Adolescents' Literacy Development in English as a Foreign Language in Iceland

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M.Ed. Thesis

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HÁSKÓLI ÍSLANDS
MENNTAVÍSINDASVIÐ

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Abstract

The scope of the thesis centres on literacy development among adolescents in Iceland in English as a Foreign Language (EFL). The thesis is divided into two parts: a theoretical part and a section on qualitative research. The first part looks at the history and theories regarding reading and literacy development and learning motivation in adolescents. The second part focuses on a qualitative research study conducted in 2015 in Iceland. The results are based on data from interviews with two compulsory-school teachers, who teach EFL in grades 7-10 in Iceland.

Literacy development is a crucial element for being able to participate actively and successfully in Icelandic society and to adapt to a rapidly changing and globalised world. The growing exposure and importance of English as a foreign language in Iceland and the rapid development of information and communication technology (ICT) requires both substantial knowledge of English and development of literacy. These changes all affect the work of EFL teachers in Iceland. They have to think about new approaches to teaching to respond to and fulfil the objectives in the National Curriculum Guide of 2014.

Results from the study indicate that some EFL teachers in Iceland have begun to move from teacher-directed instruction towards more learner-centred teaching. However, textbooks seem to be the most important reading material that the teachers choose when planning reading lessons in EFL. This stands in the way of teachers applying collaborative and communicative reading activities. Also, it appears that there is a discrepancy between the teachers' awareness in regarding conscious implementation of reading strategies and reflecting upon supporting literacy development. Accordingly, it seems that pupils' literacy in English will vary depending on which teacher taught them. The results indicate limited access to ICT tools in some schools, which appears to hinder the implementation of digital texts in EFL. Also, the results indicate that a teacher's lack of ICT skills can hinder the implementation of ICT as a pedagogical tool. However, many compulsory schools in Iceland are currently investing in ICT tools. This indicates a future where EFL teachers will have access to ICT and the many learning and reading opportunities that it offers pupils.

The thesis contributes to the body of knowledge on literacy development among adolescents in EFL in compulsory schools nationally.

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1 Introduction

Literacy is a fundamental human right and the foundation for lifelong learning (UNESCO, 2015). The use of written English for the exchange of knowledge is constantly evolving along with advances and developments in technology. The ever-wider availability of communication makes for greater social and political participation, but also for a literate, dynamic community where people exchange ideas and engage in debate (UNESCO, 2015).

Lifelong learning recognises that learning takes place not only in formal settings and learning environments, but also both formally or informally in everyday life, throughout life (OECD, 2015). These viewpoints have become important in an ever-changing world, where continuous knowledge acquisition and skill development are essential for successful adaptation to active participation in a constantly changing society. The concept of learning, particularly the concept of lifelong learning, has expanded the understanding of literacy to include a wide range of knowledge, skills and strategies that individuals build throughout life in various contexts.

Both reading engagement and meta-cognition, an awareness and understanding of how one develops an understanding of texts and uses reading strategies, are now essential elements of literacy (PISA, 2015, p. 7). Pedagogical research has shown that pupils' motivation for schoolwork decrease with age (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015, p. 9). Declining motivation is a critical issue in compulsory schools, because motivation promotes learning and endurance in regards to completing tasks, but also affects pupils' future choices (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015, p. 9). Taking this into account, it is important that teachers focus on what motivates pupils and recognise that students bring their own personalities and reading and writing preferences with them to class (Bjerregaard, 2015, p. 7). Because of this, what pupils learn in the EFL classroom should be meaningfully connected to the pupils' real world.

Learning English as a foreign language is a prerequisite to navigating in a globalised world. Thus, learning to read English is today a stepping stone to enhancing knowledge about the world and participating successfully in the society both nationally and internationally. These perspectives are explored through the following five areas:

1. Literacy: how the interwoven concepts of reading and literacy have developed and are understood today
2. Motivation: motivation for learning and reading
3. Reading: which methods, practices and strategies EFL teachers can implement to support and meet the EFL literacy needs of adolescents
4. English as a Foreign Language in Iceland: the growing importance of a good command of English in Iceland
5. A Qualitative Research Study: EFL reading among adolescents in Iceland today and the types of texts, reading activities and tasks that are being emphasised in the EFL classroom.

1.1 Research Statement

The thesis centres on adolescent literacy development in English as a foreign language (EFL) with a focus on learning motivation and seeks to answer the following research question:

> How do and can language teachers support the development of adolescents' literacy in English as a foreign language?

The thesis looks at this topic by asking four additional questions:

1. How is reading taught in EFL classrooms in grades 7-10 in Iceland?
2. Which types of texts are teachers of EFL emphasising?
3. Which reading activities and tasks are generally implemented in EFL?
4. What do EFL teachers do to create an environment to foster pupils' motivation for reading in EFL?

2 Literacy

The first part of the thesis focuses on the concept of literacy. This will include a clarification and definition of the concept literacy and how the concept has developed over time from historical and educational theory points of view.

2.1 Understanding the Concept of Literacy

It can be useful to look at a word's history to understand its meaning, use and purpose and how that has changed over time to clarify whether the historical development can give an indication of its current status and future development as a phenomenon or concept (Kress, 2012, p. 4). The profile and status of literacy has changed dramatically since the early 1970s. The change has, in recent times, intensified because of the development of and availability of digital technologies and digital networks (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 3).

The concept of literacy was rarely a feature of the formal educational discourse in countries such as USA, Canada, Britain, Australia and New Zealand in the 1970s. Instead, there was a well-established academic field of reading research, mainly grounded in psycholinguistics with a range of time-recognised methods for teaching pupils how to decode, encode and comprehend printed alphabetic texts. The pupils' acquisition of reading and writing skills was looked upon as a precondition for being able to move on with the real business of school learning. Hence, teaching reading and writing was gotten of the way as quickly as possible following entry into school (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 3).

The main assumption, during this period, was that pupils should master reading and writing well enough to serve them during their school years and beyond. Some pupils acquired reading and writing skills quicker than their peers and with greater sophistication and comprehension. Whereas some pupils struggled to reach the same competence. Nonetheless, the purpose and intent was that the great majority of pupils learned to read and write well enough to make their way into the adult world. During this period, literacy was generally used to discuss non-formal instruction to illiterate adults learning basic reading and writing skills (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 3).

2.1.1 Literacy as an Expanding Concept: New Approaches to Thinking about Literacy as a Social Phenomenon.

By the end of the 1970s, this way of viewing literacy changed significantly. Around 1980 literacy moved from its relatively marginal position within English-language educational discourse to being at the forefront of educational policy,

practice and research (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 4). There are many possible reasons linked to this change. However Lankshear & Knobel (p.4 -11) point at five reasons of interest:

1. Paulo Freire and the radical education movement;
2. The 1970s literacy crisis;
3. Literacy, economic growth and social well-being;
4. Literacy, accountability, efficiency and quality;
5. The growth of sociocultural theory

2.1.2 Paulo Freire: Reading the Word and the World

Paulo Freire's (1969) work within the radical education movement in the end of the 1960's and the beginning of the 1970s was important for the new status of the concept of literacy as a key concept in contemporary educational research and theory. In 1969, Freire worked with education as a practice of freedom, and his works 'Cultural Action for Freedom' and 'Pedagogy of the Oppressed' were published in 1970 (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 4).

Freire's approach to non-formal literacy-education was followed by many academics during a time that was occupied with social justice and critical theory. Furthermore, his work established a theoretical foundation for the development of critical pedagogy, including critical literacy in the USA in the 1980s. Freire's work was central for growing sociocultural theory, educational research and theory, and teacher education (Bjerregaard, 2015, p. 3).

The starting point for Freire's pedagogy was how unjust social processes and relations functions in everyday life (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 5). Relations have been created historically and have become hard-wired into the social structure (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 5). As such unjust social arrangements have been created and sustained through human activity, they can equally be changed through human action, which is what Freire refers to as 'transformative cultural action' (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 5). Nonetheless, before transformative cultural action can occur, it is vital for people to understand the nature and origins of social oppression (Macedo, 2008).

Freire's concept of literacy was reading the word and the world (Lund, 2012, p. 41) and involved much more than being able to read and write i.e. decode and encode alphabetic prints. It involved a critical consciousness and critical awareness about the world by using a reflexive, cyclical process of reflection and action.

Learning to read and write words became, in Freire's pedagogy, a focus for adults when pursuing critical awareness of how oppressive practices and relations operated in everyday life (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 4).

The understanding of the world was expressed through value-loaded words and peoples' fears, hopes, troubles and dreams were intensively discussed (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 6). The written forms of the words were introduced, in context with the oral discussion and alongside other words, which could be built out of the words' syllables and phonemes. The participants were meant to learn by discussing and reflecting upon word meaning and how the words looked in written form (Bjerregaard, 2015, p. 2)

Learning to read and write single words was an integral part of learning and understanding how the world works socially and culturally, and how groups of people become subjects to unjust circumstances according to Freire. The point, and advantage, of discussing words and expressions this way was to give the participants an opportunity to actively participate in the society and to attempt to change society in order to create social processes and relations that were more just (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 6). The participants would be able to undertake group action to change the world in the light of their analysis of their own circumstances in life (Bjerregaard, 2015, p. 3). This practice of reflection and action gave insight into knowing the world more deeply and accurately. Thus, it involved testing the world to see how it worked in the light of the concepts and theories developed collaboratively in discussion of experience and beliefs (Kaestle, 1985). Freirean literacy education can be understood as an integral part of a radical, politicized pedagogy that was designed to stimulate action for change, (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011 p. 6).

2.1.3 The 1970s Literacy Crisis

Another important step in the development of literacy as a widely used concept within education was the discovery of widespread functional illiteracy among adults in USA in the 1970s. The official aim was to teach the whole population to read and write at a level necessary to manage the diversity of texts that they would have to deal with on a day-to-day basis, rather than absolute literacy (Bjerregaard, 2015, p. 3).

The dramatic literacy crisis in the USA rapidly spread to other emerging post-industrial societies. Schools, whether in the USA, Great Britain, Canada, Australia or New Zealand, were not able to ensure that all pupils developed literacy corresponding to the requirements of a modern society. After research and investigation, it became clear, that the standard of the schools was declining and there was a need for far-reaching school reforms. Furthermore,

the school curriculum and pedagogy needed to be thoroughly looked into, to ensure that all pupils acquired literacy at a functional level (Mezeske, 1995).

Simultaneously with the literacy crisis was the USA was making profound structural changes to the economy, as they moved toward becoming a post-industrial society. This entailed far-reaching restructuring of the labour market and employment followed by changes in major organizations and institutions of daily life. A large group of citizens were seen as poorly prepared for such change (Bjerregaard, 2015, p. 3).

Literacy, therefore, became a key word in an attempt to avoid an impending societal disaster (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 7).

2.1.4 The Relationship Among Literacy, Economic Growth and Social Well-being

It became fashionable among development theorists through the 1950s and 1960s, and again in the 1990s, to link a country's readiness for economic growth with the country's adult literacy level. In the 1960s several development theorists argued that a precondition for a country's economic development was that at least 40 % of the adult population needed to be literate (Kaestle, 1985). This became the rationale for promoting campaigns for adult literacy in many developing countries as a strategic element of economic and social development policies. Illiteracy was thought of as a great obstacle to economic growth and the literacy campaigns were prescribed as cost-effective measures for developing the minimal levels of educated manpower needed for a country's chance of economic growth (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011 p. 8).

Similar claims were used in the developed countries, which were facing increasing changes in the labour market and public institutions. OECD's research, assessment, and policy development work was built on the concept of the relationship among the populations' literacy level, economic growth, labour market viability and a range of non-market benefits (Bjerregaard, 2015, p. 5). It became a common belief that a country's average literacy level was a better indicator of economic growth than more general educational results. Additionally, it was assumed that countries with greater inequalities in literacy levels also had greater inequalities in income distribution. The is emphasised the role of globalization and technological change for increasing competition within the labour market and the significance of literacy skills in order to compete for better paid work opportunities (Bjerregaard, 2015, p. 5).

In the 1980s and 1990s, radically changed work conditions within companies became a reality, because of a loss of manufacturing jobs. Everyday routines such as total quality management and responsibility to workers required increased interaction with a range of printed forms and documents. This was

often managed by workers who did not have the literacy to do so. A reduction of social welfare support and changing of bureaucratic structures in a range of countries, created an increase on the demands of individuals to be more independent and responsible, often involving the handling of complex types of texts (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 9). The claims about the relationship between high literacy and better health outcomes, and between literacy proficiency and public and civic participation became more and more common across the entire range of OECD countries (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 9).

2.1.5 Literacy, Accountability, Efficiency and Quality

Literacy became, throughout the 1980s and 1990s, an emerging indicator for schools' and teachers' professional accountability and for the political legitimacy of public education systems, policies and administrations. Educational systems were moving toward a model based on national or state level curricular standards, where the pupils' performance, literacy and numeracy-levels were assessed on a regular basis (Bjerregaard, 2015, p. 5). This standards-testing-accountability-performance model was defended by political arguments and considered an approach with greater transparency in school performance, where pupils' performance can be measured by tests (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 9).

Today, there is an expectation of profitability within the areas of public education, health and social welfare. Governments are increasingly working to optimise the cost/benefit ratio. This is done by measuring the pupils' academic performance results in proportion to expenses or in relation to earlier performance in areas such as reading, writing and numeracy (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 10).

2.1.6 The Growth of Sociocultural Theory

The development of a sociocultural perspective within language studies and the social sciences can be understood as the final reason for why literacy moved to the forefront of the educational policy and agendas since the 1970s. During the 1980s and 1990s, this sociocultural approach had great impact on conceptual and theoretical understandings of practices involving texts (Bjerregaard, 2015, p.5). Early influential works and studies from language educators, educational researchers and others working in the fields of psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics provided a strong research-based foundation together with the increased emphasis on literacy basics and functional literacy, from which to challenge the established approaches to teaching reading- and writing in schools (Bjerregaard, 2015, p. 6).

2.2 Literacy's Entry into the Educational Language

According to Lankshear & Knobel (2011, p. 12), the literacy development from the 1960s on an impact on the language of education. The in development of text competences changed from the language of reading and writing to the language of literacy. For example, literacy development was used instead of reading and writing development, emergent literacy was used instead of reading readiness and literacy studies instead of language arts research. Hence, the term literacy started to appear in school timetables and programme descriptions (Bjerregaard, 2015, p. 6).

Literacy it is a matter of social practices because it is bound up with social, institutional and cultural relationships. These can only be understood when they are situated within their social, cultural and historical context. This moreover implicates that literacies are always connected to social identities i.e. being particular kinds of people (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 13). In that context are texts integral parts of the everyday as "…lived, talked, enacted, value-and-belief-laden practices' that are carried out in specific places and specific times." (Gee, Fairclough, Cope & Cazden, 1996, p. 3).

Reading and writing are understood the same way in an online chat space, a classroom, a feminist reading group and so forth. People read and write differently according to different social practices. These are part of varied ways of being a person and approaching life (Bjerregaard, 2015, p. 7). Consequently, from a sociocultural perspective, it is impossible to separate out reading and writing and treat them independently of all the non-print bits such as values, gestures, context, meaning, actions, object, talk, interaction, tools and spaces. Reading and writing are non-subtractable parts of the integrated whole (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 13).

Moreover, literacy does not exist apart from the social practices in which it is embedded and within which it is acquired. It cannot meaningfully be taught or learned as separate from the rest of the practice (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p.13). When literacy was adopted and developed by sociocultural theorists, researchers and educators as a keyword, it was meant to bypass psychological reductionism because they kept the social in the forefront, and focussed on the embeddedness of literacy within larger social practices. However, this was subverted, by reading specialists and experts who adopted the term without considering its substance (Bjerregaard, p. 8).

