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New Zealand Year 10 Students' Out-Of-School Reading And Its Recognition, Support And Use For Engagement Within English Classrooms.

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ABSTRACT

Four issues in reading in New Zealand (NZ) secondary schools are inequitable achievement, a decline in adolescent book reading for pleasure, a lag in boys' performance and, in international comparisons, NZ 15 year-olds are less confident using digital text.

Out-of-school book reading is strongly related to academic achievement with motivation crucial. But, reading motivation declines in adolescence. Research suggests adolescents can exhibit literacy capabilities with digital text beyond their traditional text capabilities. This, plus the demand for "new literacies," has led to calls to reconceptualise school literacy. Studies demonstrated NZ 15 year-olds lacking information processing skills, but integrating digital technologies into pedagogy had barriers. NZ research gaps include exploring adolescents' reading motivations, out-of-school reading including digital text, and group differences. Whether English teachers embrace broad text definitions, which texts they value, and whether they know what students read to give them profitable visibilities, are under-researched areas.

Using a broad text definition, this thesis asked, "What do NZ Year 10 students read out-of-school and is this reading recognised, supported and used for engaging students in learning within English classrooms?" Sub-questions explored gender and socio-economic differences and students' reading motivation. Questions concerning teacher knowledge of students' out-of-school reading, the value placed on different texts and which were visible in programmes, guided the English programmes' investigation.

Data were collected in three large central-urban co-educational schools representing different socio-economic communities, from 190 Year 10 students and 24 English teachers. Students completed a survey including a motivation questionnaire. In each school, frequent readers and high digital-text-users completed a 14-day diary activity and a focus group conversation. Teachers completed a survey and three were interviewed.

Results showed 81% of students reading books "recently" but 41% reading infrequently, with socio-economic and gender differences. Curiosity and recognition motivated reading, showing a teacher role. Social-networking and researching were central digital activities but students required information literacy assistance. Extensive-reading programmes needed improvements and teachers chose time-honoured texts with digital text featuring minimally. Implications include time investments to connect with and motivate students' out-of-school page and digital reading, professional learning around motivational knowledge and digital texts, and text access within schools.

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Certification by Co-Authors

The undersigned hereby certify that:
- the above statement correctly reflects the nature and extent of the PhD candidate's contribution to this work, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors; and
- that the candidate wrote all or the majority of the text.

Name	Signature	Date
Elizabeth Probert	E Probert	2 February 2016

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***Achievement Standards*:** standards for national assessment for qualifications for the National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) that are New Zealand curriculum based. There are four grades, Achieved, Merit, Excellence and Not Achieved. If students pass a Standard, they gain its number of credits towards a qualification. Teachers internally assess some Standards. Others are externally assessed by end-of-year national examination or submission of a portfolio of work.

***Decile*:** The New Zealand Ministry of Education rating of a school, based on the socio-economic status of the school's catchment area and calculated from national census data. On the New Zealand Ministry of Education scale, "decile 1 schools are the 10% of schools that have the highest proportion of students from low socio-economic communities. Decile 10 schools are the 10% of schools that have the lowest proportion of these students" (Ministry of Education, 2014).

***Digital literacy*:** "comprises a set of basic skills which include the use and production of digital media, information processing and retrieval, participation in social networks for creation and sharing of knowledge, and a wide range of professional computing skills" (Karpati, 2011, p. 1). "Digital texts introduce new dimensions to reading – including the necessity to develop certain skills, knowledge, and even 'cognitive flexibility' to balance prior knowledge, reading comprehension strategies, and self-regulation" (Warschauer, Tate, Niiya, Yim, & Park, 2014, p. 12).

***Multimodal text*:** text that uses a "combination of two or more communication modes (for example, print, image and spoken text, as in film or computer presentations)" (Australian Curriculum n.d.).

***National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA)*:** a New Zealand national qualification over four levels, with level one school subjects usually at Year 11.

***Out-of-school reading*:** reading texts that are self-selected and read for pleasure, leisure, enjoyment, personal goals and often when pursuing interests.

***Page reading*:** includes texts that are read in paper format, which may or may not include images. Examples include novels, comics, magazines and newspapers.

***Screen reading*:** does not refer to the reading device but the type of text read. For instance, screen text could be Internet pages, text containing hyper links and/or is multimodal, and it includes digital text such as MS Word documents.

***Text*:** "A piece of spoken, written, or visual communication that constitutes a coherent, identifiable unit, such as a particular speech, poem, poster, play, film, conversation in the sign language of the deaf, or any other language event" (Ministry of Education, 1994, p. 142). These texts can be digital and online.

***Teacher agency*:** "the power to act, to affect matters, to make decisions and choices, and to take stances" (Vahasantanen, 2015, p. 1).

***Teacher identity*:** "encompasses the individual's current professional interests, views on teaching and on the students' learning, and future prospects" (Vahasantanen, 2015, p. 3).

