public libraries? If yes, do you find texts for classroom use here?
15. Do you sometimes bring books from your own personal bookshelf to the classroom? If yes, do the students you supply these books have any specific characteristics?

16. How do you think the balance between student and teacher selection of reading material should be?
17. How often do *you* decide which text to read versus letting *the students* decide?
18. What do you consider *most important* when you decide on which texts to teach? For example, do you consider the students' skills or interests most important?
19. What benefits do you see from letting the students choose what they want to read?
20. In your experience, what do students think about working with literature in the English lessons? E.g., do they enjoy working with it?
21. What do you do to facilitate pleasure of reading in your students?
22. What do you think students learn by working with literature in the English lessons?
23. In your experience, do you think your students read in their spare time?
24. Do you teach texts you worked with in your own primary, lower secondary, or upper secondary education?
25. Do you teach texts you worked with in your teacher education?
26. Do you teach texts you read in your spare time for enjoyment?
27. Do you find texts based on other teachers' suggestions? If yes, do the teachers you take advice from have any specific characterizations? E.g., being more or less experienced than you, etc.

Part C; Research Question 2: What literary texts and genres do the teachers use in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms?

28. Are there particular texts you usually use with all the classes you teach/have taught?
29. Do you use the same literary works from year to year, or do you switch around?
30. How do you define the word quality when talking about literature?
31. Do you have examples of high-quality books/texts? Why these?
32. Do you have examples of low-quality books/texts? Why these?
33. From my survey, it seems *The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian* by Sherman Alexie is the most used novel in lower secondary school. Do you know about this novel? If yes, have you used it, what are your experiences with that, and why do you think this is the most used? If no, do you have any thoughts on why a book concerning a native American teenage boy trying to fit into an all-white school is the most read novel?

34. From my survey, it seems Roald Dahl is the most read author in lower secondary school. Do you use any books from Roald Dahl? If yes, which? Why do you think so many teachers use Roald Dahl?
35. From my survey, it seems young adult novels, contemporary novels, and the genre of fantasy are the most used text types/genres. Why do you think this is? How does this correspond with your teaching practice?
36. From my survey, it seems graded readers, graphic novels and plays are the less used text types/genres. Why do you think this is? How does this correspond with your teaching practice?

Part D; Research Question 3; Why do the teachers teach literature in Norwegian lower secondary EFL classrooms?

37. *Why* do you teach literature?
38. The cultural model is a model for teaching literature that focuses on letting the students experience other ways of living, other ideologies, and religions, across time and space. In other words, experiencing ways of living different from the person who is reading it. Is *to teach your students about other cultures* a reason why you teach literature?
39. The language model is a model for teaching literature that is concerned with promoting language development. That is, the goal is to make the students use a text as something to study to attain a learning outcome concerning, for instance, linguistic forms, vocabulary, genres, text structures, or similar. Is *promoting language development* a reason why you teach literature?
40. The personal growth model is a model for teaching literature that is concerned with learning something more than what is actually stated in the text. It aims to learn students to be more self-aware of their place in society, and by that undergo personal growth. Is *to let students undergo personal growth* a reason why you teach literature?
41. Do you have any other reasons to teach literature that you can think of after talking a bit about this subject?
42. From my survey, it seems the personal growth model, shortly followed by the cultural model, are the most used reasons for why to teach literature. Why do you think this is?

Part E: additional questions

43. Extensive reading is performed when students do a self-selected reading with only minimal accountability for what they read. In other words, extensive reading is to read for pleasure. Do you support extensive reading in your teaching? If yes, what benefits do you see from this? If no, why?
44. Intensive reading is performed when students close read a relatively short text with a specific goal in mind, for instance, to learn about a specific text structure. Do you support intensive reading in your teaching? If yes, what benefits do you see from this? If no, why?
45. How do you balance the use of excerpts versus the use of whole works in your literature teaching? Why do you use this balance?
46. Do you think you have enough time to teach literature in English lessons? If no, what would you have done differently if you had more time?
47. Do you feel prohibited to teach literature to the extent you want to due to limitations (e.g., economical, time to prepare, access to books, etc.) in your day-to-day practice?
48. There does not exist a fixed literature list of texts which should be taught in school. What is your opinion on this?
49. Do you see any differences in the teaching of literature from LK06 to LK20? Further, can you see any differences that might occur?
50. Is there any additional information about your literature teaching you think would be beneficial for me to know about? Follow up: What is the *most important* thing you have told me about your literature teaching today?