2.2.1 The Elevated Status of Literacy Within Formal Education

As the use of the concept of literacy grew within formal education educators and official government policy elevated its status. In the wake of the literacy crisis and societal changes the focus was no longer on basic literacy, but on

functional literacy and on expanding the definition of functional literacy (Lankshear & Knobel. 2011, p. 16).

Together with the emphasis on functional literacy, a standpoint of cultural cohesion began to form. This created a focus on cultural literacy as a term for the knowledge necessary for youth to participate effectively in both the social life of society and as active informed citizens. Cultural literacy was especially emphasised in the 1980s and early 1990s in the USA and was taken up by advocates of cultural literacy, who addressed the kinds of approaches and programmes schools should provide to reach this goal (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 17).

2.2.2 The Operational, Cultural and Critical Dimensions of Literacy

The concept of literacy is also formulated by Green (1988, p. 156-169). Green proposes that literacy comprises three intermeshing dimensions namely, the operational, the cultural and the critical. Green's model is called the three-dimensional model and builds on a sociocultural perspective. The three dimensions bring together language, meaning and context. No one dimension, has priority over the others, which means that it is an integrated view of literate practice and literacy pedagogy, where all dimensions need to be taken into account simultaneously (Lund, 2012, p. 41).

Firstly, the operational dimension focuses on the language aspect of literacy. It includes being able to read and write in a range of contexts in an appropriate and adequate manner. It goes beyond competence by supplying the tools, procedures and techniques needed to be able to handle the written language system proficiently (Lund, 2012, p. 41).

Secondly, the cultural dimension involves capacity in the meaning system of a social practice, i.e. knowing how to make and grasp meaning appropriately within understanding texts in relation to contexts. Moreover, this means that pupils should know why a given context of practice makes for appropriate or inappropriate ways of reading and writing (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 18).

Finally, the critical dimension involves awareness that all social practices, and thereby all literacies, are socially constructed and selective. They include some representations and classifications, values, purposes, rules, standards and perspectives, and exclude others (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 18).

To participate effectively and productively in any literate practice, learners must be socialised into it. If individuals are socialised into social practices without realising that they are socially constructed and selective, and, importantly, can be acted on and transformed, they cannot play an active role in changing them. This means that the critical dimensions of literacy creates a basis that ensures that individuals are not only able to participate in existing

literacy and create meaning within it, they are also able to actively transform and produce it in various ways (Lund, 2012, p. 41). Instead of merely focusing on literacy competence, the three-dimensional model complements and supplements the importance of operational and technical competence by contextualising literacy with due regard for matters of culture, history and power (Green, 1988, p. 156-169).

According to Lankshear & Knobel (2011, p. 18) some educators who are working from a sociocultural perspective are focusing on how cultural and linguistic diversity plus the growing impact of new communication technologies are changing demands on learners regarding the operational and cultural dimensions of literacy. Learners in this context need, first, new operational and cultural knowledge. This provides them with access to new forms of work, civic, and private practices in their everyday lives. Learners need to develop strengths in the critical dimension as well (Lund, 2012, p. 40).

From the sociocultural standpoint, literacies entail deep and extensive knowledge. Being literate involves much more than knowing how to operate the language system. The cultural and critical aspects of knowledge integral to being literate are demanding given the new and changing knowledge components of literacies under contemporary social, economic, cultural, political and civic conditions. Making meaning is knowledge-intensive and much of the knowledge that school-based learning is required to develop and mobilize meaning making (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 19).

2.2.3 The Literacy Concept and its Diversity

As the sections above show, the concept of literacy has expanded since the 1970s. Since the 1990s, literacy has been applied to an increasing variety of practices. The different ways of applying literacy is described by Hasan (1996), among others, as follows: "(literacy) has not simply meant different things to different generations, but also different things to different persons in the same generation."

Hasan underlines that using the word literacy people refer to a broad concept. People are not always talking about the same thing. This is a very important point to keep in mind, when exploring literacy. UNESCO gives another definition of literacy as:

> Literacy is the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute, using printed and written materials associated with varying contexts. Literacy involves a continuum of learning in enabling individuals to achieve their goals, to develop their knowledge and potential, and to participate fully in their community and wider society. (UNESCO, 2004, p. 13)

This is a broad definition of literacy that adds several ideas to the way reading is traditionally defined (Lund, 2012, p. 40). Lankshear & Knobel (2011, p. 19) claim that it seems that almost any knowledge and learning deemed educationally valuable can be conceived as literacy and that literacy can become a metaphor for competence, proficiency or functionality.

As an example, concepts such as ' computer literacy or being technologically literate, are simply used to imply that someone is more or less proficient with a computer or other technology. In this sense, being technologically literate has become everyday terminology that is underlining how central literacy has become as both a social issue and an educational ideal during the past two or three decades (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 19).

Today it is common to hear the terms oral literacy, visual literacy, information literacy, media literacy, science literacy and emotional literacy. The use of these terms emphasises the notion of being able to communicate or make sense as a producer or a receiver, using sign, signals, codes and graphic images (Bjerregaard, 2015, p. 12). Digital literacy and twenty-first century literacies are two high-profile literacies at present. Since the mid-1990s, digital literacy has emerged in many education policy documents as a core educational goal (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 22) including the Icelandic National Curriculum Guide for Compulsory School 2014. Digital literacy is defined as follows:

> (…) knowledge that people have to acquire to be able to use computer and web technology for various forms of communication and creation of material. It involves photographs, printed text as well as music, and relates to the whole spectrum of material management, that is, resources, processing and communication (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 17).

The implementation of digital literacy in the National Curriculum Guide emphasises the importance of offering pupils a variety of digital materials to support their digital literacy development needs.

Twenty-first century literacy emerged from the mid-1990s and has increasingly focused on connections with other 21st century skills. The US National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) published a policy research brief in 2007 urging the importance of reorienting English Language Education in response to changes impacting everyday social practices as a consequence of global economies, new technologies, and exponential growth in information (NCTE, 2007, p. 1). This implies that English language teachers must prepare pupils for a changed world, by focusing on problem solving, collaboration, and analysis, as well as on skills with word processing, hypertext, LCD, Web cams,

digital streaming podcasts, smart boards, and social networking software, which are all central to individual and community success (Bjerregaard, 2015, p. 13). 21st century literacy is not just about technologies, even though proficiency with new technologies is now an integral part to being literate as proficiency with conventional literacy tools has been in the past (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 24).

In 2008, and updated in 2013, NCTE formally adopted a position on 21st literacy, stating that:

> Literacy has always been a collection of cultural and communicative practices shared among members of particular groups. As society and technology change, so does literacy. Because technology has increased the intensity and complexity of literate environments, the 21st century demands that a literate person possess a wide range of abilities and competencies, many literacies. These literacies are multiple, dynamic, and malleable. As in the past, they are inextricably linked with particular histories, life possibilities, and social trajectories of individuals and groups. Active, successful participants in this 21st century global society must be able to
>
> 1) Develop proficiency and fluency with the tools of technology;
>
> 2) Build intentional cross-cultural connections and relationships with others so to pose and solve problems collaboratively and strengthen independent thought;
>
> 3) Design and share information for global communities to meet a variety of purposes;
>
> 4) Manage, analyze, and synthesize multiple streams of simultaneous information;
>
> 5) Create, critique, analyze, and evaluate multimedia texts;
>
> 6) Attend to the ethical responsibilities required by these complex environments.
>
> (NCTE, 2008)

The National Curriculum Guide 2014 also supports that notion as it states:

> Language teaching should certainly involve the numerous tools of information and communication technology that has during the last few decades become an active factor in the lives of children and adolescents. School is one of the places where adolescents use electronic media and foreign languages to acquire information and it is likely that pupils use these media in a different manner at school from how they use them during their leisure hours. Through the Internet, the present is readily accessible in the classroom as teaching material, either through text, sound or pictures. They have to learn to recognise secure and reliable information, use grammar and spelling checkers, online dictionaries and encyclopaedia websites. Additionally, they should learn to use safe tools and programs to send and receive assignments electronically, and become familiar with copyright. They should be trained to use the media in a responsible manner (…) (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 138)

Both NCTE recommendations towards developing 21st century literacy and the National Curriculum Guide's (2014) increased focus on ICT in language teaching sheds light on why the development of literacy is so important to promote and support in compulsory school. Pupils need to develop adequate literacy skills to be prepared to participate successfully in (global) society and the community. Thus, both advocate the overall areas that teachers should emphasise when supporting 21st literacy development among pupils.

2.3 Intermediate Summary

It is necessary to understand the historical development of the concept of literacy to understand its current status in education. To sum up, literacy has always been a collection of cultural and communicative practices shared among members of particular groups. This means that literacy changes as society and technology change. Where literacy skills once were taught as an instrument to be able to read and write in order to move on with the real business of school learning the concept of literacy has now expanded dramatically and demands functionality.

Freire's introduced the viewpoint that literacy involves critical consciousness and critical awareness to be able to act and know the world better and more deeply by reading the word and the world, thus, literacy gained a new status and expanded definition. Furthermore, from a sociocultural perspective is literacy a matter of social practices because literacies are bound up with social, institutional and cultural relationships (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 6).

Given these perspectives people are reading and writing differently due to different social practices and different ways with words, which are part of different ways of being a person and different ways and facets of approaching life. Thus, texts must be understood as integral parts of the everyday life. This implies that being literate involves much more than knowing how to operate the language system. It furthermore involves functionality such as being able to connect the dots, create meaning and do something with the knowledge.

Twenty-first century literacies emerged based on the development of new technology. Literacy now involves new challenges for teachers who must prepare pupils for a changed world by focusing on supporting pupils' creative skills, critical thinking skills and Information and Communication (ICT) skills to develop proficiency with technology and multimedia texts.

The following quote from the International Literacy Association (ILA, 2015) close this section, because it underpins how the concept of literacy development in 2015 can be understood. Furthermore, it clarifies that reading texts is no longer simply about being able to decode and understand words and sentences. Literacy goes beyond that. Literacy is about being able to create connections and actively utilize the knowledge that is acquired through texts:

> Being literate means being able to connect the dots of learning between what we read, what we hear, and what we see. It is actually about how you create connections so that a student understands something and then once they understand it, they can do something with that knowledge. That's the most important thing, and that's the leap from learning something to actually become literate in it. (ILA, 2015).

2.4 The Icelandic National Curriculum Guide for Compulsory Schools – With Subject Areas (2014) and the Role of Compulsory School

It is natural to look at the National Curriculum Guide for Compulsory Schools of 2014 when investigating literacy development among adolescents in EFL classes, because it provides information and recommendations about both Iceland's compulsory school objectives and the fundamental pillars of education, including literacy. The Ministry of Education, Science and Culture issued National Curriculum Guide in the same manner as a regulation to serve diverse purposes. Thereby, it is both a means to execute provisions of law, instruction from the educational authorities on school policy and a compilation of the common objectives for school activities in the whole country. Furthermore, the National Curriculum Guide is meant to coordinate education and teaching as far as necessary and to ensure the right of all pupils for a

defined minimum education and their equal right to study (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p.7).

2.4.1 Pupils' Overall Development

The National Curriculum Guide 2014 is based on The Preschool Act, no 90, 12 June 2008, The Compulsory School Act, no 91, 12 June 2008, and The upper Secondary School Act, no 92, 12 June 2008. The National Curriculum Guide is a framework for school activities at these school levels and a guide to their objectives and goals. The National Curriculum Guide gives a comprehensive view of education and expands on the education policy of these laws. It is intended for use by school administrators, teachers and other personnel of the educational system. It provides information about school objectives and activities for pupils, their parents, public institutions, associations, social partners and the general public. The guide is, in a sense, a contract that the nation makes with itself on education (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 9). The Compulsory School Act (article 2, 2008) states that:

> The role of the compulsory school, in cooperation with the home, is to encourage pupils' general development and prepare them for active participation in a democratic society that is continuously developing (...). The compulsory school shall endeavour to organise its activities to correspond fully with the position and needs of their pupils and encourage the overall development, well-being and education of each individual (...). Pupils shall be provided with the opportunity to develop and use their creativity and to acquire knowledge and skills in their strive towards education and development. School activities shall lay the foundations for pupils' autonomy, initiative and independent thinking and train their cooperation skills (...).

The above objective stresses the importance of systematically developing pupils overall progress in compulsory school in a society that constantly evolves; the development of literacy and 21st century literacy to adapt and function in a rapidly changing society. The Compulsory School Act (2008, article 2) ensures that schools, in cooperation with parents, promote knowledge, skills and attitudes that strengthen a pupil's future ability to be critical, creative, cooperative and competent active participants in a society based on equality and democracy. The overall development of pupils' knowledge, skills and competence also include learning English as a foreign language (EFL) to strive towards further education at university studies where English reading material

is frequently implemented (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 125).

It is relevant to view and concretise the National Curriculum Guide's definition of the three concepts of knowledge, skill and competence to outline how they are distinguished, but coherent, and relevant in terms of understanding literacy development.

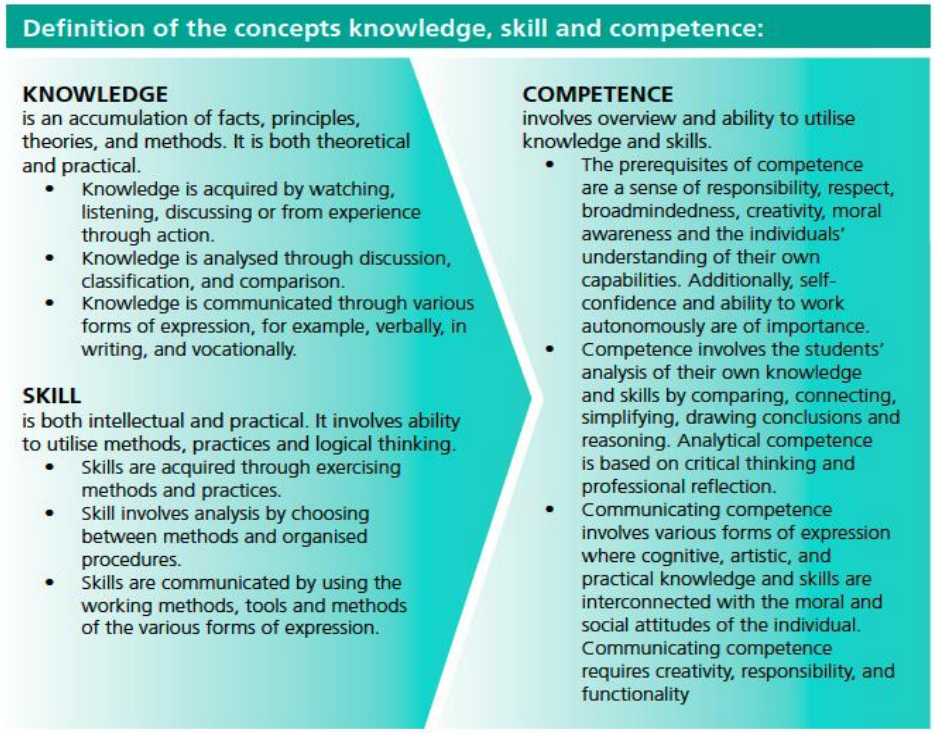


Figure 1. (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 37)

Figure 1 indicates how knowledge, skill and competence are interconnected and how important it is that pupils learn to connect theory with practice so that they understand how to actively utilise the knowledge and skills they acquire.

2.4.2 The National Curriculum Guide 2014 and its Emphasis on the Pillar of Literacy

In the National Curriculum Guide 2014 are the fundamental pillars of education and the Compulsory School Act (2008) guidelines for general education and work methods for compulsory schools. Six fundamental and interlinked pillars: literacy, sustainability, health, and welfare, democracy and human rights, equality and creativity have been developed within this framework and form

the essence of the educational policy (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 34).