***Unit Standards*:** standards for national assessment for qualifications for NCEA that are internally assessed by teachers and mainly competency based. For most Unit Standards only one grade is available, Achieved.

***Wide reading*:** is extensive (rather than intensive), voluntary reading of self-selected material, and helps "develop good reading habits" (Ministry of Education, 1994, p. 143).

Any other terminology will be explained within the text.

DO NOT CONFINE YOUR CHILDREN TO YOUR OWN LEARNING.

Hebrew proverb.

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INTRODUCTION

In this introduction I discuss the New Zealand context for the study and its research background. I then outline the purpose and significance of the study within the current literacy learning and teaching research agenda, and explain my identities that might impact the research. This is followed by the research questions that guide the investigation and then an overview of the thesis organisation.

1. *The New Zealand Context*

The focus of this study is Year 10 students and their subject English teachers. Reading statistics from studies on 14 and 15 year-olds, the majority of whom would be in Year 10, demonstrate that there is a reading achievement gap in New Zealand secondary schools (Kirkham, 2011; Ministry of Education, 2002; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2000, 2003, 2010; Telford, 2013). There is an over representation of Mãori and Pasifika students at the lower end of these statistics and boys are lagging behind girls. In addition, these national statistics from international studies conducted by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) in a Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) show a decrease in students' leisure reading over time in New Zealand and elsewhere. Other studies support this trend (Clark & Rumbold, 2006; Clark, Torsi, & Strong, 2005; Rampey, Dion, & Donahue, 2009; Sullivan & Brown, 2013). The most recent data show that the New Zealand decline has decelerated (Telford, 2013), but that 10% of New Zealand students never, or almost never, read fiction and that about half of the 15-year-old boys read only if they have to. In addition, while New Zealand students

perform strongly in digital reading, they are less confident using information and communication technologies (ICTs) than the OECD average (Kirkham, 2011). This is despite national data indicating that between 76.8% and 80% of households have Internet access (Statistics New Zealand, 2012, 2013).

For the curriculum area of English, *The New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2007) provides achievement objectives stating that at level 5 (the expected general level at Year 10) a student "selects and reads texts for enjoyment and personal fulfillment." In Year 11, the first year of high-stakes national assessment in New Zealand (NCEA), an English Achievement Standard that encompasses wide reading and encourages the keeping of reading logs was fully implemented in 2012. Prior to this, wide reading was recognised in qualifications at Year 11 by Unit Standard 8808. The intent of both standards being to reward ongoing out-of-school reading and encourage reading engagement, the New Zealand National Qualifications Authority clarification for 8808 stated that "personal reading means reading for pleasure and personal development," and for the more recent Achievement Standard that "students must select texts independently… read all written texts by themselves" and "demonstrate personal engagement rather than close reading of a text" (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2012).

The New Zealand Curriculum affirms that schools should explore how ICTs "can open up new and different ways of learning" and offer students "virtual experiences and tools" (p. 26). The same document's vision statements aim for students to be "effective users of communication tools," "critical and creative thinkers" and "active seekers, users, and creators of knowledge" (p. 8) and an effective pedagogy statement stresses the development of students' information and critical literacy with Internet text.

It is worrying, therefore, that New Zealand Year 10 students are showing a decline in leisure reading (albeit a slower decline in the recent PISA survey) when there are national curriculum and national qualification provisions for students' leisure reading to be an integral part of the English classroom. That our Year 10 students lack confidence in using ICTs is also worrying, given the curriculum support for developing literacies in this area.

2. *Background to the Study*

Research literature on reading and motivation theory suggest that building on students' out-of-school reading practices could have positive effects on student reading outcomes in school (e.g., Becker, McElvany, & Kortenbruck, 2010; Guthrie, 2002, 2004; Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000; Hong Xu, 2002; S. Ivey & Guthrie, 2008; Manuel & Robinson, 2002; Mucherah & Yoder, 2008; Tomlinson et al., 2003). There is also considerable evidence of a positive relationship between reading mileage and reading achievement (Anderson, Wilson, & Fielding, 1988; Becker et al., 2010; Clark & Douglas, 2011; Clark & Rumbold, 2006; Greaney, 1987; Lau, 2009; Lenski & Lania, 2008).

But, recent studies show a decline in adolescent out-of-school book reading for pleasure (Clark & Rumbold, 2006; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2010; Rampey et al., 2009; Sullivan & Brown, 2013). There is, however, international evidence that reading has not been abandoned, but that digital technologies play an important part in student out-of-school reading (Labbo, 2006; Love & Hamston, 2003), and that while exploring them, students demonstrate a broad spectrum of literacy skills (Alvermann, 2007, 2011; Lankshear & Knobel, 2003; Thomas, 2007).