Appendix 3: The letter sent out to all Norwegian lower secondary schools

Hei,

Jeg skriver en masteroppgave ved Universitetet i Stavanger og i den forbindelse trenger jeg svar på et spørreskjema fra engelsklærere som jobber i ungdomsskolen.

Kan du hjelpe meg ved å videresende teksten under og det vedlagte informasjonsskrivet til engelsklærerne som jobber ved din arbeidsplass?

Jeg hadde satt stor pris på hvis du kan hjelpe meg!

Med vennlig hilsen

Nina Refsland,

lektorstudent ved Universitetet i Stavanger.

Hei,

Jeg skriver en masteroppgave ved Universitetet i Stavanger, og i den forbindelse vil jeg be deg om å svare på et spørreskjema rundt temaet «litteraturundervisning i engelskfaget i den norske ungdomsskolen.»

Jeg hadde satt stor pris på hvis du tok deg tid til å svare. Estimert tidsbruk er mellom 8 og 12 minutter.

Vedlagt ligger et informasjonsskriv om undersøkelsen. I spørreskjemaet vil du bli bedt om å samtykke til din deltakelse i undersøkelsen på bakgrunn av det som står i dette informasjonsskrivet.

Følg lenken for å svare på spørreskjemaet:

<https://no.surveymonkey.com/r/8CZJCD7>

Tusen takk for hjelpen!

Med vennlig hilsen

Nina Refsland,

lektorstudent ved Universitetet i Stavanger.

Appendix 4: NSD approval

4.12.2020

Meldeskjema for behandling av personopplysninger

DEL PROSJEKTET MED PROSJEKTANSVARLIG

Det er obligatorisk for studenter å dele meldeskjemaet med prosjektansvarlig (veileder). Det gjøres ved å trykke på "Del prosjekt" i meldeskjemaet.

<https://meldeskjema.nsd.no/vurdering/5f60817a-2ad6-4efa-b95c-9c19c7acb01e>

1/3

4.12.2020

Meldeskjema for behandling av personopplysninger

MELD VESENTLIGE ENDRINGER

Dersom det skjer vesentlige endringer i behandlingen av personopplysninger, kan det være nødvendig å melde dette til NSD ved å oppdatere meldeskjemaet. Før du melder inn en endring, oppfordrer vi deg til å lese om hvilke type endringer det er nødvendig å melde:

<https://www.nsd.no/personverntjenester/fyll-ut-meldeskjema-for-personopplysninger/melde-endringer-i-meldeskjema>

Du må vente på svar fra NSD før endringen gjennomføres.

TYPE OPPLYSNINGER OG VARIGHET

Prosjektet vil behandle alminnelige kategorier av personopplysninger frem til 31.05.2021.

LOVLIG GRUNNLAG

Prosjektet vil innhente samtykke fra de registrerte til behandlingen av personopplysninger. Vår vurdering er at prosjektet legger opp til et samtykke i samsvar med kravene i art. 4 og 7, ved at det er en frivillig, spesifikk, informert og utvetydig bekreftelse som kan dokumenteres, og som den registrerte kan trekke tilbake. Lovlig grunnlag for behandlingen vil dermed være den registrertes samtykke, jf. personvernforordningen art. 6 nr. 1 bokstav a.

PERSONVERNPRINSIPPER

NSD vurderer at den planlagte behandlingen av personopplysninger vil følge prinsippene i personvernforordningen om:

- lovlighet, rettferdighet og åpenhet (art. 5.1 a), ved at de registrerte får tilfredsstillende informasjon om og samtykker til behandlingen
- formålsbegrensning (art. 5.1 b), ved at personopplysninger samles inn for spesifikke, uttrykkelig angitte og berettigede formål, og ikke viderebehandles til nye uforenlige formål
- dataminimering (art. 5.1 c), ved at det kun behandles opplysninger som er adekvate, relevante og nødvendige for formålet med prosjektet
- lagringsbegrensning (art. 5.1 e), ved at personopplysningene ikke lagres lengre enn nødvendig for å oppfylle formålet

DE REGISTRERTES RETTIGHETER

Så lenge de registrerte kan identifiseres i datamaterialet vil de ha følgende rettigheter: åpenhet (art. 12), informasjon (art. 13), innsyn (art. 15), retting (art. 16), sletting (art. 17), begrensning (art. 18), underretning (art. 19), dataportabilitet (art. 20).