The framework and conditions for learning and teaching are based on the principles of existing laws, regulations and international conventions. These include working methods, content and the learning environment at every school level and form an important continuity in the Icelandic educational system. The pillars include the working methods, content and the learning environment at every school level and form an important continuity in the Icelandic educational system (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 5). It is also important to note that the six pillars are all based on the idea that active democracy is unobtainable without literacy in the diverse symbolism and communication systems of society (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 15). The main objective of the pillar literacy in the National Curriculum Guide 2014 is for pupils to become active participants in transforming and rewriting the world by creating their own meaning and responding in a personal and creative manner to what they read with the aid of the media and technology that is available (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p.17).

Literacy depends on agreements made on the usage and meaning of words in a speech community. It is, by nature, a social problem. Literacy includes the pupil being able to use his or her own words about what has been read, put them into thoughts and connect them with frames of references or frames of references of people in the pupil's social environment (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 16). However, since literacy deals with creating meaning, it is inevitable that this creation will differ from pupil to pupil given that:

> Literacy deals first and foremost with creation of meaning, and this creation never takes place in a vacuum two individuals may understand the same text in a different way, although their reading technique, phonological awareness and vocabulary are similar the quality of their literacy cannot be said to differ for their creation of meaning depends on their experience and numerous circumstantial factors that influence their interpretation and understanding. Some texts are even difficult to understand without being acquainted with the discussion tradition and use of terms in various social groups (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p.17).

The National Curriculum Guide states its perspective on creation of meaning and underscores the fact that pupils are diverse beings with differing understandings.

2.5 Chapter Conclusion

The Icelandic compulsory school plays an important part in pupils' development of literacy skills for future participation in Icelandic society. The school's role is to systematically support pupils' overall development and ensure the promotion of knowledge, skills and attitudes that strengthen the individual's future ability to be critical, creative, cooperative and competent participants in a society based on equality and democracy. Knowledge, skill and competence development includes pupils' being able to meaningfully connect and utilize what they learn in school to successfully and actively take part in society and face diverse social and cultural circumstances.

It is noteworthy that the National Curriculum Guide 2014 recognises and emphasises that literacy as involving creation of meaning. Further, this creation involves that the individual pupil connect what he or she has read to his or her own frames of reference. Thus, pupils are not empty vessels, which is an important aspect for teachers to be aware of when teaching EFL reading to adolescents.

3 Reading

This chapter starts by looking at reading for a purpose and reading for lifelong learning. The next part will provide a definition of reading. The third section considers a constructivist and holistic approach to teaching reading in the EFL classroom by considering both bottom-up and top-down processes and interactive reading. Different reading strategies are viewed as tools that pupils can acquire and implement with the aim of effectively becoming a proficient EFL reader. Finally, the chapter looks at how EFL teachers can introduce authentic language and texts in the classroom as s constructivist approach and as an alternative to traditional textbook reading.

3.1 Reading for a Purpose and Reading for Lifelong Learning

Reading means different things to different people. For some, it is recognizing written words. For others, it is an opportunity to work with pronunciation and practice speaking. Nonetheless, reading always has a purpose, whether it is for survival, for learning or for pleasure (Berardo, 2006, p. 1). First, reading for survival is considered a way to find out information that depends on the day-to-day needs of the reader and can involve an immediate response to a situation. Reading for learning, on the other hand, is considered to be reading done in the classroom, which is goal orientated. Finally, reading for pleasure includes all optional reading (Berardo, 2006, p.1).

Reading is a powerful way for pupils to acquire knowledge and the ability to express oneself, both orally and in writing. It is one of the most important prerequisites for participation in society. Reading is also necessary for learning English as a foreign (EFL), which plays a major role in international communication and commerce (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 125). This notion is emphasised further in the National Curriculum Guide:

> One of the important goals of teaching reading is to encourage pupils towards independence so that little by little they choose their own reading material and discover its worth in relation to education, needs and interests. Additionally, it is important that they learn and are able to apply understanding and reading strategies that are in keeping with the goals of the reading. Good reading skills are the basis for lifelong learning and the ability to acquire the necessary information to participate in the life and culture of the nation. (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 99)

Additionally, the importance of developing reading strategies and good reading skills is the basis for life-long learning and for continuously acquiring and utilizing knowledge, skills and competence throughout life (OECD, 2010, p.7). In that connection, Iceland is among the countries in Europe that have been reviewing their educational systems during the last years and has set a course for lifelong learning.

The concept of literacy is then based on a dynamic model of lifelong learning, where knowledge and skills, essential for successful adaptation to a changing world, are continuously acquired throughout life. Lifelong learning recognizes that learning is not simply confined to childhood or to a classroom. Instead, learning takes place throughout a lifetime and in a range of formal and non-formal environments and situations (OECD 2015).

Lifelong learning is a difficult concept to pin down since it is used by many different people in different contexts, but the OECD (OECD, 2010 p. 7) recognises that learning does not just take place in formal settings and learning environments. A great deal of valuable learning also takes place both informally and formally in everyday life. Lifelong learning has become a necessity for all citizens, not only for personal fulfilment and the ability to actively engage in society, but also for the ability to be successful in a constantly changing world (OECD, 2015).

Additionally, the National Curriculum Guide (2014, p. 99) indicates that societal changes and new demands to reading skills have changed radically in recent years. Texts that readers want to read, or must read, now, more than ever consist of significant variations in form, including electronic texts with writing, pictures, symbols, gestures, sounds and animation. Some of the materials that pupils read appear on the Internet without being reviewed or edited. Consequently, the reader should be capable of various forms of understanding and interpretation and be able to critically evaluate and reflect on the validity of the information (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 99).

3.2 Definition of Reading

Learning to read in a foreign language (FL) includes pragmatics such as the sociolinguistic rules governing language use in communicative contexts. These are: Semantics including the linguistic meanings of words and sentences; morphology, or the rules of word formation; syntax or the rules of word order in sentence formation; and phonology – the sound system of a language (Peregoy & Boyle, 2008, p. 9)

First and foremost reading involves the coordination of a range of abilities, strategies and knowledge (Cain, 2010, p. 2) and is more concisely the ability to

read a formula. Reading is equivalent with decoding (D) multiplied with comprehension (C), R = D x C (Brudholm, 2002, p. 18). The formula states that reading takes place when the decoding is multiplied with the comprehension. In other words, it is a precondition for the pupils' comprehension that the decoding works. However, it is not enough to simply read words. The pupil needs the ability to read into the text in order to form inferences and look beyond what is stated to comprehend the text. This is what makes an active reader (Brudholm, 2002, p. 19).

The reader constructs an inner picture of the text based on his or her knowledge about the world. The text is static, but the comprehension of the text is not necessarily the same for all pupils (Brudholm, 2002, p. 20). The formula indicates that a pupil needs to decode in order to attain comprehension. However, this does not automatically entail that a pupil who is skilled at decoding automatically will be skilled at comprehending. One way to develop reading literacy is that the reader actively constructs meaning and content based on earlier experiences and knowledge (Brudholm, 2002, p. 20-21).

3.3 Top- down and Bottom-up Processes in EFL Reading

The way reading is viewed in the context of this thesis is as an active process, where the pupils construct content and meaning on the basis of earlier experience. Reading can be viewed as a constructivist and holistic approach, where pupils construct their own knowledge from what they encounter by activating background or prior knowledge. This approach regards learning to read in the EFL classroom as a cognitive experience unique to each learner's own perspective and prior knowledge. This forms the framework for new knowledge. This approach to learning is also learner-centred, communal and active (Kidd & Czerniawski, 2010, p. 197).

According to Berardo, (2006, p. 61), readers are processing texts in two ways; top-down (holistic) or bottom-up (sequential). Bottom-up processing is when the reader builds up meaning by reading word for word and letter for letter, carefully scrutinizing both vocabulary and syntax. This is often associated with poor or slow readers, but can sometimes occur when the reader's schema knowledge is inadequate. Top-down processing is the opposite. The global meaning of the text is obtained, through clues in the text and the reader's schema knowledge. This is often associated with a good reader, who does not read word for word but quickly and efficiently. The most comprehensive description of the reading process is as follows:

> …interactive models, (...) in which every component in the reading process can interact with any other component (…)combining elements of both bottom-up and top-down models. (Alderson, 2000, p. 18)

Brudholm (2002, p. 21) also recommends the same combination. The process and the development of reading in grades 4-9 and throughout upper secondary school demands both bottom-up and top-down strategies, and must be seen as parallel methods considering the different processes and stages of reading development. Reading is considered to be an interactive process, a conversation between writer and reader. For this to occur both processes are necessary; top-down to predict the meaning and bottom-up to check it. Thus, the two processes are complementary ways of processing a text (Berardo, 2006, p. 61).

According to Bartlett (1932, p. 61) our knowledge and experiences of the world around us influence how a text is read or processed. This is known as the schema theory. It operates actively and constructively with our knowledge of the world being a continuous process that allows us to receive new information and interpret it based on what is already known. Schemata have also been described as: "cognitive constructs which allow for the organization of information in the long term memory" (Widdowson 1983, p. 34). This means that good readers have an idea of what is normal, linguistically and conceptually, and of how the world works. When proficient readers read they make use of existing schemata and then modify them with any new information. Such readers also have expectations or make predictions before reading. These are either reinforced, challenged or modified after reading.

3.3.1 Vygotsky's Theory of ZDP Applied to Reading

The holistic and constructivist approach to teaching reading in the EFL classroom is partly based on Vygotsky's theory of zone of proximal development (ZPD). It involves the primary activity space in which learning occurs and is defined as: "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86).

Vygotsky's theory includes social interaction preceding development and that consciousness and cognition are the end product of socialization and social behaviour. Social interaction is the basis of learning and development because learning is a process of apprenticeship and internalisation in which skills and knowledge are transferred from the social to the cognitive plane (Walqui, 2006, p. 160). This is closely connected with the term scaffolding introduced by Wood, Bruner and Ross in 1976, that builds a bridge between the language or knowledge that the pupil already has and the learning aim that the pupil and/or the teacher sets. Wood et al. (1976, p. 90) offer the following definition of this scaffolding: "Those elements of the task that are initially beyond the learner's capacity, thus permitting him to concentrate upon and complete only those

elements that are within his range of competence". This means that once the pupil, with the benefit of scaffolding, masters the task, the scaffolding can be removed and the pupil will be able to complete the task again on his own.

3.3.2 Pupils' Creation of Meaning Through Text

As literacy first and foremost deals with creation of meaning, reading can be understood as the process and ability to transform a text into thought or meaning by combining bottom-up and top-down processing. Learning to read should firstly equip pupils with the basic skills needed to decode and recognize words (Brudholm, 2002, p. 18). The combination of linguistic and cognitive processes means that the reader actively interprets the written message based on the reader previous knowledge (Brudholm, 2002, p. 20).

In addition, Tagutchi, Gorsuch &, Sasamoto's (2006, p.3) definition of a successful FL reader includes both fluency and comprehension because reading fluency consists of both accuracy and automaticity in word recognition together with the appropriate use of prosodic and syntactic knowledge for better comprehension of the text. A fluent reader recognizes words efficiently, effortlessly and can read connected texts silently or orally with speed and good comprehension.

Literacy development is then to be understood as a much more complex process than simply being able to read. In order to understand a text, words need to be recognized and their meanings accessed, relevant background knowledge needs to be activated, and inferences must be generated as information is integrated during the course of reading (Nation and Angell, 2006, p.77-78). It is a process that develops over time by requiring the reader to improve different reading skills by working with the six sub-components: language knowledge, pre-understanding/background knowledge, ability to form inferences, ability to form mental models of a text and understanding of the genre in order to be metacognitive i.e. to look into one's own comprehension according to Brudholm (2002, p. 29).

Thus, the ultimate goal of reading is not to read isolated texts, but to learn to understand what has been read (Nation & Angell, 2006, p. 77). This process can become more effective if pupils are taught when and how to apply different reading strategies.

3.4 Strategy Instruction as an Effective Tool to Improve Adolescents' EFL Reading Skills

The National Curriculum Guide focuses on learning strategies as a means of becoming a more independent learner:

> Learning strategies are defined as specific methods the pupils apply to become more independent in their studies and to make the studies easier, more pleasant, successful and transferable into other fields. The learning strategies are diverse; some are conscious, others learnt but unconscious (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 137)

The importance of introducing reading strategies cannot be stressed enough. Pupils can benefit from knowing and using different reading strategies to improve their reading skills and to control the reading experience, thereby gaining confidence in their ability to read the language (NCLRC, 2015). This appears to be a motivating factor. The following section work from this viewpoint to focus on pupils' metacognition and strategy acquisition because it, from a pedagogical point of view, is relevant to teach pupils about strategies to enhance reading comprehension (Brudholm, 2002, p. 61).

3.4.1 Three Levels of Consciousness

Kidd & Czerniawski (2010) define metacognition as thinking about thinking, or, learning about learning (p. 298). Motivation is sometimes linked to the development of a very particular thinking skill or process referred to as metacognition. More concretely meta can be described as above, over and beyond the surface and cognition as thinking. In that connection metacognition is thinking about thinking or thinking about how we think. Metacognition is a reflexive process that enables learners to develop their learning even further and maximise each learning opportunity (Kidd & Czerniawski, 2010, p. 195). This standpoint is also supported by Bruner (1996, p. 56), who claims:

> The child is not merely ignorant or an empty vessel, but somebody able to reason, to make sense, both on her own and through the discourse with others. The child… is capable of thinking about her own thinking, and of correcting her ideas and notions through reflection – by 'going meta', as it is sometimes called.

Furthermore, metacognitive processes are closely linked with two schools of educational and pedagogic thought: constructivism and social learning theory.

Constructivism suggests that new learning is built upon older learning. The learning processes of constructivism involve the manipulation of bits and pieces of a greater whole using puzzles and problem solving and by applying previous knowledge. Learners are active, but also communal in that they need to talk and interact with each other and the teacher (Kidd & Czerniawski, 2010, p. 197-197). Social learning theory emphasises the need for interaction for learning to

take place. Learning is seen to be at its most productive when learners learn with and from each other (Kidd & Czerniawski, 2010, p. 197). From these two perspectives, learning engagement and motivation are seen to lie within social and playful pedagogic practices and strategies, because the results is learners who are being social, working with others and talking as a means to learning, building and owning meaning (Kidd & Czerniawski, 2010, p. 197).

Knowledge about one's own cognitive processes is, according to Brudholm (2002, p. 61), pedagogically relevant in connection with reading comprehension. Earlier research has indicated that it can be appropriate to teach pupils about strategies to enhance reading comprehension (Brudholm, 2002, p. 61). Metacognition in this context comprises three different forms of knowledge. These three levels of consciousness have great impact on the teaching of reading comprehension strategies and consist of what, how and why/when reading comprehension is applied. The three forms can be described as follows:

1. Declarative knowledge such as knowing about what to do e.g. what is a resume?

2. Procedural knowledge about how to do something such as particular guidelines to follow when making a resume.

3. Conditional knowledge about why and when to apply a certain strategy e.g. when and why it is necessary to develop a resume? (Brudholm, 2002, p. 61)

3.4.2 Transferring First Language Reading Strategies to Foreign Language Reading

Pupils do not automatically transfer the strategies they use when reading in their native languages or mother tongues (L1) to reading in a foreign language (FL), because it seems that they think that reading means starting at the beginning and going word by word, stopping to look up every unknown vocabulary item, until they reach the end (NCLRC, 2015). When approaching reading this way, pupils are relying exclusively on their linguistic knowledge, a bottom-up strategy. Therefore, one of the most important functions of the teacher is to help pupils move past this idea to using top-down strategies as they do in their native languages. Effective language teachers show pupils how they can adjust their reading behaviour to deal with a variety of situations, inputs, and reading purposes by helping the pupils to develop a set of reading strategies and applications:

1) Previewing: reviewing titles, section headings, and photo captions to get a sense of the structure and content of a reading selection.

2) Predicting: using knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and to check comprehension; using knowledge of the type and purpose of the text to make predictions about discourse structure; using knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary, and content.

3) Skimming and scanning: using a quick survey of the text to get the main idea, identify text structure, confirm or question predictions.