There are indications that there is a mismatch between school literacy practices and these changing out-of-school literacy experiences of students (Alvermann, 2009; Manuel & Robinson, 2002; Unsworth, 2006). This has led to demands for reframing literacy in school to recognise not just the broad range of text manifested in students' out-of-school practices and the literacy capabilities that students can develop as they read these texts, but also to reflect the types of text being read in a twenty-first century world (Millard, 2003; Moje, Overby, Tysvaer, & Morris, 2008). These texts, many born of information and communication affordances of the Internet (such as web pages, and the networking opportunities of Web 2.0), require new literacies and new forms of critical literacy (Coiro, 2003; Lankshear & Knobel, 2003; Leu et al., 2007). Therefore, school has an important role in equipping adolescents to be responsible, critical and adept performers in this environment. It is asserted "literacy is a set of skills that reflect the needs of the time. As those needs shift, then our definition of literacy shifts" (Beers, 2007, p. 7) and "social contexts profoundly shape the changing nature of literacy" (Leu, Kinzer, Coiro, & Cammack, 2004, p. 1574). Current research, however, suggests schools are not yet meeting the challenge of changing times and hence the arguments asserting a mismatch between school literacy experiences and out-of-school activities and demands.

For New Zealand subject English teachers, the release of the first curriculum document (Ministry of Education, 1994) broadly defined *text* as " a piece of spoken, written, or visual communication that constitutes a coherent, identifiable unit, such as a particular speech, poem, poster, play, film, conversation in the sign language of the deaf, or *any other language event*" [italics mine] (p. 142). Although *literacy* was not defined, this flexible definition of text afforded possibilities of changing notions of literacy. These were the early days of the World Wide Web and the year of the

commercial release of the Web browser Netscape Navigator and a year before Microsoft's release of Internet Explorer (Gube, 2009), yet the definition of text was able to encompass online text forms. The document also stated that students should "retrieve, interpret, use, produce, and present information in a variety of contexts as a basis for solving problems and making decisions. Opportunities to develop these skills, using a range of information-retrieval and information-processing technologies, are included in this statement" (Ministry of Education, 1994, p. 7). This statement shows similarities to later definitions of online comprehension and information literacy (Mokhtari, Kymes, & Edwards, 2008, p. 354). This early New Zealand curriculum statement might, therefore, mean that the mismatch between students' out-of-school text choices and those they experience in English classrooms is not as pronounced as that seen elsewhere. Nonetheless, there is evidence that New Zealand students' information literacy skills are weak (Education Review Office, 2005; Hipkins, 2005a), that many leave school without sufficient information literacy skills to manage at a tertiary level (Van Zijl, Bennett, Darling, Shields, & Bennett, 2006), and international and New Zealand data indicate that many teachers are not explicitly teaching information literacy skills (Combes, 2009; Kennedy & Judd, 2011; Probert, 2009; Walraven, Brand-Gruwel, & Boshuizen, 2008).

In the last two decades, one area of the mismatch receiving research attention centres on popular culture texts (such as rap, Manga and popular fiction) and Internet text (such as web pages and the social networking texts of Web 2.0). Initial research in this area asserted that teachers hesitated to bring these into the classroom because they challenged an aging teaching population that did not grow up with new technologies and current popular cultures. It was asserted that teachers lacked skill in the literacy practices with which their students were familiar and

dexterous. Giroux (1994) coined the popular terms "digital immigrants" to describe teachers and "digital natives" their students and, to extend the metaphor, by implication that teachers would need to experience cultural alienation until they became familiar and comfortable with new digital types of text. Giroux suggested that teachers needed to be "border crossers" so that student experiences could be put inside the curriculum. New Zealand research showed our teachers struggling with the ICT challenge (Fink-Jensen, Johnson, & Lau, 2003) and arguments abounded that "teachers have an obligation to prepare children to become literate in ways in which teachers themselves may not be fully literate" (R. D. Robinson, McKenna, & Wedman, 2004, p. 274). It was posited that:

> Teachers who grew up in a culture . . . where the privilege of print literacies was dominant, may be challenged to rethink who their students are and what type of literacy education might prepare them to participate fully and critically in realizing their economic, social and political future. (Albright & Walsh, 2003, p. 15)

These views led to calls for teachers to "release ownership of text selection and learning to the students, allowing them to bring their world into the classroom" (Alford & Snell, 2003, p. 29).

However, more recent research has shown a number of barriers and constraints hindering teachers using these text forms in classrooms and that teacher age is not the most significant barrier it was once thought (Bate, 2010; Belland, 2009; British Educational Communications and Technology Agency (Becta), 2004; Hennessy, Ruthven, & Brindley, 2005; Hew & Brush, 2007; Hurd, 2009). The macro and micro systems in which teachers operate (such as the availability and sustaining of professional learning opportunities, the impact of national assessments and the nature of in-school technical support), their conceptualisation of their subject and their career stages are but some of the elements that might contribute to a more complex picture. In New Zealand,

despite considerable funding for the implementation of ICTs in schools, it has been found that even schools with a sound infrastructure and commitment to professional learning do not necessarily exhibit a high level of ICT integration (Ward & Parr, 2010), showing the involuted and abstruse nature of the challenge of bringing digital text into the classroom.