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

Behandlingen kan starte.

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

FØLG DIN INSTITUSJONS RETNINGSLINJER

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

Survey Monkey er databehandler i prosjektet. NSD legger til grunn at behandlingen oppfyller kravene til bruk av databehandler, jf. art 28 og 29.

For å forsikre dere om at kravene oppfylles, må dere følge interne retningslinjer og eventuelt rådføre dere med behandlingsansvarlig institusjon.

OPPFØLGING AV PROSJEKTET

NSD vil følge opp ved planlagt avslutning for å avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet.

<https://meldeskjema.nsd.no/vurdering/5f60817a-2ad6-4efa-b95c-9c19c7acb01e>

2/3

4.12.2020

Meldeskjema for behandling av personopplysninger

Lykke til med prosjektet!

Kontaktperson hos NSD: Gry Henriksen
Tlf. Personventjenester: 55 58 21 17 (tast 1)

<https://meldeskjema.nsd.no/vurdering/5f60817a-2ad6-4efa-b95c-9c19c7acb01e>

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Appendix 5: The information letter to participants for the questionnaire and the interviews

Vil du delta i forskningsprosjektet

”Norwegian lower secondary school teachers` cognitions about teaching literature in EFL lessons”?

Dette er et spørsmål til deg om å delta i et forskningsprosjekt hvor formålet er å forske på litteratureundervisningen i skolefaget engelsk i den norske ungdomsskolen. I dette skrivet gir vi deg informasjon om målene for prosjektet og hva deltakelse vil innebære for deg.

Formål

I dette master prosjektet utforskes norske ungdomsskolelærere sine metoder for å undervise litteratur. Det vil være et ekstra søkelys på hvilke litterære tekster og sjangere som brukes i den norske ungdomsskolen, hvordan lærere velger litterære tekster til klasseroms bruk og hvordan disse tekstene undervises. Disse problemstillingene vil bli forsøkt belyst gjennom en blandet metode, det vil si at det brukes både kvantitativ og kvalitativ forskning i dette prosjektet. Først vil et kvantitativt spørreskjema bli sendt ut til en stor mengde lærere over hele landet, deretter vil tre – fem lærere bli bedt om å delta i kvalitative intervjuer.

Hvem er ansvarlig for forskningsprosjektet?

Student Nina Refsland er ansvarlig for forskningsprosjektet. Universitetet i Stavanger, ved førsteamanuensis Dina Lialikhova, veileder studenten i dette arbeidet.

Hvorfor får du spørsmål om å delta?

Du blir bedt om å delta i dette prosjektet fordi din arbeidsplass oppgir at du arbeider som engelsk lærer på et av ungdomsskoletrinnene. Elektroniske spørreskjemaer er blitt sendt til engelsk lærere over hele landet. Dersom du oppgir på spørreskjemaet at du vil være villig til å delta i et videre intervju om dette temaet, vil du bli kontaktet av prosjektleder dersom din deltakelse behøves.

Hva innebærer det for deg å delta?

Dersom du har mulighet til å delta i dette prosjektet, vil du i første omgang svare på et elektronisk spørreskjema som inneholder 45 spørsmål. Førte av spørsmålene er avkryssningsspørsmål, så en deltakelse i denne delen av prosjektet vil ikke være tidskrevende.

Det anslås at det vil ta deg ca. åtte – tolv minutter å svare på dette spørreskjemaet. Spørsmålene er rettet mot hvilken litterærere tekster du bruker i din engelskundervisning, hvordan du velger ut disse og dine meninger rundt litteraturundervisning av ungdommer.

Dersom du svarer at du vil være villig til å delta i et videre intervju innen dette temaet, og dermed oppgir din e-postadresse på spørreskjemaet, vil du bli kontaktet ca. en måned etter innsendt spørreskjema dersom din deltakelse behøves. Intervjuene kan bli holdt over den elektroniske plattformen som passer deg best, eller dersom du bor i Rogaland, kan intervjuene bli avholdt ved et personlig møte der alle korona restriksjoner overholdes. Hvor og hvordan et eventuelt intervju skal avholdes, vil bli bestemt i samarbeid mellom intervjuer og deltaker.

Det vil bli tatt lydopptak av intervjuene.