4) Guessing from context: using prior knowledge of the subject and the ideas in the text as clues to the meanings of unknown words instead of stopping to look them up.

5) Paraphrasing: stopping at the end of a section to check comprehension by restating the information and ideas in the text. (NCLRC, 2015)

Furthermore, teachers can help their pupils learn when and how to apply the strategies in various reading situations:

1) By modelling the strategies aloud, talking through the processes of previewing, predicting, skimming and scanning, and paraphrasing. This shows pupils how the strategies work and how much they can know about a text before they begin to read word by word.

2) By using cloze exercises to review vocabulary items. This helps pupils learn to guess meaning from context.

3) By encouraging pupils to talk about what strategies they think will help them approach a reading assignment, and talking after reading about what strategies they actually used. This helps pupils develop flexibility in their choice of strategies and control the reading experience in order to gain confidence in their ability to read the language. (NCLRC, 2015)

3.5 Communicative Language Teaching and Authentic Language

According to Larsen-Freeman (2000, p. 121) some educators in the 1970s began to question if they were approaching the goal of learning a language in the right way. Some educators observed that pupils could produce sentences accurately during lessons, but the pupils were not capable of using them appropriately when genuinely communicating outside the classroom. Others noted that being able to communicate required more than mastering linguistic structures. Pupils may know the rules of linguistic usage but are unable to use the language. Because of this, communicative language teaching now required that pupils perform certain functions as well, such as promising, inviting and declining invitations within a social context. This meant that pupils were required to have communicative competence, that is, knowing when and how to say what to whom, rather than just linguistic competence (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 121).

These findings contributed to a shift in the field, in the early 1980s, from a linguistic-centred approach to a communicative approach. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) broadly aims to apply the theoretical perspective of the communicative approach by making communicative competence the goal of teaching and by acknowledging the interdependence of language and communication (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 121). It is a learner-centred method, where pupils are seen as more responsible managers of their own learning (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 129).

CLT focuses on authentic language as it is used in real contexts and the goal is to enable pupils to communicate in the target language. Pupils work on all four language skills of reading, listening, speaking and writing. Oral communication is seen to take place through negotiation between speaker and listener. The writer is not present to receive immediate feedback from the reader, but the reader tries to understand the writer's intentions and the author writes with the reader's perspective in mind. Thus, meaning does not reside exclusively in the text, but rather through negotiation between the reader and the writer (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 131).

Through CLT pupils use the language a great deal in communicative activities, such as language games, scrambled sentences, picture strip stories, role-playing, information gap, choice and feedback and problem-solving tasks. Another characteristic is the use of authentic materials because these give pupils an opportunity to develop strategies for understanding the language as it is actually used (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 129-134). To overcome the problem that pupils cannot transfer what they learn in the classroom to the outside world and also to expose pupils to natural language in a variety of situations, CLT advocates the use of language materials authentic to native speakers of the target language.

Pupils are, above all, communicators, who are actively engaged in negotiating meaning in order to make themselves understood and to understand others in preferably pairs, triads or small groups (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 130). To follow this principle, pupils need knowledge of the linguistic forms, meanings and functions. In that context, they need to know that many different forms can be used to perform a function and also that a single form can serve a variety of functions. The pupil should be able to choose the most appropriate form from these, given the social context and the roles of the interlocutors. The pupils must be able to manage the process of negotiating meaning with their in interlocutors (Larsen-Freeman, 2000. p. 128). The teacher's role is to facilitate communication in the classroom, with the responsibilities of establishing situations that will promote communication at times engage in the activities with the pupils. Teachers must also be advisers, monitor performance, but without focusing on errors. These are a natural outcome of the development of communication skills. Instead accuracy-based activities will be implemented later (Lefever, 2009, p. 109).

The National Curriculum Guide (2014) for foreign languages follows the principles of communicative language teaching and emphasizes the teaching of all four skills i.e. reading, listening, writing and speaking and integrating grammar and vocabulary with skills-based instruction (Lefever, 2009).

3.5.1 CLT and Motivation

One of the basic assumptions of CLT is that by learning to communicate pupils will be more motivated to study a foreign language because they will feel that they are learning to do something useful with the language. Furthermore, CLT promotes motivation through the teacher giving pupils an opportunity to express their individuality by having them share their ideas and opinions on a regular basis. Another advantage, in that context, is the enhancement of pupil security by a constructivist learning approach that involves many cooperative interactions with peers and the teacher (Freeman-Larsen, 2000, p. 130).

3.5.2 An Example on the Use of Authentic Texts in the EFL Classroom

According to Berardo (2006, p. 64), the idea behind using authentic materials in the classroom is to offer pupils as much real language exposure as possible to simulate a real world context. This approach to language learning and reading follows the lines of the current language pedagogy of communicative language teaching (CLT), where the focus is on authentic language use, real life communication in the classroom and fluency as well as accuracy. Authentic material in the classroom also enables the pupil to interact with the language and content rather than the form. Authentic material includes what one would

need and want to read when travelling, studying abroad, or when using the English in any other context outside of the classroom (Berardo, 2006, p. 64).

The main advantage of choosing and using authentic material is in that it can create a link from pupils' school activities and to the real world context or real-life situations. Through this material, the pupil will be exposed to real discourse and not the artificial language of textbooks produced specifically as teaching material. Authentic materials give the pupils the opportunity to gain real information and know what is going on in the world around them (Berardo, 2006, p. 64).

Extracting real information from a real text in a new or different language can be extremely motivating to pupils by exposing them to real language (Berardo, 2006 p. 64). Additionally, the point of using authentic material is to reflect the changes in language, whereas textbooks can become outdated quickly. Authentic material can be meaningful or relevant to the pupils because the language is not something only studied in a classroom: "authentic texts can be motivating because they are proof that the language is used for real-life purposes by real people." (Nuttall 1996, p. 64)

A wide variety of different types of text can help the teacher when attempting to find texts that will interest and encourage the pupil's learning. The teacher can consider the following factors from Figure 2, when choosing authentic reading material:

	Important Factors in Choosing Authentic Reading Material
Suitability of Content	*Does the text interest the student?* *Is it relevant to the student's needs?* *Does it represent the type of material that the student will use outside of the classroom?*
Exploitability	*Can the text be exploited for teaching purposes?* *For what purpose should the text be exploited?* *What skills/strategies can be developed by exploiting the text?*
Readability	*Is the text too easy/difficult for the student?* *Is it structurally too demanding/complex?* *How much new vocabulary does it contain? Is it relevant?*
Presentation	*Does it "look" authentic?* *Is it "attractive"?* *Does it grab the student's attention?* *Does it make him want to read more?*

Figure 2. Important Factors in Choosing Authentic Reading Material (Berardo, 2006, p. 63)

Berardo (2006, p. 64) further describes the advantages of authentic material such as a bringing a newspaper or magazine into classroom, rather than photocopies of an article because pupils can actually choose what they want to read. The more the learner reads, the better a reader he or she will become,

not only improving his language levels but also confidence. If the text interests the learner, it can also be related to his or her own experiences.

> One of the aims of authentic materials is to help the pupil react in the FL in the same way L1 speakers react. This means that pupils who live in the target language environment, once outside of the classroom, will encounter a variety of situations in which different reading purposes and skills are required. Berardo (2006) hereby claims that: “learners are being exposed to real language and they feel that they are learning the 'real' language” (p. 64).

The main advantages of using authentic materials can be listed as the following:

1. having a positive effect on pupil motivation;
2. giving authentic cultural information;
3. exposing pupils to real language;
4. relating more closely to pupils’ needs;
5. supporting a more creative approach to teaching.

However, there are a few pitfalls that the teacher much be aware of when using authentic materials. First, the material can be culturally biased and a thorough knowledge of cultural background is required when reading. Secondly too many structures may be mixed and that may cause lower level pupils problems when decoding the texts (Berardo, 2006, p. 65). The advantages and disadvantages are displayed in figure 3.

Authentic Reading Materials

Advantages	*Disadvantages*
"Real" language exposure with language change/variation being reflected	Often too culturally biased, difficult to understand outside the language community
Students are informed about what is happening in the world	Vocabulary might not be relevant to the student's immediate needs
Textbooks tend not to include incidental/improper English and become outdated very quickly	Too many structures are mixed so lower levels have problems decoding the texts
The same piece of material can be used for different tasks	Special preparation is necessary, can be time consuming
Ideal for teaching/practising mini-skills-skimming/ scanning	Can become outdated easily, e.g. news stories, articles.
Contain a wide variety of text types, language styles not easily found in conventional teaching materials	
Encourage reading for pleasure, likely to contain topics of interest	

Figure 3: Advantages and Disadvantages of Authentic Reading Material (Berardo, 2006, p. 65)

Authentic materials often contain difficult language, unneeded vocabulary items and complex language structures, which can often create problems for the teacher too. They can also become very dated, very quickly but unlike textbooks can be updated or replaced much easier and more cost effectively. The biggest problem with authentic materials is that if the wrong type of text is chosen, the vocabulary may not be relevant to the learner's needs and too many structures can create difficulty. This can have the opposite effect, that is, instead of motivating the learner, it can de-motivate (Richard, 2001).

Moreover, when bringing authentic materials into the classroom, it should be done with a purpose and a clear pedagogical goal; "we (teachers) need to have a clear pedagogic goal in mind: what precisely we want our pupils to learn from these materials." (Senior, 2005). This is essential in encouraging pupils to feel more confident and more secure when handling authentic materials with pedagogical support from the teacher. Since authentic materials should be used in accordance with pupils' abilities, one solution to overcoming difficult authentic texts is to simplify them according to the level of the learners. Berardo (2006, p. 66) suggests that this can be done by removing any difficult words or structures. However, the teacher must be aware that this can also remove basic discourse qualities, making the text less authentic.

The basic parameters to consider when simplifying a text are: linguistic simplicity in grammatical structures, lexical items and readability; cognitive simplicity considering age, education, interests of the learner; and psychological simplicity regarding traditional social norms (Berardo, 2006, p. 66). Another solution is interactive reading where the pupil is given text related tasks to activate the reader and ensure comprehension.

1. Pre-reading: used not just to test or compensate for linguistic/socio-cultural inadequacies but also used to activate existing schemata;

2. During-reading: used to encourage the learner to be a flexible, active reader also to promote a dialogue between reader and writer;

3. Post-reading: often are questions that follow a text, used to test understanding but sometimes a good schema will be enough.

Rather than just simplifying the text, it can be made more accessible by eliciting pupils' existing knowledge in pre-reading discussion and introducing new vocabulary. Then the teacher can ask pupils to perform tasks that are within their competence. Examples of this could be skimming to get the main idea or scanning for specific information before the pupils begin intensive reading.

The reading approach must also be authentic. Pupils should read the text in a way that matches the purpose and type of the text, and the way people normally read. This means that reading aloud will take place only in situations where it would take place outside the classroom. Finally, as reading is an activity with a purpose, the purpose for reading guides the reader's selection of texts and determines the appropriate approach to reading comprehension (Berardo, 2006, p. 66).

3.5.3 Engagement and Motivation: "Increasing Competence is Motivating, and Increasing Motivation Leads to More Reading"

According to Guthrie & Wigfield, (2000, p. 403) engagement is strongly associated with reading achievement and means that pupils who read actively and frequently improve their text comprehension. Guthrie and Wigfield (2000, p. 403) also points out a connection between engagement and achievement as it is likely that pupils who are capable of understanding a wide range of texts choose to read independently. The belief is that high achievers improve more rapidly than low achievers over time in school because relatively good readers tend to read more, which increase their competence, which increases their reading ability (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000, p. 405).

Motivation is the crucial link between frequent reading and reading achievement by sustaining the upward spiral of achievement. In this perspective, motivation is the foundational process for reading engagement and is a major contributor, to disengaging from reading when things go awry (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000, p. 405).

3.6 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has focused on reading as an active process, where the pupil constructs content and meaning on the basis of earlier experience. It has been found that the process and development of reading during adolescence demand both bottom-up and top-down strategies. They must be seen as parallel processes considering the different processes and stages of reading development. Literacy development is a much more complex process than simply being able to read. Words need to be recognized and their meanings accessed, relevant background knowledge needs to be activated, and inferences must be generated as information is integrated during the course of reading.

Teaching pupils about reading strategies has shown to be very effective, as language teachers can show pupils how they can adjust their reading behaviour to deal with a variety of reading situations. Moreover, it helps pupils develop flexibility in their choice of strategies, because when language learners use reading strategies to control the reading experience and thereby gain confidence in their ability to read the language.

CLT is a learner-centred approach that offers an active method to learning a language. It advocates authentic materials because those offer pupils an opportunity to develop strategies for understanding the language as it is actually used. An advantage is that pupils are learning how to transfer and apply what they learn in the classroom to the outside world. It has further been established that learning to communicate creates pupils who are more motivated to study a FL because they feel that they are learning to do something useful with the language. Other notable advantages are that CLT promotes motivation in pupils, gives pupils an opportunity to express their individuality, and enhances pupil security by the many cooperative interactions with peers and the teacher. Thus, in many ways CLT is an approach that can support not only the development of literacy but also matches the guidelines in the National Curriculum Guide, as well as promotes motivation for learning in pupils.

4 Motivation

The following chapters will discuss the importance of motivation for learning and what teachers can do to promote motivation in their pupils. This is done by exploring several areas of motivation: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, why motivation for learning in adolescents can decline and the critical role of the teacher's self-conception and its impact on pupils' motivation in the classroom.

4.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Motivational Theory

To reach a deeper understanding of the role of motivation in teaching and learning it is relevant to look at the classic work of the psychologist Abraham Maslow called Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1943). This was developed to formulate a positive theory on motivation and includes the concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in educational psychology. According to Maslow's (1943) observations the behaviour of well-adjusted people or self-actualizers includes the desire to seek fulfilling experiences. Maslow describes seventeen propositions that he believes would have to be incorporated into any sound theory of the growth of motivation or need gratification. Need gratification is the most important single principle underlying all development, according to Maslow. He stated that: "the single, holistic principle that binds together the multiplicity of human motives is the tendency for new and higher need to emerge as the lower needs fulfils itself by being sufficiently gratified" (Maslow, 1968, p. 55).

This basic principle was developed by Maslow who then that proposed a five-level hierarchy of needs, represented as a pyramid with physiological needs at the bottom of the hierarchy, followed in ascending order by safety, belongingness and love, esteem and self-actualization. See figure 4:

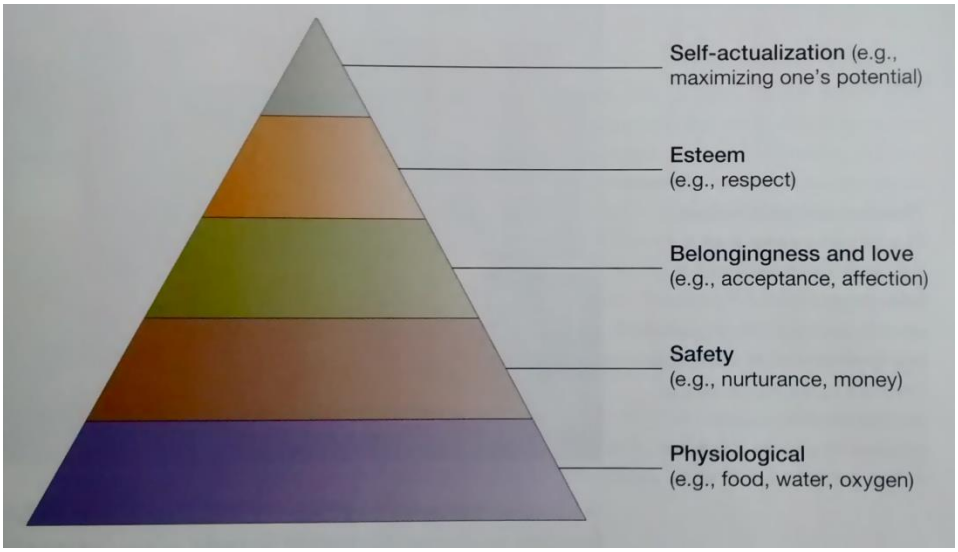


Figure 4: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow 1943 from: Snowman, McCown & Biehler, 2009, p. 429)

The order in the figure is reflects the differences in the relative strength of each need. The lower a need is in the hierarchy, the greater the strength of that need. When a lower-level need is activated (in case of for instance extreme hunger or fear of one's physical safety) people will stop trying to satisfy a higher-level need such as self-actualization (Snowman, McCown & Biehler, 2009, p. 428). The four needs: physiological, safety, belongingness and love, and esteem are referred to as deficiency needs. They motivate people to act only when they are unmet to some degree. When deficiency needs are not satisfied, persons are likely to make bad choices.