3. *The Purpose and Significance of this Study*

New Zealand PISA data, and evidence from further afield, demonstrate a decline in adolescent out-of-school page reading, gender differences in this decline, and that Mãori and Pasifika students are over represented at the lower end of these statistics. Recent international studies, widening their definitions of reading, show that adolescents are increasingly reading online text. However, this research is mainly from the United States, with a few studies from the United Kingdom and Australia. New Zealand research encompassing this wider definition of reading to explore what, and how often, Year 10 students read out-of-school has not been conducted. Nor has there been an exploration of gender, ethnicity and socio-economic differences (based on school decile) using this wider definition, despite calls to investigate the reading habits of "low-income minority urban youth" (Hughes-Hassell & Rodge, 2007, p. 23). This research study seeks to bridge this gap. Furthermore, overseas studies, on the whole, either employ large-scale quantitative methods or small-scale qualitative procedures. This study employs both quantitative and qualitative methods to capture not only the breadth and frequency of Year 10 reading, but also student voice about their text choices.

There is evidence that New Zealand 15-year-olds are not as confident as those elsewhere with ICTs (Kirkham, 2011) and that their information literacy skills often do not include critical evaluation of online information, nor the ability to synthesise information from a variety of sources (Hipkins, 2005a). This study seeks not only to

investigate whether our Year 10 students are as immersed in online activities as research suggests their international counterparts are, but also to discover student and teacher views on student digital information literacy skills, student voice on the information strategies they use, and how students see teachers supporting their development. In addition, if students do prove to be reading online text, then, as Freebody and Hornibrook (2005) state, those "who have been failed by conventional schooling, and thus who have limited engagement ... could be offered by new technologies new ways back into school as a context for learning experiences" (p. 373).

Motivation literature makes a robust case for building on students' out-of-school experiences in school, so the study also investigates what motivates these students to read and whether students perceive teachers as having a role in their reading engagement. While overseas studies investigate this, there is a gap in the New Zealand literature. My research also adds to the limited research examining group differences along gender lines (McGeown, Duncan, Griffiths, & Stothard, 2015).

Despite the number of studies over many years investigating adolescents' choices in leisure reading material (Clark & Rumbold, 2006; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2010; Rampey et al., 2009; Sullivan & Brown, 2013; Worthy, Moorman, & Turner, 1999), the decline in their leisure reading continues. How subject English teachers embrace these choices, both philosophically and in practice, is under-researched, particularly in New Zealand. The study seeks to capture whether teachers know what their students read beyond the school gates, which types of text teachers perceive as valuable for classroom literacy development, and whether such texts are visible in teachers' choices for classroom activities. No New Zealand study seems to have explored this. Again, both quantitative and qualitative methods are used to collect teacher data and to hear their voices.

Year 10 is the focus of the study for several reasons. Firstly, Year 10 student responses will not be skewed by the time and content demands of internal and external assessments for national qualifications, which usually start in Year 11. I assume that Year 10 students' out-of-school reading practices will not be overly influenced by the demands of their curriculum subjects because they are not yet in the high-stakes assessment environment. Secondly, the PISA data focused on 15-year-olds and it is in the latter part of Year 10 that many students turn 15.

The mix of both student and English teacher perspectives on Year 10 out-of-school reading and its visibility in English programmes, encompassing a broad definition of reading, makes this study unique and traverses a gap in the current research agenda. The major contribution of this study rests on its pedagogical implications for subject English classrooms in the secondary school.

4. *Researcher Identity*

The relevant identities I bring to this research are both personal and professional. As a struggling early reader from a non-reading household, I attended remedial sessions and took many years to develop book-choosing strategies. Eventually reading gave me pleasure. I completed degrees in English and became a secondary English teacher. My early experiences impact my beliefs that access to texts, other readers, and knowing how to choose books, are important for nurturing reading for pleasure.

In adolescence my son seldom read books for pleasure, despite having role models, encouragement and book immersion from a young age. However, he seemed to enjoy a variety of digital texts. At NCEA level 1 he passed the standard "Read unfamiliar texts" with *Excellence*. As a past national assistant-chief-examiner at this level, and NCEA English standards writing group member, this intrigued me. High

examination achievement in unseen text analysis was, anecdotally, the preserve of avid readers. My interest thus began in the transference of out-of-school literacies to those valued in school.