Det er frivillig å delta

Det er frivillig å delta i prosjektet. Hvis du velger å delta, kan du når som helst trekke samtykket tilbake uten å oppgi noen grunn. Alle dine personopplysninger vil da bli slettet. Det vil ikke ha noen negative konsekvenser for deg hvis du ikke vil delta eller senere velger å trekke deg.

Ditt personvern – hvordan vi oppbevarer og bruker dine opplysninger

Vi vil bare bruke opplysningene du oppgir til å belyse forskningsspørsmålene vi har fortalt om i dette skrivet. Vi behandler opplysningene konfidensielt og i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

Det vil kun være prosjektets leder, altså undertegnede student, som har tilgang til informasjonen gitt i spørreskjemaene og intervjuene. Informasjonen fra spørreskjemaene vil være anonymisert ved at du ikke blir bedt om å oppgi navn i undersøkelsen. Informasjonen fra intervjuene vil bli anonymisert ved at navnet og kontaktopplysningene dine vil bli erstattet med en kode som lagres på egen navneliste adskilt fra øvrig data. All informasjon vil bli lagret på en ekstern harddisk. Harddisken vil også være innelåst når den ikke er i bruk.

Informasjonene fra undersøkelsene vil bli analysert i henhold til problemstillingene, og disse resultatene vil til slutt bli oppgitt i master oppgaven. Det vil ikke være mulig å gjenkjenne hvem som har oppgitt informasjon i denne publikasjonen.

Informasjonen hentet ut fra spørreskjemaene og intervjuene vil utelukkede bli brukt for å besvare problemstillingene i dette prosjektet.

Dersom du som intervjudeltaker ønsker, kan master oppgaven bli tilsendt deg før den blir gjort offentlig. Du vil da få muligheten til å komme med innspill dersom du mener noe av informasjonen i master oppgaven er feil eller misvisende.

Hva skjer med opplysningene dine når vi avslutter forskningsprosjektet?

Opplysningene anonymiseres når oppgaven er godkjent, noe som etter planen er ved utgangen av juni 2021. Alle lydopptak og andre opplysninger vil bli slettet ved prosjektslutt.

Dine rettigheter

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

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

Hva gir oss rett til å behandle personopplysninger om deg?

Vi behandler opplysninger om deg basert på ditt samtykke.

På oppdrag fra Universitet i Stavanger har NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS vurdert at behandlingen av personopplysninger i dette prosjektet er i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

Hvor kan jeg finne ut mer?

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

- Universitet i Stavanger ved
 - førsteamanuensis Dina Lialikhova:

E-post: dina.lialikhova@uis.no

Telefon: 51831369

- eller student og prosjektleder Nina Refsland:

E-post: 239469@uis.no

Telefon: 41575315

- Vårt personvernombud på E-post: personvernombud@uis.no

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

- NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS på epost (personverntjenester@nsd.no) eller på telefon: 55 58 21 17.

Med vennlig hilsen

Nina Refsland.

Samtykkeerklæring

Jeg har mottatt og forstått informasjon om prosjektet *Norwegian lower secondary school teachers` cognitions about teaching literature in EFL lessons*, og har fått anledning til å stille spørsmål. Jeg samtykker til:

- å delta i spørreundersøkelsen
- å delta i intervju

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

(Signert av prosjektdeltaker, dato)

Appendix 6: Comments from item 48 in the questionnaire

Relevant for Research Question 1:

“Because I have a pretty good oversight as to what the students have read and what their reading level is. In the 9th grade they are able to choose a book in English and get the time to read the whole book (I have to approve the book). It is very inspiring to see how some of the students really love to read when I give them time and create an environment where they just need to sit and read.”

“Teaching 8th grade, the concept of reading a novel in English is daunting to my students, and I do not believe it serves a purpose. Shorter texts give them a sense of accomplishment as they are able to get through them.”

“I wish there was more time to read English texts other than what's in the book. A problem is lack of school resources. Another the varying levels between students, some would love to read a novel while some would hate it or find it impossible. »

“It is important to read and experience English through authentic fictional and non-fictional texts.”

“I think that the selection of English literature books in the school's library is pretty weak.”

“I wish I had more time to find good literature and use it in class, but I don't, but the textbook along with the teacher's guide is not bad at all.”

“Some months into the first year of 8th grade, I find it that the students need to get used to reading and therefore thrive with a variety of different text types from different genres.”