In contrast, self-actualization is referred to as a growth need, since people constantly strive to satisfy it. In that sense, it can be understood that a person's need for self-fulfilment is the need to develop all of one's potential talents and capabilities. As an example, a person who feels that he or she is capable of writing novels, teaching, raising children and practicing medicine will not feel self-actualized before having accomplished all of these goals to a minimum degree. When this need is activated, a person is likely to consistently make wise choices and become what Maslow called a good chooser (Snowman, McCown & Biehler, 2009, p. 429).

There are several implications of Maslow's theory of motivation for teaching. A teacher should do everything possible to see that the lower-level needs of the pupils are satisfied, so that the pupils are more likely to function at the higher levels. For example, pupils are more likely to be primed to seek the

satisfaction of esteem and self-actualization if they are physically comfortable, feel safe and relaxed, have a sense of belonging, and experience self-esteem (Snowman, McCown & Biehler, 2009, p. 429). In other words, his theory argues that, while people aim to meet basic needs, they seek to meet successively higher needs in the form of a hierarchy. For teaching this means that successful learning can only take place if the learner can fulfil all of Maslow's needs.

4.2 Learner Motivation, a Challenging Task for Teachers

One of the biggest challenges and most important tasks for lower secondary schools and their teachers is to motivate their pupils. Motivation is a prerequisite for the optimal learning and development of pupils and means that they are motivated by and engaged in the schoolwork and the activities taking place in the classroom.

According to Skaalvik & Skaalvik (2015, p. 9) pedagogical research has shown that pupils' motivation for schoolwork decreases with age. Declining motivation is a critical issue in schools because motivation enhances pupils' learning and future choices (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015, p. 10). Given this, it is important that the pupils achieve and sustain motivation for learning and schoolwork. It is equally important that teachers acquire knowledge about the concept of motivation to be able to create a motivating environment where effective and successful learning can take place.

A good lesson occurs when appropriate learning has taken place relative to the needs of the learners and the requirements of the programme of study. This means that learning should be relevant, supportive and challenging, and that all learners are on task. A prerequisite for a successful lesson, as the one mentioned above, is that pupils are engaged and motivated (Kidd & Czerniawski, 2010, p. 188).

According to Guthrie (2001) teacher involvement is and imperative for learner involvement. The involved teacher is a teacher who knows about the pupils' personal knowledge and interests, cares about each pupil's learning, and holds realistic, positive goals for pupils' effort and learning. Research has shown that pupils who think teachers are involved (interested in their progress) and allow for supportive autonomy (providing some control of learning) became engaged in the schoolwork. These students participate in class discussions, learn actively, and appear happy. Teacher involvement did not directly influence outcomes, but it had a significant benefit for pupil engagement, which then was significant in pupil outcomes. Pupil engagement affected teacher involvement as much as teacher involvement influenced pupil engagement (Guthrie, 2001).

4.2.1 Definition of Motivation: Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation

Motivation is a theoretical construct that is used to explain people's behaviour actions, desires and needs. Motivation prompts the person to act in a certain way and develop an inclination toward specific behaviour. In connection to the learning and development of adolescent learners, motivation refers to what triggers the individual pupil to do something and, importantly, to want to do it. Engagement and motivation occurs, when learners are successful, and at the same time, challenged (Kidd & Czerniawski, 2010, p. 190). Engaged and motivated learners are easier to teach and this results in fewer classroom management issues such as derailment and distraction (Kidd & Czerniawski, 2010, p. 190).

In the context of this thesis, the concept of motivation is defined more precisely as the following: “the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained” (Schunk, Pintrich & Meece, 2008, p. 4). According to this definition motivation is essential when implementing an activity and sustaining it. Moreover, motivation in pupils is crucial because motivation controls the pupils' behaviour, concentration, effort, endurance and choices (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015, p. 11). When motivation is defines as the trigger to do something and want to do it, it becomes a precondition needed to create enthusiastic learners and enable effective learning to take place (Kidd & Czerniawski, 2010, p. 298).

Motivation researchers and theorists distinguish between the two concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. They are here defined as the following:

1) Intrinsic motivation – self-reward; pleasure found within the task itself being undertaken. Motivation comes from within.

2) Extrinsic motivation – motivation resulting from what the task might lead to. Motivation comes from external rewards (Kidd & Czerniawski, 2010, p. 191).

Motivation is vital in the context of learning a foreign language and when considering successful learning experiences. Extrinsic motivation refers to motivation that occurs within pupils and that is triggered by stimuli from the pupil’s environment. Through meaningful rewards and activities, pupils are engaged in such a way that they do not realise that learning is taking place. Intrinsic motivation refers to motivation to study and learn a FL based on the pupil’s own, personal interest. Intrinsic motivation refers to the pupil’s inner drive to find out more about the target language, to ask questions, to fulfil assignments and to go beyond those assignments of his or her own accord to improve FL skills and knowledge about the foreign culture (Kidd & Czerniawski,

2010p. 191). Intrinsic motivation is 'deeper' and longer lasting than extrinsic motivation. However, it is harder to develop. It is based on the idea that people have an intrinsic, or fundamental, underlying motive to develop competences, master environments and apply new skills. The focus is not only on how motivated the pupils are, but also on the type of motivation. The distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is therefore central. It becomes an overall educational goal to guide pupils from extrinsic to intrinsic motivation to ensure that the learners become independently and are internally stimulated to continue as lifelong learners in the subject (Schneider & Crombie 2003, p. 45).

4.2.2 Adolescence: Growing Cognitively and Emotionally.

It is important to investigate and shed a light on adolescents' motivation and what triggers this in regards to schoolwork, given that motivation is a driving force for learning. There are several reasons for why motivation declines as adolescents age. The following section will clarify four possible reasons for this.

4.2.3 Four Possible Reasons For Declining Motivation in the Adolescent Classroom

Wigfield and Wagner (2005, p. 222) point out that adolescents experience many changes in their lives and circumstances that impact them. Such changes include biological changes associated with puberty, changes in relations with family and peers and an increasing concern about their identities and roles. Moreover, adolescents increasingly face crucial decisions that can affect them over the course of their lives i.e. decisions about further education, occupation, social relationships, and whether or not to engage in a variety of risky behaviours that can affect them over the course of their lives.

Many will manage to navigate through these changes and decisions very well. However, some adolescents will find it difficult, and as a result, are at risk for various negative outcomes. The understanding of motivation and self-efficacy among adolescents in compulsory schools is important to investigate. Motivation theorists posit that individuals' competence, beliefs, values, goals and other motivational variables relate to their performance on effort exerted in them, and choice of different activities to pursue and which to avoid (Wigfield and Wagner, 2005, p. 222). Adolescents with strong beliefs in their capabilities and positive achievement values and goals will be able to perform more competently. They are also more likely to exert the effort needed to accomplish various tasks and make choices regarding activities. Wigfield and Wagner (2005, p. 222) argue that healthy competence beliefs, self-efficacy, and motivation are central to healthy development during adolescence.

Wigfield and Wagner (2005, p. 226-227) suggest four possible reasons for motivation declining over time. Firstly, pupils become more interested in comparing themselves to other pupils as they age. This comparison and assessment become more realistic with age because the pupils become better at processing and understanding evaluative information about school performance and other activities. However, pupils that achieve poor results compared to their peers can gradually loose motivation for schoolwork.

Secondly, the increasing tendency to social comparison can be enhanced in school, since the school gradually, explicitly or implicitly, gives the pupils information about how they perform in comparison to each other. Wigfield and Wagner (2005, p. 227) claim that schools often promote practices that accentuate children's or adolescent's tendency to compare themselves to others. This can contribute to a decline in their sense of competence and, ultimately, their motivation. Thus, the risk is that pupils will focus more on performance goals than mastery goals.

Thirdly, another tendency is that pupils have more subject teachers as they age. Thus pupils only have a few lessons with each teacher. This could mean that teachers and pupils do not get to know each other very well and that the interaction between teacher and pupil is limited to academics and the pupils' performance. This could lead to a lack of emotional support (Wigfield and Wagner, 2005, p. 227).

Finally, adolescence is a period in life where children are growing cognitively and emotionally. A desire for greater freedom and autonomy and a focus on social relationships, belonging and interests is broadened. Wigfield and Wagner (2005, p. 227) point out that some pupils experience a school environment that does not promote these things. Such school practices contribute to the negative change in motivation and achievement-related beliefs. The pupils' interests become less and less in balance with school activities. The risk is that some pupils focus on other things than academic work in school.

4.2.4 The Connection Between Learner Motivation and Learner Achievement

Hattie (2009) sets out to summarise and synthesise the empirical research on the effects of various educational influences and interventions on pupil achievement. Among 800 metaanalyses, Hattie summarised six containing 322 separate studies and found a clear, positive connection between pupils' motivation and their school achievement. This particular finding is of great significance because it confirms that motivation has a huge impact on pupils learning and school achievement. However, the study neither defines

motivation in depth nor reveals what triggers motivation and why motivation has such a great impact on learning.

4.3 Cognitions, Feelings and Behaviour and Motivation to Learn

Motivation is a rather complex concept as it consists of three distinct ideas. Cognitions are what the pupils think, their goals and self-efficacy and what expectations they have for their own learning. Emotions or feelings cover interests, engagement, enjoyment of work or anxiety of failure. Finally the term behaviour is used to describe concentration, attention, effort, endurance and choices.

Motivation promotes indirect learning through effort, concentration, endurance and appropriate learning strategies. The more motivated the pupils are, the bigger the pupils' effort. Motivated pupils will show more engagement and endurance, when working with challenging tasks (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015, p. 10). Additionally, motivated pupils are better at self-regulation in regards to their own learning behaviour and by making use of working strategies that enhance learning (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015, p. 10).

Teachers often draw conclusions about the motivation of pupils based on easily observed pupil behaviour. However, the behaviours do not always give sufficient insight into the pupils' motivation. In a best case scenario, the teacher is able to create a picture of how motivated the pupils are in regards to the tasks they are working with. However, this tells the teacher little about the reasons for why the pupils are either very or little motivated and it says nothing about what motivates them. It is noteworthy that the pupils may have different goals, and that the pupils may not be consciously aware of what their goals really are (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015, p. 10).

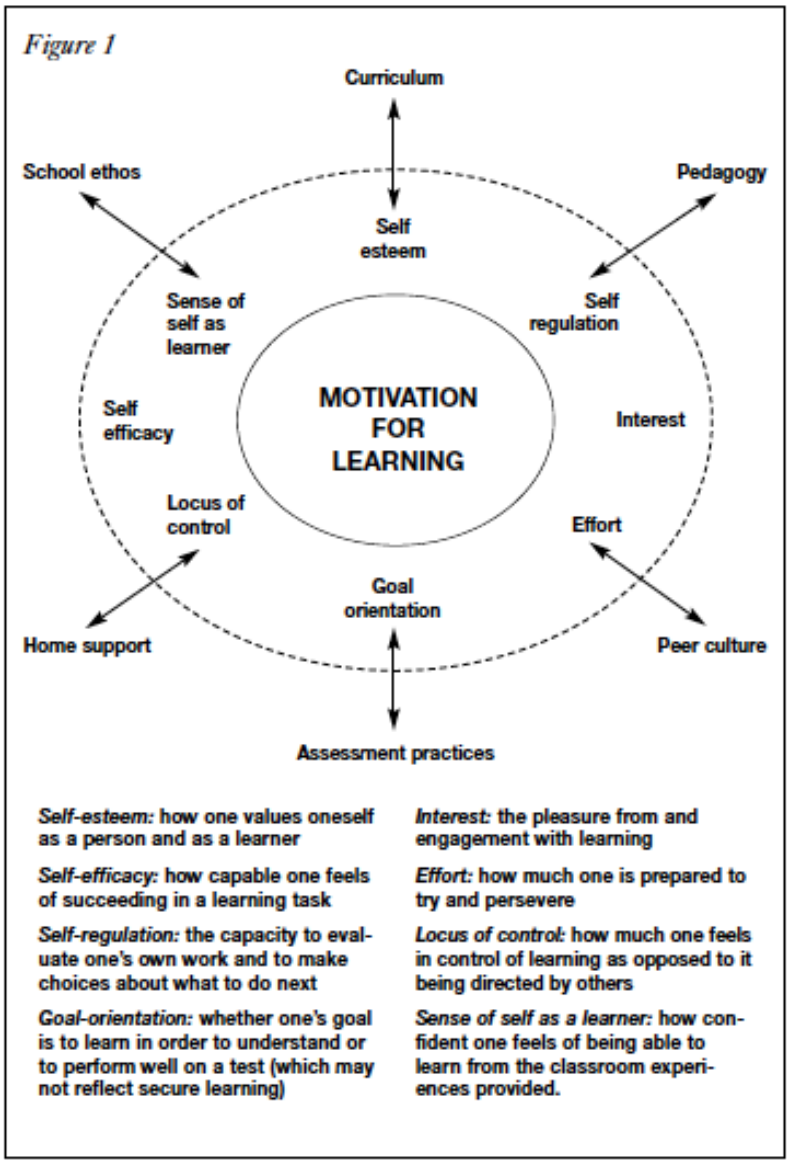


Figure 5: Motivation for Learning (ARG, 2002, p. 3)

Theories about motivation for schoolwork seek to explain and understand the behaviour of pupils. Figure 5 displays work from The Assessment Reform Group (ARG) (2002, p. 3) and uses the phrase: "Motivation for Learning" to refer to the assessment for learning techniques that the group advocates.

The figure offers eight key factors that can affect a pupil's motivation to learn. How do learners see their worth? Do learners feel they can actually succeed at a given task? Can learners self-evaluate their actions and performance? Does the purpose of the learning make sense to the learner? Does the learning hold interest? Does it give pleasure? How much effort is the learner prepared to put in before they give up? Do the learners feel in control of their own learning? Do they feel they can affect it? Are learners confident in the actions they are taking? Do they see the potential outcome? (Kidd & Czerniawski, 2010, p. 193).

According to Kidd & Czerniawski (2010, p. 193) the challenging tasks are often highly motivating but, at the same time risky in that they could lead learners to feeling that they have failed. Consequently, pupils might be unwilling to take risks in the future. On the other hand, easy and simple tasks are often not motivating because they are easy to complete. The teacher has to try to set challenging reading tasks, yet support the pupils in appropriate and differentiated ways, so that the learners can feel the benefit and effort and its reward. At the same time, the tasks must not be too difficult.

Teachers need to put themselves in the learners' shoes when thinking about classroom tasks and activities. To do this, it may be helpful to think about the following eight questions. Can learners complete the task – it is possible given their prior learning and performance? Which individuals need more/extra/different support from others? What barriers might there be to completing the task? Is the task relevant and how do learners get to see that it is relevant? Is the task doable in the time given? Are the instructions clear and unambiguous? What will the learners find hard; what can be done about this? Are resources, or the task itself, stimulating and pleasing? (Kidd & Czerniawski, 2010, p. 194)

Motivating and engaging learning is only possible through developing a sense of participatory learning. This is achieved through learners taking charge and having a voice in the direction of their learning. Teachers and learners need to agree on what meaningful learning is, what it looks like and how it takes place. Learners need to see how their own learning works, which ultimately is the idea of metacognition (Kidd & Czerniawski, 2010, p. 195).