In 1986 I established a wide-reading room in my school. Every Year 9 and 10 English class had a weekly hour with high-interest adolescent books. Books were introduced, discussed and recommended by teachers and students, and choosing strategies were taught. Each student's choices were tracked and individual discussions with teachers set future recommendations and goals. After two years, while any comprehension gains could not be solely attributed to this, tracking showed students finishing more books, confident in discussing and recommending books, and engaging with silent reading for at least 30 minutes each session. Later, I became a member of the NCEA standards writing group that argued successfully for wide reading as part of a high-stakes national assessment regime.

I became a pre-service teacher educator in secondary English in 1988. In English courses students read adolescent books as a non-assessed course requirement. Initially I read their logs, but recently an interactive digital platform has enabled their colleagues to read, comment and make further recommendations. This interaction has increased student motivation to read and comment beyond requirements (Ladbrook, 2014).

These personal and professional experiences have contributed to my interest in this study and to my researcher identity.

5. *Research Questions*

This research study poses the following questions:

*Main Research Question***:** What do New Zealand Year 10 students read out-of-school and is this reading recognised, supported and used for engaging students in learning within English classrooms?

Research Sub-questions:

1. Are there any differences in students' out-of-school reading choices and reading frequency based on gender, ethnicity and socio-economic (as indicated by school decile) factors?

2. In what ways do students have their out-of-school reading recognised in subject English and is there a mismatch between students' in-school and out-of-school text experiences?

3. What do students say motivates them to read for pleasure and is there a teacher role in this?

4. What do English teachers of Year 10 think their students read out-of-school and how do they know?

5. Are Year 10 English teachers embracing a broad definition of *text* philosophically and in practice, and are there any constraints or barriers to this?

6. What types of text do Year 10 teachers perceive as valuable for classroom literacy development and are such texts visible in teachers' choices for classroom teaching and learning contexts?

7. What do teachers say about student critical information literacy strategies and what strategies do students say they use?

6. *Thesis Organisation*

This introduction has outlined the context, background and purpose of this research. In Chapter One I provide an overview of the literature that underpins the rationale and basis of the study. In particular, I examine motivation and the link between out-of-school interests and student in-school engagement; the relationship of out-of-school reading to literacy gains; and the calls to reconceptualise "literacy" based on a mismatch between adolescents' home literacy choices and the literacy choices valued in school. This includes an exploration of emerging research into the impact of adolescent digital reading when it is recognised in classrooms. The last review section examines New Zealand reports on the perceived barriers to bringing information and communication technologies (ICTs) into secondary classrooms. In Chapter Two I outline the overall research methodology and the theoretical basis of the approach. Chapters Three, Four, Five and Six present the key findings of the different aspects of the research. Chapters Three and Four provide findings related to student activities and perspectives and Chapters Five and Six concentrate on teachers' viewpoints and practices. These four chapters might be viewed as separate studies. I begin each by outlining who the participants are, how they were chosen and the ethical processes involved. I then explain and give a rationale for the data collection and analysis procedures, with the reliability and validity of these. The findings sections of each of these chapters include a discussion illuminated against other research, expanding on Chapter One's literature review and contributing to answering my research questions. Chapter Seven brings key student and teacher findings together into an integrated discussion and responds explicitly to the study's research questions. I present the overall implications and significance of the study alongside its limitations and recommendations for further explorations.

CHAPTER ONE
LITERATURE REVIEW: THE FULCRA

Once you have come up with a premise, you have to work out how it all happened.
It's a bit like coming up with a spectacular roof design first. Before you can get it up
there, you need to build a solid foundation and supporting structure.
(Linwood Barclay, crime novelist, 2008).

I position the study in current theory and research in this chapter. Creswell (1998) asserts that a theoretical lens, (such as feminist, postmodern or critical theory), should inform a study and its methodology, and constitutes "a strong orienting framework" (p. 86). Other scholars refer to theoretical frameworks rather than lenses. Ravitch and Riggan (2012) define a theoretical framework as the "formal theories that have been used in empirical work" (p. 12), whilst Merriam (2009) has a more expansive view that such a framework can include "the concepts, terms, definitions, models, and theories of a particular literature base and disciplinary orientation" (p. 67). Broader still is the notion of a "conceptual framework," variously described as "rudimentary or elaborate, theory-driven or commonsensical, descriptive or causal" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 18), and as a "system of concepts, assumptions, expectations, beliefs, and the theories that supports and informs your research" (J A Maxwell, 2013, p. 39). More simply, Schram (2006) depicts the conceptual framework as declaring "here's how I am positioning my problem within an established area of ideas, and here's why it matters" (p. 62).