“I am unsure whether it is of any use to your research, but it is my (and my colleagues') general perception that finding time to work explicitly with literature is challenging. We read some here and there, but there's simply too much in continuity

and too many halts in lower secondary education to implement extensive literature projects where the benefits outweigh other priorities.”

“When answering the questions, I became aware that I would have loved to have more time to find and use literature outside the textbooks more often. However, I feel time does not allow it.”

“I was able to teach more via literature last year (19/20); I read to my 8th graders, they read to each other and independently, and they chose a novel/short story of their own.”

“I have to make tough priorities in what I spend my time on as a form teacher. Life as a teacher is busy. In our school, we make the students read one (set) novel each school year. Other than that, we are dependent on the selection of the textbooks. In general terms, I think variation is important. Fact, fiction, classics, contemporary literature, different genres, long/short, and so on.”

“I wish English literature for school use was more available.”

“I just want to say that we are pleased with our textbook from Aschehoug and we use a lot of the texts from it this year. Before we had to find all our texts ourselves because the textbook we had was so awful.”

“It is difficult to find literature that can engage a whole class.”

“Picking literature is always a question of balancing different demands.”

“Teaching literature is HARD. Most of our students do not read a lot of texts. Only a few have read a book out of free will. We need to put our main focus in encouraging the majority, and then we have to sacrifice a lot when it comes to contents and genre. We have planned a project where the students choose their own book next semester. I can let you know how it goes. The questions in this survey seemed somewhat over-ambitious compared to the reality of teaching English in the classroom, at least for the majority of 8th-10th grade in my experience.”

“We rarely work with an entire novel or play, we mainly use excerpts from longer texts. As to choosing texts from other sources than the textbook, that is a question of time and capacity. We have English 3 X 45 minutes a week, we don't have time to work through many long books each year. However, we make the pupils read books they choose themselves, they get at least 15 minutes every day at school to do some reading, in periods they are told to read English books (in other periods they prioritize Norwegian).”

“Municipality's economy plays a great (almost defining) role in my choice of literature. Our library is quite small and we do not have access to many books in English that are different levels, as well as we do not have aims to buy lots of books for the whole school. We do not have a school library, we use the books that we already have. We can have good intentions and theorize about the choice of literature to use in the English classroom, but as long as our schools don't get funding, we can forget about this variety. I would really love to have different sets with graphic novels and books at different levels, but the municipality cannot afford it.”

Relevant for Research Question 2:

“I also try to include as much non-fiction as possible. For instance, historical texts, biographies etc.”

“I also try to choose texts based on the interdisciplinary topics in the Core curriculum, as literature holds a great value regarding those themes.”

“When it comes to mentioning all literary texts during a school year, I only listed the two books we have read. In my plan I have also included other texts which are shorter, such as poems, excerpts in different genres and so on. But I have not found out which texts yet.”

“I also include up to two movies each year to supplement literature/culture related topics in English classes.”

“Which novels I choose in addition to texts in the textbook can vary from year to year,

depending on the class. Previous years we have read for example War Horse, Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde and Frankenstein.”

Relevant for Research question 3:

“I think it is important that schools work more systematically to provide students varied literary experiences.”

Not directly relevant for any of the research questions:

“This form does not quite seem to match the practical side of being an English teacher. We have 2 lessons a week and have to practice many different kinds of competency. Literature is important, but one has to vary the activities in the classroom and there is not an infinite amount of time for reading fictional literature.”

“I wish I had more time to find good literature and use it in class, but I don't, but the textbook along with the teacher's guide is not bad at all.”

“We rarely work with the entire novel or play, we mainly use excerpts from longer texts. As to choosing texts from other sources than the text book, that is a question of time and capacity. We have English 3 X 45 minutes a week, we don't have time to work through many long books each year...”

“The two classes that I'm teaching this year have students at all levels... from advanced to 'hardly ever learned English before'.”

“I hope to read more and longer texts with my students from next year (new plan).”

“I wish there was more time to read English texts other than what's in the book. A problem is lack of school resources...”

“When answering the questions, I became aware that I would have loved to have more time to find and use literature outside the textbooks more often. However, I feel time does not allow it.”

“I have to make tough priorities in what I spend my time on as a form teacher. Life as a teacher is busy. In our school, we make the students read one (set) novel each school year. Other than that, we are dependent on the selection of the textbooks. In general terms, I think variation is important. Fact, fiction, classics, contemporary literature, different genres, long/short, and so on.”