4.4 The Critical Role of the Professional Teacher's Self-perception for Pupils' Motivation

Motivating pupils depends a great deal on the teacher's positive, professional self-conception, professional competence and pedagogical knowledge. These are all essential elements for constructing a motivating learning environment for pupils (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015, p. 84). According to Skaalvik & Skaalvik

(2015, p. 84) recent research has shown that the teacher's mastery expectation, including job satisfaction, well-being, motivation and engagement, a sense of belonging at the school, attitude toward innovation and changes, stress, tiredness and burnout, impacts pupils' learning. Poor mastery expectation can lead to teachers that dwell on problems rather than seeing opportunities and challenges (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015, p. 84). Teachers with poor mastery expectations have a tendency to avoid changes and work that has to do with development (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015, p. 85).

The individual pupil's general wellbeing and positive self-conception is also critical for motivation (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015, p. 81-82). Moreover, motivating pupils' deals to a great extend, with the way learning situations are structured, planned and organised by teachers. Accordingly, teachers need adequate knowledge about the theory of motivation and its practical implementation (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015, p. 7). Thinking about motivation and how to enhance motivation in the classroom is not a simple matter due to the wide variation in the pupils' motivation from high to little or low. This makes the underlying elements of classroom enhancement and thereby learners' motivation rather complex (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015, p. 7).

One of the aims in the National Curriculum Guide (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p.5), in regards to both the teacher's mastery expectation and pupil motivation and literacy development, is to stress the importance of systematically developing the knowledge, skills and attitudes that strengthen the individual's future ability to be critical, active and competent participants in a society based on equality and democracy. Study materials may be improved over and over again, but if the changes are not put into effect in schools, the purpose it lost. Implementations of a new way of thinking in school activities is based on a close cooperation between educational authorities and teachers, who should familiarize themselves with the content of the guide and work according to its basic ideas (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 5).

An essential point, that the National Curriculum Guide stresses, is the importance of teachers as being agents of change. Teachers, to some extent, and within the working frames they are given, are responsible for renewing and adapting their teaching methods to the societal needs for educating independent, critical and active participants who wants to take part in- and influence and maintain the society (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 5).

4.5 Five Crucial Elements for Promoting Motivation for Learning in Adolescents

The Danish Evaluation Institute, EVA, published a report in 2014 detailing research about five elements that are crucial for promoting motivation for learning at the compulsory school level.

1. A safe and positive learning environment
2. Focus on goals and pupils' learning
3. Give and receive feedback
4. Structure and variation in teaching
5. Pupil involvement

These elements were been found through exploring what constitutes good and motivating teaching in compulsory schools. They are meant to be looked at as parts of a whole where the individual teacher continuously reflects, analyses, assesses and adjusts his or her own teaching based on the pupils' immediate responses and teacher observation of the pupils' learning (EVA, 2014, p. 7). This practice is strongly connected to Hattie's theory of visible learning that emphasises teachers seeing learning through the eyes of the learner and helping them to become their own teachers (Hattie, 2012).

The study was carried out by selecting 12 teachers who demonstrated teaching and instruction of high quality in each of their classrooms. The study was based on research that indicates that the five elements have a particularly positive significance when creating good and motivating teaching. The report was based on observing of teaching situations and interviews with teachers, school principles and their pupils. The report contributes new knowledge about what teaching concretely looks like when teachers succeed with implementing a positive learning environment. They do this by focusing on pupils' learning, implementing various working methods and continuously involving the pupils in their own learning.

4.5.1 A Safe and Positive Learning Environment

According to EVA (2014, p.8), a good learning environment is characterized by pupils who are investigative and not afraid of trial and error. The role of the teacher important because the teacher relates to and recognises the pupils' work and is interested in what lies behind the pupils' answers. This gives the teacher insight into the pupils' learning processes and enables the teacher to give pupils the appropriate support and challenges.

The teacher continuously focuses on classroom management and barriers to learning to ensure that all pupils can participate. This further means that the teacher must think ahead in regarding the planning of the lessons to construct better opportunities for learning. This is done by working visually, physically or practically and by making the tasks clear and concrete for the pupils. The teacher works individually with the pupils that are having difficulty with participating or focusing on the instructions, and makes agreements with them about when and how they can get back on track. The teacher avoids uncertainty and confusion by communicating clearly (EVA, 2014, p. 8).

4.5.2 Focus on Goals and Pupils' Learning

The teacher closely follows the pupil's learning in order to follow the individual pupil's learning process. Learning goals play an important role, as learning goals are not one-time activity, only taking place in certain phases of the teaching. Rather, they are recurring focus in order to continuously make learning concrete and visible for pupils. The teachers keep this focus in connection with lesson planning, their dialogue with the pupils through lessons and in connection with their feedback to the pupils and when they summarize pupils' learning.

An essential precondition for the learning goals to bring value to teaching is that the goals are concrete and comprehensible for the pupils. Some teachers use success criteria as a tool to clarify the learning goals, whereas others works with converting the mutual learning goals for the lesson plan into individual learning goals for each pupil. The teachers do this based on pre-tests, ongoing feedback on oral and written tasks or by helping pupils formulate their own goals. It is crucial that the learning goals and expectations are adjusted and differentiated to the pupils' diverse learning needs and conditions. The teacher challenges and supports the pupils in different ways to make it possible for pupils to work with the goals in different ways and on different levels. Feedback is a particularly important element when the teacher makes the common learning goals relevant and useful for all pupils. The teacher must differentiate expectations on how far the pupils will get with their work and must communicate with the pupils about the goals (EVA, 2014, p. 8).

4.5.3 Giving and Receiving Feedback

Feedback during the lesson greatly impacts the creation of a focus on learning. The feedback that the teachers receive from pupils can be used for adjusting their teaching and to gain insight into the individual pupil's learning and academic progress. Feedback is crucial for allowing teachers opportunities to adjust their teaching so that the pupils get optimal and differentiated learning. However, in order for a teacher to give feedback to pupils it is necessary that

the teacher has profound knowledge about pupils' learning. The report found that the teachers combine different forms for knowledge about pupils learning and progression. Hence, daily observations of pupils' work and the dialogue with the pupils during a lesson combined with knowledge from pupils' written product gives the teacher a useful base of knowledge for providing feedback (EVA, 2014, p. 9).

Additionally, the teachers in the study used different forms of feedback to promote pupils' learning. The feedback served two goals, firstly, the pupils acquire new learning strategies and secondly, the teachers get access to knowledge, which they can use to adjust the teaching and plan new lessons (EVA, 2014, p. 9).

4.5.4 Structure and Variation in Teaching

This section looks at teaching that activates and involves pupils and teachers who implement teaching that contains both recognisable elements and varied activities. Recognisability consists of teaching where the teachers typically begin the lesson the same way and allow some of same main elements reoccur. Variation occurs in lessons that contain different types of activities that can change regularly (EVA, 2014, p. 10).

The teacher considers three things when planning lessons. First, teacher should limit his or her own speaking time and organisation process to give the pupils time to relate to and work actively with the subject. Second, the teacher must organise the lessons according to the specific needs of the class. Finally, the teacher should concretise and make abstract knowledge accessible. This is done by connecting the teaching with recognisable themes from the pupils' everyday life or by involving visual or physical activities that can support pupils in their learning processes and sustain what they learn (EVA, 2014, p. 10).

The teacher organises the lesson in a way that considers working in pairs and in groups, class teaching and presentations. There are two strengths that come from working in pairs or groups. Pupils work more actively with the subject, partly due to the dialogue that is established between pupils in connection with pair and group work, which the teachers in this study view as very valuable. Teachers have better opportunities for getting a close look at the individual pupil's work and are able to give the pupils appropriate support and feedback (EVA, 2014, p. 10).

4.5.5 Learner Involvement

Learner involvement includes viewing pupils as co-creators of a lesson and of the teaching. It is a broad understanding of the concept of pupil involvement, where the teachers use the pupils pre-understanding and act based on the

feedback they continuously receive from their pupils. Pupil involvement is not solely about participatory democracy, but rather that the teachers centre on establishing a classroom where the pupils are co-creators of what occurs in the lessons. This can be done in different ways. For example, the teacher can include pupils in a dialogue in the lesson, by involving pupils when choosing content and working methods, to ensure these address the interests and preferences of the pupils.

When working with pupil involvement in the classroom, teachers are using pupils' pre-understanding and experience from everyday life when working with literature and examples during a lesson. At the same time, teachers are working with the pupils' different, linguistic levels and additionally focusing on unfolding and explaining the terms and expressions with which the pupils are presented (EVA, 2014, p. 11).

The teachers actively use and are inspired by the feedback they receive from their pupils to be able to frequently adjust their lessons when they consider which direction the teaching should go. If the teachers notice that the pupils are particularly interested in a theme or a discussion, the teachers are prepared to use more time on that than what they initially had allotted (EVA, 2014, p. 11).

It is important that teachers have a good overview of the situation and that they are consistently aware of and understand the learning situation from the pupils' different perspectives. Teachers are also learners and they must be innovative and flexible to ensure learning opportunities for all pupils. Such teachers see assessment as feedback about their impact on the learning taking place in the classroom (EVA, 2014, p. 20).

4.6 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter involved an overall educational goal to guide pupils from extrinsic to intrinsic motivation to ensure that the learners become independent and internally stimulated to continue as lifelong learners in the subject. This standpoint advocates that intrinsic motivation should be promoted because it indicates that pupils work on tasks because they are enjoyable and give the pupils inner satisfaction.

It has also been found that motivation in pupils has a huge impact on pupils learning and school achievement. It has also been found that individuals' competence, beliefs, values, goals and other motivational variables relate to their performance on different activities, effort exerted in them, and choices of which activities to pursue and which to avoid. Unfortunately research has shown that motivation decline with age. It has been found that motivation in pupils has a huge impact on pupils learning and school achievement.

Thus, the more motivated the pupils are, the more is effort they will give. Motivated pupils will show more engagement and endurance when working with challenging tasks. Teachers need to be aware of that motivating and engaging learning is only possible through developing a sense of participatory learning achieved through learners taking charge and having a voice in the direction their learning takes. Given this, teachers and learners should agree on what meaningful learning is, what it looks like and how it takes place. Learners need to see how their own learning works.

It is imperative that teachers know their pupils well to foster motivation so that pupils can become engaged and motivated learners. The learning that takes place must be suitable for their needs, interests and goals. Pupils should have a sense of their own development and where they need to progress to next. They need to feel that their learning is worthwhile and they feel that they are making progress and are supported in this development. Motivating pupils deals, to a great extend, with the way learning situations are structured, planned and organised by the teacher. The role of the teacher, that is the teacher's own self-perception and adaptive and professional theory of practice, is vital for pupils' motivation.

Motivation in the classroom is an essential foundation and driving force for learning and furthermore underscores the importance of creating a motivating environment in order to foster pupils' motivation for reading in EFL.

5 English as a Foreign Language in Iceland

5.1 The Growing Importance of a Good Command of English in Iceland

English is a foreign language in Iceland. It is considered the first foreign language learned while Danish, Norwegian and Swedish for example are considered second foreign languages (Ministry of Science, Education and Culture, 2014, p. 50). However, Birna Arnbjörnsdóttir's (2007, p. 65) work indicates that English in Iceland may have more in common with a second language than a traditional foreign language. This distinction refers to the increased presence of English in Iceland, where English is widely used but is not a native language.

> The difference between a second and a foreign language situation lies in the *type* and even more so in the *amount* of input (language exposure) the learner has in the target language and both have consequences for the kind of proficiency the leaner attains. (Birna Arnbjörnsdóttir, 2007, p. 67)

The growing exposure and importance of English is visible in everyday life in Iceland. There is increasing access to English in Icelandic society through media, and in various sectors of life such as tourism, business, commerce, finance and education (Lefever, 2009, p. 108). Furthermore, globalisation, patterns of travel, improvements in transportation technology and radical changes in information and communication technology have also called for a better and different command of the English (Hafdís Ingvarsdóttir, 2007, p. 81). These changes all have direct bearing on the work of the EFL teachers in Iceland, who has to consider new approaches to teaching English to respond to global changes in the use of English and the new objectives in the National Curriculum Guide 2014 (Hafdís Ingvarsdóttir, 2007, p. 82). According to Lefever (2009, p. 108) a survey conducted by the Ministry of Education in 2001 showed that the majority of participants viewed English as the most important foreign language to know. Furthermore, English was the language that the participants said that they used most other than their first language.

The National Curriculum Guide (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 124) stresses the importance of foreign language learning by stating that:

> Language is one of the most important means for mankind to put its thoughts into words, acquire knowledge and communicate with others. Knowledge in different languages plays an important role in the cognitive development of the individual, encourages broadmindedness and enhances development in other fields. Discussion and knowledge of other nations open up cultures and increase broadmindedness, understanding, tolerance and respect for other and different lifestyles and understanding of one's own culture.

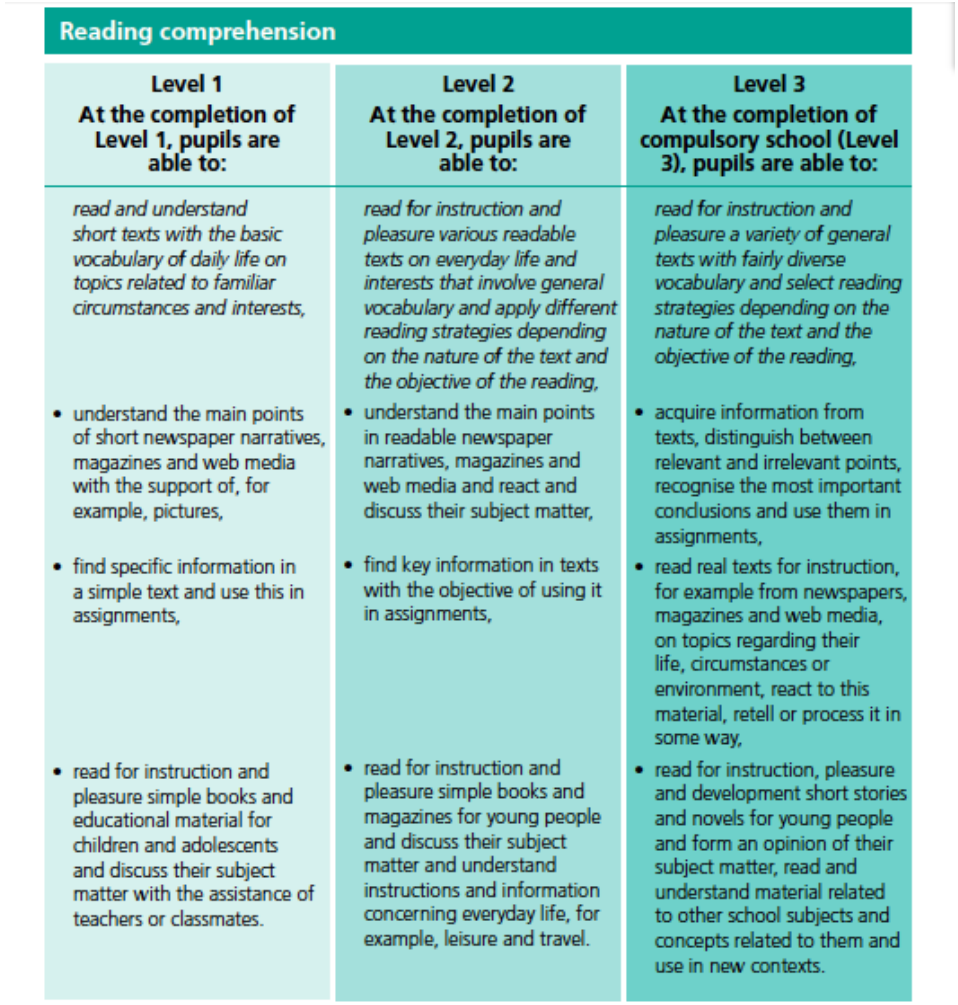
Accordingly, English plays a major role as a FL in international communication and commerce which together with the increasing cooperation and collaboration Iceland has with other countries, requires a substantial knowledge of English (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 125).