It has been suggested that " because reading is an effortful activity that often involves choice, motivation is crucial to reading engagement" (Wigfield, Guthrie, Tonks, & Perencevich, 2004, p. 299) and "motivation for reading is an important contributor to students' reading achievement and school success" (Guthrie et al., 2006, p. 232). Additionally, there is evidence that aspects of motivation predict

reading amount (Guthrie, Wigfield, Metsala, & Cox, 1999; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997), and that intrinsic motivation predicts the frequency of reading for pleasure (Wang & Guthrie, 2004) and reading comprehension (Schaffner & Schiefele, 2013; Taboada, Tonks, Wigfield, & Guthrie, 2009). By acknowledging, supporting and bringing students' out-of-school reading into the English classroom there are, therefore, possibilities for tapping into students' motivation for out-of-school reading to increase reading engagement and achievement in school. However, the theoretical literature contains many conceptualisations of motivation, making it far beyond this review's scope to discuss each. Consequently, the first section of this review centres on the link between reading motivation and achievement, and discusses a widely used questionnaire for determining what motivates students to read.

In the second section of the review I examine research showing the relationship between out-of-school reading and literacy gains in school and beyond. This section demonstrates why the current decline in leisure reading, as posited by many investigations, is causing concern.

I move next to a review of the calls to reconceptualise "literacy" and evidence showing adolescents displaying a broad spectrum of literacy skills when embracing digital and popular culture texts in their out-of-school reading. Such evidence has led to assertions of a mismatch between the texts adolescents encounter out-of-school and those valued in school – and, arguably, those valued in many studies behind claims that adolescent leisure reading is in decline. The review finishes with a consideration of New Zealand reports outlining the barriers to bringing digital texts inside the school gates - barriers that could contribute to the above mismatch.

In Chapter Two I outline the methodologically iterative nature of my study. This iterative process means that further studies will contribute to the background and

understanding of what my accruing data reveal. As findings are exposed, I will scrutinise these alongside the results of other studies. Consequently, the research design necessitates further literature being explored in each of Chapters Three, Four, Five and Six. This literature review chapter should be viewed as the fulcrum for things to come.

1.1 *Reading Motivation*

I identified reading motivation literature using several strategies. Firstly, I explored online databases using key words *reading, motivation, attitudes*, *self-efficacy, engagement, intrinsic* and *extrinsic* in different combinations. I limited this initial search to publications after 1995. I also searched for article titles that contained *meta-analysis* and *review* in combination with *reading motivation*. I then compared the reference sections of these works for recurring studies and names of scholars. In addition, I did a library search for handbooks on reading and motivation in school contexts. Because my study concentrates on Year 10 students in subject English classrooms, I ignored work that focussed solely on samples of adults and students with learning disabilities.

This search revealed a large number of publications referring to the work of John T. Guthrie and Alan Wigfield, along with numerous collaborators, and indicated that their "motivation to read questionnaire" (MRQ) was utilised by many other international researchers, in various forms.

1.1.1 *Reading Motivation and School Achievement*

There is widespread agreement that reading comprehension skills are important for school-defined success (e.g., P. Alexander & Jetton, 2000; Kintsch, 1998) and many argue that school success is dependent on additional influences such as motivational

variables (Pintrich, 2003; Snow, Porche, Tabors, & Harris, 2007). Further, others

argue that motivational variables are important for comprehension (Mucherah &

Yoder, 2008; Schaffner & Schiefele, 2013) and that both motivation variables and

cognitive variables can predict reading comprehension and other learning outcomes

(Taboada, Tonks, Wigfield, & Guthrie, 2013). An earlier study posits that if students

are motivated to read, then they "have a desire to comprehend text. This desire to

understand energizes the use of reading strategies" (Taboada et al., 2009, p. 98)

which, in turn, aids growth in reading comprehension.

A large number of studies on reading comprehension look at either motivation

variables (e.g., Chapman & Tunmer, 1995; Guthrie, Wigfield, Metsala, & Cox, 2004)

or cognitive variables (Klauda & Guthrie, 2008; Pressley & Harris, 2006). Some

work, beginning in the 1990s, posits that motivation and cognitive variables interact

to affect achievement. Pintrich (2003) argues that this work on motivation and

cognition research began because "once cognition researchers started working in

classrooms, they quickly became aware of the importance of motivational factors"

and saw that academic cognition "is socially mediated and supported." He claims, "it

is not really clear how various motivational factors influence the activation and

acquisition of knowledge" and that "most of the research on the role of motivation has

been focused on how motivation influences subsequent cognition, and there has been

very little research on how cognition influences motivation" (Pintrich, 2003, p. 679).