Since English's position as the common international language, or lingua franca (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 125), is growing both in the economy and in leisure the value of a good command of English is becoming obvious. The world of information and multimedia technology demands competence in English. Rapid development in digital mass communication and information and communication technology gives Iceland access to vast amounts of material that require an understanding of different variations of English. This means that a good command of English provides insight into the variety of cultures of those nations with English as their first language (L1) and nations where English is the second language (L2) that is being talked alongside L1.

English is the key language of higher education and science. It is essential to have a good command of English when completing university studies as most study material in Icelandic universities is in English. However, a number of Icelandic pupils also pursue further education in English-speaking countries or in other countries where teaching takes place in English (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 125).

5.1.1 Reading Competence Criteria for Foreign Languages and Methods in the National Curriculum Guide 2014

Competence criteria provide a schema found in Figure 6 that defines the total hours of English to be taught, as schools may differ from one another with regard to when English language studies begin. However, at the completion of compulsory school, pupils are expected to have reached Level 3 in English reading comprehension (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 127):



Reading comprehension		
Level 1 **At the completion of Level 1, pupils are able to:**	**Level 2** **At the completion of Level 2, pupils are able to:**	**Level 3** **At the completion of compulsory school (Level 3), pupils are able to:**
read and understand short texts with the basic vocabulary of daily life on topics related to familiar circumstances and interests,	*read for instruction and pleasure various readable texts on everyday life and interests that involve general vocabulary and apply different reading strategies depending on the nature of the text and the objective of the reading,*	*read for instruction and pleasure a variety of general texts with fairly diverse vocabulary and select reading strategies depending on the nature of the text and the objective of the reading,*
• understand the main points of short newspaper narratives, magazines and web media with the support of, for example, pictures,	• understand the main points in readable newspaper narratives, magazines and web media and react and discuss their subject matter,	• acquire information from texts, distinguish between relevant and irrelevant points, recognise the most important conclusions and use them in assignments,
• find specific information in a simple text and use this in assignments,	• find key information in texts with the objective of using it in assignments,	• read real texts for instruction, for example from newspapers, magazines and web media, on topics regarding their life, circumstances or environment, react to this material, retell or process it in some way,
• read for instruction and pleasure simple books and educational material for children and adolescents and discuss their subject matter with the assistance of teachers or classmates.	• read for instruction and pleasure simple books and magazines for young people and discuss their subject matter and understand instructions and information concerning everyday life, for example, leisure and travel.	• read for instruction, pleasure and development short stories and novels for young people and form an opinion of their subject matter, read and understand material related to other school subjects and concepts related to them and use in new contexts.

Figure 6. Reading Comprehension (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 129).

In order for pupils to acquire the English required in the competence criteria, it is necessary to ensure that working methods, assignments, organisation and conditions optimise educational performance. Pupils have to know the competence criteria and have an opportunity to discuss them. The tasks should be as diverse as the pupils' talents are in different fields (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 135).

5.1.2 Conditions to Optimize Pupils' Educational Performance in EFL

According to the National Curriculum Guide (2014) the six fundamental pillars of education and key competences should be incorporated into compulsory school studies. This applies to both the subject matter and working methods (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, p. 135). It is important that FL teaching take into consideration pupils' prerequisites, their general experience, understanding of their local community, the external world and cultural diversity. When organizing teaching, diversity should be emphasized by applying methods such as individual studies, cooperative learning, pair work, group work, peer teaching, portfolio education, carousel learning, story-telling method, outdoor education and learning stations (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 135).

The National Curriculum Guide (2014) further stresses the importance of a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom so that pupils feel secure. Accordingly, the classroom should be a place where pupils can develop academically and socially and learn democratic practices in cooperation with their schoolmates and teachers. Pupils should be offered challenging tasks that encourage their independence and competence to plan their own education. However, it is also important that there is room for play and creative activities in connection with pupils' FL studies (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 135).

In regards to reading in a FL, the National Curriculum Guide states that reading enhances the vocabulary in and the feel for the target language. Hence, it is important that pupils read a variety of texts to encourage their development in the learning strategies that are necessary to master good reading comprehension. Furthermore, emphasis should be on reading material that appeals to the age, development and interests of the pupils. It should also attempt to broaden the pupils' horizons and ensure that they read material linked to current affairs, culture and lifestyles in other countries, while reflecting the fundamental pillars of education. Finally, pupils should gradually be trained in using their own experience to read critically, to infer and to interpret texts, especially those that relate to controversial matters (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 2014, p. 136).

5.2 Chapter Conclusion

The value of a good command of English in Iceland is important as the language plays an important role when communicating internationally. It is also crucial to being able to comprehend and apply the vast amount of knowledge from English digital texts that has surfaced with the development of information and communication technology.

In order for pupils to acquire the competence criteria given in the National Curriculum Guide (2014), it is necessary for teachers to ensure that the working methods, assignments, organisation and conditions optimise educational performance and that pupils get an opportunity to discuss them. The tasks should be diverse as the as pupils' talents are in different fields.

6 A Qualitative Research Study: The Status of EFL Reading Among Adolescents in Iceland 2015

6.1 Introduction

This study is a qualitative research study concerning the topics literacy development and reading in the EFL classroom in Iceland.

6.1.1 Research Topic and Purpose

Two teachers at two different compulsory schools in Reykjavik, Iceland, were visited in the spring and summer 2015. The aim was to explore what types of reading materials, reading activities and tasks English teachers use in the adolescent EFL classroom and whether the implementation corresponds with the demands of The National Curriculum Guide 2014. The two teachers contributed, through qualitative interviews, with an insight into the different ways reading is carried out in their respective classrooms.

6.1.2 Research Question and Interview Questions

The overall research question is concerned with how EFL reading is taught to adolescents in order to investigate the teachers' approaches to teaching reading in English and supporting literacy development. Twenty interview questions were developed concerning the following topics:

1. How is reading taught in EFL grade 7-10 in Iceland?
2. Which types of text material are teachers of EFL emphasising?
3. Which reading activities and tasks are generally implemented in EFL?
4. What do EFL teachers do to create an environment that fosters pupils' motivation for reading English?

6.2 Method and Design

The study is a qualitative research study. Two individual, qualitative, semi structured, guided interviews were conducted. The interviewer develops a general set of questions in this type of interview and the format that is followed with all participants. Twenty interview questions were developed as a general research guideline. The general structure was the same for both individuals being interviewed, however, the method does allow the researcher to vary the questions as the situation demands.

The purpose of this interview method is two-fold. First, it allows the researcher to gather information from the participants about the topic studied, reading in the adolescent EFL classroom with the goal of finding out how individual teachers teach reading (Lichtman, 2010, p. 140). Secondly, the individual participants use their own words, language, voice and narrative. In this way, the participants can share knowledge and experience, and add a dimension to the understanding of the topic (Lichtman, 2010, p. 143).

When planning the interview process six topics were identified to make sure that they were all covered during the interview (Lichtman, 2010, p. 143). Those topics all concerned adolescents' English literacy development including: reading material, authentic texts, digital texts, content, the teacher's own role and motivation. A few demographic areas were also covered with each participant such as age, gender and work history (Lichtman, 2010, p. 143-144).

6.2.1 Interview Setting

Both interviews were set after mutual agreement and took place in the teacher's classroom at the two schools in Reykjavik.

6.2.2 Ethical Issues

Researchers are responsible for ensuring that participants are not harmed, for maintaining privacy and obtaining informed consent from all participants (Lichtman, 2010, p. 51). The researcher in this study asked for permission to use recording equipment and note taking, to which both participants agreed. The researcher additionally promised the participants confidentiality by not using the names of the teachers or their schools.

6.3 Data Collection

The interviews were both approximately 45 - 60 minutes long. The interviews were recorded with recording equipment and by taking notes. After the interviews in the spring and summer of 2015 follow up questions occurred via email and by an additional meeting. Contact with the teachers took place from May 2015 to September 2015.

6.3.1 Participants

Two English teachers participated in this study. They are referred to *Ása* and *Svala* to respect their anonymity in this study.

The participants were selected by writing direct emails to teachers in compulsory schools in Reykjavik who are currently teaching EFL to adolescents to ask for an interview. Only EFL teachers teaching adolescents were asked because they would match the optimal teacher profile and could contribute

valuable insight, knowledge and experience to the study. Some teachers did not fit the profile or did not have the time to participate, which made it difficult to get participants for the research study.

Both Ása and Svala were found and contacted through the researchers own network. Ása and Svala were the only teachers responding to the emails and therefore the only participants. Meetings for the interviews were scheduled.

Ása is a 38-year old female. Ása has been teaching English for almost five years and teaches English in grade 10. Ása was interviewed in the spring of 2015.

Svala is female, 59 years old and has been teaching Danish and Life Skills for over twenty years. However, she has been teaching English and Life Skills the past ten years. Svala teaches English in grades 7 – 9. Svala was interviewed in the summer of 2015.

6.4 Results

The results from the study are divided into four areas reflecting the different aspects of reading.

6.4.1 Implementation of Different Text Types

It became clear that textbooks and workbooks, such as Action, Matrix and Spotlight, are frequently used in the two EFL classrooms. Nonetheless, both Ása and Svala skipped chapters if they were not relevant. Ása mentioned that one of the used textbooks "was old and a bit dry". She used it to avoid mistakes when teaching. Ása mentioned that it was difficult to get the money to buy new reading material, such as new textbooks.

Svala taught reading from a new Action textbook and workbook, which has new, relevant texts that the pupils enjoy reading. Svala also mentioned that she gives her pupils the freedom to choose from the different chapters. The pupils do not have to read all chapters, but can choose the chapters of interests that are meaningful for the individual pupil. Before the school bought new textbooks and workbooks, Svala used a textbook in her teaching that, according to her point of view, contained outdated texts. It was difficult to determine why she kept on using it, as the rules of the school allow her to decide for herself what reading material she uses in the EFL lessons.

Both Ása and Svala used reading materials of various types alongside the textbook. They mentioned reading material such as British and American short stories, fantasy, mysteries, horror stories and grammar exercises. Additional reading activities, assignments and tasks included competitions and working with pop-songs, films, short films (making their own based on a script) making stories into comics, making posters, creating 'book about me' (a book the pupils

create themselves and where they can add photos and write about themselves, their families, favourite music, hobbies and more) and finding synonyms for words. Both fictional and non-fictional literature was used.

When asked about the use of authentic material, Ása answered that she mostly used authentic material if preparation time allowed it, which could be difficult as she had only one tablet available for all her classes. Svala on the other hand often uses authentic texts because she has access to tablets, a computer in her classroom and also a printer near the classroom. This made it possible to quickly search for texts current events. The easy access to the Internet also made it possible for the pupils to have a say in what texts they were interested in reading by searching for texts together with the teacher or individually or in pairs.

As an example of an authentic text, Svala has been using texts about ADHD, Asperger's Syndrome and bullying; all topics which the pupils find interesting and consider to be of meaningful, because a good handful of the pupils have been diagnosed with these issues. Some pupils find it interesting to know more about their own issues and their peers finds it interesting to become more familiar with their fellow pupils different challenges to understand them better.

According to Svala, bullying is often a hot topic among adolescents as it takes place in- and outside the school and on the Internet. The use of authentic texts can vary as the group of pupils varies from year to year, as do their interests and maturity.

The pupils at both schools were encouraged to read books for pleasure. Ása sometimes helped or encouraged pupils to find and read certain books that would correspond with the individual pupil's interest from the school library. Svala showed a collection of fiction books that she kept in her classroom as to inspire reading and to use if pupils needed additional reading material if they finished an assignment early. Svala said that she often visited the library with her classes and that the school frequently tried to buy new books for the library quite often to spark an interest in reading.

Svala focused on themes when developing the syllabus and planning lessons for the semesters. Ása, on the other hand, implemented themes more randomly along the way, according to content and depending on the group of pupils. Svala also mentioned that she had to take into consideration the diversity of the pupil group in regards to interests, maturity and the group dynamic from year to year when planning tasks and activities.

In Ása's classroom, pupils were doing their own research using library books because Ása wanted the pupils to learn to choose between appropriate and relevant material and learn the use of references in order to "not to hit a brick wall in the future" when went on to further education. As Ása has only one

tablet available for all her pupils, and the access to computers at the school is limited, the textbook and the library are the most used sources for reading material and knowledge. The variation in the implementation of text types, therefore, depends on what material or ICT tools are available at the school.

Ása did not have the tools available to implement digital texts very often, whereas Svala had both computers and tablets available and frequently used the Internet as a source for finding updated material, meaningful and interesting texts, videos and films. Svala said that when she is working with digital texts with her pupils, the pupils most often engage in creating PowerPoint slides or developing posters about a certain topic or a person. In these cases, the pupils use Google to search for information about the topic or theme with which they are working.

6.4.2 Implementation of Reading Strategies, Genre Instruction, and Vocabulary and Grammar Tasks

Ása explained that she wants her pupils exposed to different text structures in order for them to be able to navigate through different types of texts. This includes offering the pupils different text material in different genres. Ása emphasised that she teaches the pupils about different reading strategies such as skimming, scanning and more, but also focuses on the use of formal language versus informal language. As an example of a task, Ása mentioned reading a story or an article and using the information from the text or storyline to create a comic with text and pictures. The students transform the text from one genre into another.

Another example from Ása is introducing a theme or topic such as depression, confidence or friendship. The pupils would then read about the topic and use the collected information to create a short video in another genre using their cameras on their own smartphones.

Svala explained that she more unconsciously introduced tasks that involved reading strategies such as skimming and scanning. When asked whether the pupils are aware of when and why they are using such strategies, she said that they were probably not, as she did not tell them about the advantages of using them. Svala introduced the pupils to different text structures by asking the pupils read and write their own newspaper or create a professional review of a book or article they have read.

As an example on vocabulary acquisition, Ása said that she always presented the pupils in each grade with a new movie each semester that contained new vocabulary. After the movie, Ása will discuss new words and their definition and possible synonyms with the class as a whole. She wants the pupils to

discover that a word can be used in “ten different ways” depending on the situation.

Svala said that she mostly introduce new vocabulary by writing new words from the textbook or an article on the white board during a lesson. She encourages pupils to use the new words in post-reading activities such as writing tasks connected to the reading.

Both teachers use grammar tasks. For example, Svala said that each week or so she gives the pupils six irregular verbs as an exercise. The pupils will have to practice the verbs during a week in class or as homework. This will be followed by a 5-10 minutes long test the week after, where pupils show that they know how the verbs are conjugated. “It is probably very old fashioned”, Svala added.

Ása used the textbook as a way of practicing grammar with the pupils. She wanted the pupils to integrate grammar while writing a text and not so much in isolated exercises. Both teacher primarily used whole-class instruction to teach grammar.

6.4.3 Interactive Reading Activities

The teachers were asked if they let their pupils read with their minds in interactive reading and subsequently used pre-, during- and post-reading activities to increase comprehension. Neither Ása nor Svala answered that they consciously implemented such an approach. Both Ása and Svala mostly focused on post-reading activities. Svala said that she probably should focus more on such activities especially as her advanced pupils were very eager to finish reading in order to finish the post-reading activity.

Ása said that she usually “mixed up” different activities and mostly worked with the reading of a text after it was read. She emphasised post-reading activities in class where they discussed the text or engaged in a task connected to the reading.

6.4.4 Motivation for Reading

Both Ása and Svala were very aware of not getting bored by using the same material over and over again. As Ása stated: “if I get bored, the kids will get bored”. Whereas Svala said: “If they feel it's something that I am interested in…if I can show them that… that helps a lot on their motivation” and added that “if I believe in things that I am doing ... if they sense that … that is very important too”.