Others have also suggested cognitive processes might influence motivation. For

instance, when combining reading strategy instruction within a context of interesting

topics and motivation-supporting strategies with third-graders, (such as providing

choice of activity, interesting texts, and collaborative reading), researchers found that

these helped generate conceptual learning *and* motivation for reading (Guthrie,

Wigfield, Metsala, et al., 2004). However, the exact relationship was not investigated and the students' motivation was ascertained from self-report and teacher ratings. In a later study of elementary school readers, the same group of researchers (Taboada et al., 2013) looked at both motivation and cognitive variables independently of each other. They concluded, "motivation *may* be an affective construct that *directly* influences comprehension" [my italics] but were more certain that "motivation energises or activates cognitive processes" (p. 603). The studied cognitive variables were students' activating background knowledge and question generating about texts during reading. These variables are only two of many that could influence comprehension. For instance, earlier Guthrie and Wigfield (1999) discussed variables of activating prior knowledge at the start of reading, constructing causal inferences, forming mental pictures of content, and integrating prior knowledge during reading, as cognitive processes that influenced comprehension. While looking at two variables might seem restrictive for measuring cognition, the results of Taboada et al. (2013) support the body of research arguing for motivation as a factor in reading comprehension and other achievement outcomes.

Within the literature there are multiple conceptualisations of motivation, but it is apparent that motivation matters when it comes to making literacy gains in classrooms, particularly in the area of reading comprehension. Despite these multiple conceptualisations, the dimensions of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are pervasive, with definitions typically holding that intrinsic motivation (IM) is self-determined, is for interest, enjoyment and personal fulfilment, and that extrinsic motivation (EM) is more instrumental and based on external benefits such as inducements or rewards (e.g., Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991; Guthrie et al., 1996; Hidi, 2000).

Studies have shown that both IM and EM can positively impact students' achievement and that an individual can exhibit a mix of these dimensions (Lepper, Corpus, & Iyengar, 2005; Ratelle, Guay, Vallerand, Larose, & Senecal, 2007). Using the self-determination theory constructs of autonomous regulation (intrinsic), controlled regulation (extrinsic) and amotivation (a lack of controlled and autonomous regulation), three Canadian studies involving nearly 4,500 students with a mean age of 14.9 years (Ratelle et al., 2007), showed that students exhibited both autonomous and controlled profiles, and that those with high levels of each experienced the most positive academic outcomes. Students with high levels of the autonomous motivational profile had similar levels of achievement as those with a high combined profile, but the high autonomous profile predicted increased perseverance within academic programmes – a finding supporting Ryan and Deci's (2000b) claim that students who are intrinsically motivated show greater perseverance and sustained effort in school. From these studies, a mix of IM and EM can positively impact adolescent learning, and Unrau and Quirk (2014) have suggested how activities involving EM can potentially be used to develop IM. However, the situation seems more complex with many suggesting performance feedback and rewards can sometimes undermine adolescent students' interest (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Hidi, 2000) and IM (Oldfather & Wigfield, 1996), while praise and rewards can sometimes increase IM (Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000). Studies have evidenced that EM can be variously related to achievement: inversely (Becker et al., 2010; Wang & Guthrie, 2004), positively (McGeown, Norgate, & Warhurst, 2012), or unrelated (Logan, Medford, & Hughes, 2011).

Despite this apparent complexity of motivational dynamics, research demonstrates the impact of IM on reading achievement. For instance, intrinsically

motivated students reported more frequent and higher amounts of reading (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997) and reading amount positively related to reading achievement (Guthrie et al., 1999; Guthrie, Wigfield, Metsala, et al., 2004). Measured by standardised tests, intrinsically motivated elementary and middle school readers had higher reading achievement than those not intrinsically motivated (Klauda & Guthrie, 2015; Unrau & Schlackman, 2006). Using a Motivation for Reading Questionnaire specific concepts within IM and reading comprehension were shown to be correlated (Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Wang & Guthrie, 2004; Wigfield et al., 2004) and other studies have supported this (Guthrie et al., 2007; Taboada et al., 2009).

Students who see reading as having personal value, practical importance, as a way to achieve personal goals, who see themselves as competent in reading and perceive reading tasks they are asked to do as worthwhile, seem to achieve well in school reading activities. Studies have shown that students who see reading as valuable and have personal reasons for reading will put more effort into it and outperform those who do not (Ames & Archer, 1988; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Students' personal goals for reading are important, and while these might be connected to such things as personal satisfaction and interests, they can also be goals connected to a need for acceptance by peers and teachers; that is, a mix of IM and EM. However, goals do not always increase motivation for reading. For instance, discussing a theoretical framework for multiple goals in motivation, Pintrich (2000) argues that work avoidance can be a goal. As Barron and Harackiewicz (2001) emphasise, motivation theories need to take many motivation goals into consideration.

There is evidence that students who see themselves as capable and competent in reading are more likely to outperform those who do not, on reading achievement tests and activities. Having a positive reading self-concept, a construct related to self-

efficacy, positively impacts reading motivation and sets up a student's expectation of, and subsequent, reading success (Chapman & Tunmer, 1995; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Oldfather & Wigfield, 1996). However, "students cannot accomplish tasks beyond their capabilities simply by believing they can" (Pajares, 1996, p. 556). A positive reading self-concept alone is not enough to affect achievement.