When asked about the most important driving force for motivating the pupils to read different texts, both Ása and Svala stressed the importance of relevance. Svala stated that “If they can relate to the text… if the text has a message’ or ‘something they have to think about” “if it’s funny or have some

excitement in it" that is something that really motivates the pupils to engage in reading and put more effort into a task. When asked if it is possible to build a bridge from the classroom to the pupils' world outside of the classroom. Also, it is important to take the pupils' diverse interests outside of schools into account when engaging them in reading tasks. This certainly contributes to the pupils' motivation for reading. Both Ása and Svala think that engaging the pupils in reading from diverse interests is one of the ways to practice inclusive, differentiated teaching. Nonetheless, Ása said that sometimes it was difficult to find the time to implement differentiated teaching but that she tried to keep in mind that some pupils need more advanced literature and "do a little extra" by rewriting text material she finds on the Internet.

In regards to motivation, Svala additionally mentioned that sometimes texts do not spark the interest among all the pupils. She also noted that "It is not a disaster if I have to stop doing something" because it can be difficult to always know what triggers the pupils' interest as the groups vary a lot.

Svala mentioned that knowing the pupils makes it easier to find material that is interesting and that she thinks she has good intuition about what her pupils' interests are. She notices the pupils' many diverse interests when she walks amongst and talks to the pupils during the lessons. Additionally, Svala's pupils frequently write reflections in a journal. Svala can get a feeling of what motivates the pupils, what interests them, what is boring or demotivating and from what activities or tasks that the pupils have learned from by reading these individual reflections.

Ása mentioned that motivation plays a big role in her classroom and that she supports it in the forms of games, assessment, feedback, rewards, grades, differentiated reading materials (mostly connected to reading for pleasure) and praise.

The two teachers did not vary much in regards to teaching methods. Ása said that she mostly approached reading in the classroom using traditional techniques such as reading aloud in class, individually or in pairs. Svala did the same, but additionally used collaborative reading tasks at times. These were connected to collaborative projects such as the work with PowerPoint and poster presentations. In those cases, pupils read as a group in the textbook or from texts they found on the Internet about a certain topic and then used that information to create a presentation.

Svala also often read horror stories aloud. According to Svala, the pupils love this. Svala said that sometimes she dimmed the lights and told or read stories. She says that this further motivates the pupils to read because the pupils get interested in horror stories or in making an alternative ending to a story in order to be able to read it aloud to their peers. Svala stated that she

considers praise to be a huge factor for motivating the pupils, but also that the feedback she provides to her pupils and the feedback that the pupils provide to her with through their log books is a motivating factor.

Ása said explained that grades were an important factor for pupils' motivation, however feedback was equally important, so she therefore emphasised giving feedback because it is considered to be a reward. Ása explained how her pupils understood their errors and knew what to work on next time through feedback. She said that the effect of feedback is very visible as none of her pupils have "gotten downgraded, but they are climbing and learning", which, in itself is a motivating factor among her pupils.

7 Discussion

This chapter discusses the results from the qualitative research study in regards to theories discussed earlier. The chapter compares and discusses the research study in regards to earlier research results about EFL instruction in Iceland. This is done to discover whether there have been any changes in recent years regarding teaching EFL reading in Icelandic compulsory schools and how adolescents' literacy development in EFL is supported.

7.1.1 Is Learning to Read in English as a Foreign Language Still Dominated by Traditional Teaching Approaches?

The results of the study suggest that the EFL teachers have a tendency to be bound to the textbook. Even though a variety of texts are offered to the pupils, the results have revealed that both Ása and Svala, seemed to use the textbook and workbook as the main tools to teaching reading and assigning reading activities and tasks. Hence, it seems that one of the disadvantages of using the textbook and workbook as the primary material is that this comes at the expense of communicative activities and interactive reading. This is based on Svala's answer that pupils read individually, aloud in class or in pairs without any pre- or during reading to activate them.

Ása said she mixed up the reading activities, but both teachers employed post- reading activities. Both Brudholm (2002, p.21) and Alderson (2000, p. 18) suggest an interactive reading process as a way to effectively develop proficiency in reading. The reader actively constructs meaning and content based on earlier experiences and knowledge which involves combining elements of both bottom-up and top-down models that considers different processes and stages of reading and involves metacognition (Brudholm, 2006, p. 20-21). While both Ása and Svala consider using elements of interactive reading, neither work consistently or consciously with these processes as a means to support pupils' EFL reading development.

In 2009, Lefever studied EFL teaching at the compulsory school level in Iceland under the National Curriculum objectives. Lefever discussed three main issues concerning EFL teaching (1) the types of teaching methods used, (2) the use of English during instruction, and (3) the types of assessment methods used.

Lefever stated that current language learning pedagogy follows the lines of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and that CLT methods are

recommended by the National Curriculum Guide. Nonetheless, Lefever deduced that traditional teaching methods and assessments still seemed to be visible in the classroom. The EFL instruction taking place in classrooms in Iceland was dominated by traditional, teacher-centred and textbook-bound approaches, rather than innovative approaches that emphasise learner-centred and holistic teaching (Lefever, 2009, p. 107). As consequence, Lefever indicated that EFL teachers were: "not fulfilling their role of using English for classroom interaction and communication, and pupils are not provided with ample opportunities for authentic and creative use of English" (2009, p. 107)

Lefever argued that learning to read in EFL requires the teacher to consider the teaching of reading as much more than knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. In this context, Lefever (2009, p. 108) pointed out how the cultural and pragmatic aspects of language are now essential elements of language learning. Lefever added to his conclusion that it is important to encourage and maintain positive attitudes towards learning languages and to provide language learners with challenging opportunities for active and meaningful language use. Lefever's point was that there are a number of discrepancies between the National Curriculum objectives and classroom practices, such as a lack of emphasis on communicative activities.

The study did not provide any data regarding National Curriculum objectives regarding awareness of learning styles and teaching strategies. However, there seemed to be a strong tendency towards using traditional teaching methods and teacher-directed and textbook-bound approaches in grades 5-10.

The present study made for this thesis also indicates what Lefever (2009) reported. Teaching approaches, such as whole class instruction and the use of textbooks and workbooks still seem to be common when teaching reading. It is also important to note that the results of this study is based on only two participants and does not include classroom observations. It can be difficult to make generalising statements, but it is possible to cautiously conclude that reading procedures in EFL teaching in Iceland have changed little since Lefever made his study in 2009.

The results of the present study, for example, indicate that EFL instruction among adolescents seeks to put the learner in the centre and, to some extent, avoid teacher-directed activities, even though they may still occur to some degree. It seems there is a tendency towards increasing learner-centred teaching. This appears as both teachers take pupil involvement, pupils' diversity and diverse interests into consideration and recognise that topics must connect to the pupils' lives both in and out of school.

Both teachers acknowledge that pedagogical practices that involve pupils' opinion about the topic chosen contribute to motivated reading and effort into

and engaging in reading tasks. This follows the theories about motivation formulated by Skaalvik & Skaalvik (2015, p.10), that suggest that the more motivated the pupils are, the more effort and motivation pupils will show when working with challenging tasks. This also fits with Guthrie & Wigfield's claim that increasing competence is motivating and increasing motivation leads to more reading (2000, p. 405). Thus, motivation can be understood as a crucial link between frequent reading and reading achievement.

It appears that both Ása and Svala emphasise connecting English reading activities to the pupils' reality. This certainly points to a change in the way EFL instruction is carried out in Iceland. As Lefever (2009) earlier research indicated little personalised instruction, project work, cooperative learning or other constructivist methods to enhance pupils' autonomy were observed in the EFL classroom. The same study suggested that very little was done to connect the subject to pupil's reality and that English was taught in isolation from other subjects of everyday life (Lefever, 2009).

It seems that there has been a shift away from more teacher-directed method of instruction towards a more learner-centred method of instruction over the past years. Both Ása and Svala consider and emphasise pupils' individual needs, interests and involvement in their pedagogical practice. This aligns with the recommendations of a leaner-centred teaching in the National Curriculum Guide (2014, p. 21). However, it appears that there is still a lack of constructivist methods implemented in the EFL reading activities. Both Ása and Svala reported very few examples of collaborative learning, project work and interactive reading.

7.1.2 Teachers' Awareness in Regards to Reading Strategies

The study points out two distinct differences between how reading is carried out in EFL. Ása consciously uses and teaches reading strategies to her pupils. Her aim is to make the pupils conscious about why they are using different reading strategies and how to apply them to become more autonomous and proficient readers and learners. This approach is in line with the NCLRC (2015) where it is stated that effective language teachers show pupils how they can adjust their reading behaviour to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and reading purposes. By introducing pupils to a set of reading strategies and how to apply appropriate strategies to each reading situation, pupils are encouraged towards independence and choosing their own reading material. This is also similar to the recommendations of The National Curriculum Guide (2014, p. 99).

Svala did not express the same awareness about teaching reading strategies. Svala may subconsciously implements reading strategies in activities but said that her pupils are not aware of that they are actually using different strategies.

The data indicate that there is a discrepancy or conflict between the two teachers' professional approaches to teaching reading. The results suggest that EFL teachers' approaches to teaching reading in EFL in Iceland are varying a great deal. Accordingly, it seems like pupils' literacy development at the completion of compulsory school will vary depending on the school they are at and the teacher that taught them English.

7.1.3 Information and Communication Technology in EFL

Being literate in the 21st century involves proficiency with new technologies and critically navigating through the innumerable different types of texts available in different variations of English. Language education should certainly involve the use of ICT to develop such proficiency. ICT gives pupils an opportunity to acquire more information than ever before. This consequently, implies that users of these media have to shoulder more responsibility than they have previously. The National Curriculum Guide (2014) stresses the importance of implementing ICT tools in FL teaching. The question of whether the use of ICT in EFL classrooms corresponds with the recommendations of the National Curriculum Guide (2014) and adolescents' 21st century literacy needs remains.

The results of the study reveal that Svala and her pupils often use computers, tablets and smartphones as tools to access digital texts, quickly search for authentic and updated texts online, show videos and create posters and PowerPoint slides. However, ICT tools provide a variety of ways to work with digital texts. It seems that Svala lacks some professional skills in terms of using ICT as a pedagogical tool in the classroom and effectively using its almost endless possibilities. Ása, on the other hand, only had access to few ICT tools at her schools. This limited her opportunities to use digital texts.

The findings seem to suggest a difference between the two schools in terms of enhancement of pupils' literacy from frequently working with ICT as a tool and digital texts. This indicates a possible discrepancy in ICT competence among pupils by the completion of compulsory school due to a lack of resources. Some pupils may not have acquired the same competence criteria expected, such as being able to read texts for instruction from webmedia, that the National Curriculum Guide recommends (2014, p. 129). This is a challenge for EFL teachers in that they have different opportunities to use ICT and thereby ensure that pupils get the opportunity to access digital texts and other online material to reach an understanding of different varieties of English.

This assumption matches with the theories about literacy formulated by NCTE (2008), Lankshear & Knobel (2011, p. 24) and The National Curriculum Guide (2014, p. 138). Namely, 21st century literacy development involves much more than being able to decode and comprehend a text. Due to changes in technology and the exponential growth of information in the past decades the pupils' everyday lives are influenced by technology. Given this, EFL teachers are facing new challenges in supporting pupils' literacy development in regards to proficiency with new technologies and digital texts.

This also corresponds to Lefever's findings (Lefever, 2009. p. 108), that as English exposure and use has changed over the years, so have the objectives of language teaching. As a consequence, it is no longer considered sufficient to be able to read classical texts in EFL and practice grammar. According to the National Curriculum Guide (2014, p. 129), the is school is one of the places where adolescents use electronic media and foreign languages to acquire information and it is likely that pupils use these medias in a different manner at school from how they use them during their leisure hours. This assumption points to the importance of implementing ICT in EFL. However, using ICT as a pedagogical tool for working with a variety of digital texts requires the teacher to have adequate knowledge about ICT.

Nowadays, many compulsory schools are investing in and using new technology. An example of this is the compulsory schools in Kópavogur received 900 tablets in June 2015 to use for teaching (www.alfholsskoli.is, 2015). This indicates that Icelandic compulsory schools and their teachers will have access to ICT in order to better support pupils' 21st century literacy development in the future. This of course requires teachers to get adequate training about the use and implementation of ICT in teaching.

8 Conclusion

Literacy as a concept has expanded drastically over the past decades. Where literacy once was taught as reading and writing, it now further demands functionality. Literacy is a fundamental human right and understood as the foundation for lifelong learning. Literacy entails that individuals acquire a wide set of knowledge, skills and strategies that they build on throughout life in various contexts, through interaction with their peers and in the wider community. An essential part of literacy is metacognition which enables the learner to become successful by thinking about how we think.

One of the latest developments is the concept of 21st century literacy. This involves digital literacy and proficiency with information and communication technology that holds the keys to unlocking the world of both fixed and dynamic texts that are increasingly visible in the Icelandic society. The rapid development of technology opens access to vast material that requires a good command of English and an understanding of different variations of English.

This means that it is no longer sufficient to be able to decode and comprehend written English as a foreign language. Texts must be understood as an integral part of everyday life. This implies that being able to read involves much more than knowing how to operate the language system. It also involves functionalities such as being able to connect the dots, create meaning and do something with the knowledge. In other words, pupils need to understand how they utilise the knowledge and skills they acquire.

One of the biggest challenges, and most important tasks, for teachers is to motivate their pupils. It is a prerequisite for optimal learning and development of pupils that they become motivated and sustain that motivation in compulsory school, as motivation is likely to decline during adolescence. To create a learning environment that fosters motivation and reading achievement, the teachers need to put themselves in the learners' shoes when thinking about appropriate, challenging reading tasks that can be motivating. When creating learning and reading activities in the classroom, the teacher should involve the pupils in defining meaningful learning; what it looks like and how it takes place in the classroom. The teacher’s role in this process is crucial to motivate pupils and to deal with the way learning situations are structured, planned and organised.

The growing exposure and importance of English is visible in the everyday life in Icelandic society and in the lives of adolescents both in and outside compulsory school. Substantial knowledge of English today is important for

international communication, for participation in society and for engaging in further education. These changes all have bearing on the work of EFL teachers in Iceland, who have to consider new approaches to teaching English to respond to the increasing use of English in Icelandic society and the new objectives in the National Curriculum Guide 2014.

Results from this qualitative research study conducted in Iceland during the spring and summer 2015, indicate that EFL teachers increasingly focus on learner-centred teaching and reading activities. This appears to be done by emphasising building a meaningful link between what is learned in the classroom to the pupil's reality by involving the learners in what they want to read. However, textbooks seem to be the most important reading material that the teachers choose when planning reading in EFL. The choice of reading materials connected to certain workbook seems to stand in the way of teachers applying collaborative and communicative reading approaches. Also, it appears that there is a discrepancy and conflict in the teachers' awareness of consciously implementing reading strategies and reflecting upon what can be done to effectively support reading and literacy development. One teacher had plenty of access to ICT, but seemed to lack the skills needed to use ICT as a pedagogical tool in the classroom. The other teacher had limited access to ICT tools, which conflicts with the objectives of the National Curriculum Guide 2014 of implementing ICT in EFL to support literacy development. Accordingly, it seems that pupils' literacy development at the completion of compulsory school will vary a great deal depending on where they learned English.

Nonetheless, it is positive that EFL teachers in Iceland have begun to move from teacher-directed instruction towards more learner-centred teaching because they recognise that this approach creates more active learners, effectively promotes motivation for reading and supports the development of pupils' reading skills.

Many compulsory schools in Iceland are currently investing in ICT tools. This predicts a future where EFL teachers in Iceland will have the requisites to better fulfil the National Curriculum objectives regarding the implementation of ICT, and also a future where teachers can use ICT as a valuable pedagogical tool to implement the many different learning and reading opportunities it offers to support pupils' literacy development.

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