Reading self-concept plus reading attitude have received attention in motivation and achievement research. In their longitudinal study of 5,076 students in Years 4 and 6, Sainsbury and Schagen (2004) define a positive reading attitude as including "the idea of intrinsic motivation in the form of positive self-concept as a reader, a desire and tendency to read and reported enjoyment of or interest in reading" (p. 374). Others have argued that it is motivation that prompts an attitude to reading. For instance, Guthrie and Knowles (2001) define attitudes as "affective responses that accompany a behaviour of reading initiated by a motivated state" (p. 161). While it makes sense that those who achieve well in reading would generally have a positive reading attitude, it is less certain that a positive attitude affects reading achievement. Measuring the achievement of 9-year-olds in a national assessment survey in the United States, Walberg and Tsai (1985) found a positive relationship between achievement in reading and attitude to reading, a similar finding to that of Roettger, Szymczuk, and Millard (1979) researching 8 - 12 year-olds. A more recent Irish study of 299 6 - 8 year-olds, who all read at a level below the population mean, concluded that there was tendency for higher achievement to be related to positive attitudes, particularly in the early years and particularly for girls (Fives et al., 2014). However, these studies do not reveal the exact nature of the relationship between reading attitudes and reading achievement.

There appears to be a relationship between reading attitude and topic interest. Early last century psychologist Dewey (1922), then Thorndike (1935) and later Bernstein (1955), all argued that interest correlated positively to learning. These views led to "individual interest" research. Summarising 12 high profile research studies conducted on the effect of individual interests on performance, Hidi (1990) concluded that individual interests have a "profound" (p. 554) effect on performance. She acknowledged, however, "identifying and using individual interests to promote subject matter learning could prove to be a time and effort consuming task for teachers" (p. 554). Schiefele's report (1991) on four empirical studies and one longitudinal large-scale project provided evidence that interest in topic was important for comprehension (particularly deep level understanding), and that topic interest was "significantly correlated with involvement, enjoyment, concentration and activation" (p. 313), a view supported by P. Alexander and Jetton (1996). More significantly, the United States' 'subcommittee of experts on language and literacy development' of the National Academy of Education's Committee on Teacher Education stated that students' interests in topics:

> … have a web of benefits: they allow a student to bring more background knowledge to comprehension tasks; they lead to the use of sophisticated protracted strategies for comprehension; they increase the time on task needed for strategic processing; and they are likely venues for success with understanding the text at hand as well as for learning strategies that can lead to more reading achievement in the future. (Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005, p. 55)

Despite research on motivation flourishing in the last 30 years, the exact relationship of motivation to achievement is, nonetheless, still contestable. The complexity of motivational dynamics requires further research in the field of literacy, particularly investigating how motivation relates to cognition. However, there is persuasive evidence that students' self-efficacy, views of their competence and

reading ability, their interests and goals for reading, and their reading attitudes, all affect reading motivation and impact achievement in reading, particularly in the area of comprehension. The New Zealand Ministry of Education's position is that "a student's level of interest and engagement in learning can impact on their performance" (Ministry of Education, 2002). For the case of reading, Guthrie (2002) posited that "more pervasive than lack of competence as a source of non-reading is lack of motivation" (p. 137). Yet, it has been recently suggested reading motivation is "an often neglected but integral dimension of the reading process" (Alvermann, Unrau, & Ruddell, 2013, p. 134).

There are findings that motivation for reading declines as students reach adolescence and high school (see Chapter Three section 3.6.1). Some argue this can be attributed to the increased emphasis on assessment and marks in the secondary school environment, which decreases students' feelings of self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and their IM (Lepper et al., 2005). Others posit that high school is a less collaborative student reading environment than earlier schooling, that students have less ownership and choice in reading, and that subject specialist teachers spend less time on reading (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Oldfather & Wigfield, 1996). This decline in motivation to read is also apparent in the out-of-school reading of adolescents in New Zealand. While not a new phenomenon, the decline has accelerated in recent years according to international surveys. It could be argued, however, that adolescents' reading is no longer confined to the types of texts used in these surveys.

The literature on student motivation and its decline in secondary school, taken alongside the decline in adolescent reading, informed my decision to investigate the reading Year 10 students are motivated to read out-of-school. I wondered whether this reading was recognised, supported and used for engaging students in learning within

English classrooms (and thus increasing in-school achievement). Furthermore, investigating students' motivations for reading might discover if teachers had a role in supporting and fostering reading motivation.

1.1.2 *The Motivation for Reading Questionnaire*

Several prominent researchers have worked with motivational constructs to develop motivational measurement tools. These are the motivation to read profile (MRP) (L. B Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, & Mazzoni, 1996), the reader self-perception scale (Henk & Melnick, 1995) and the motivation to read questionnaire (MRQ) (Wigfield, 1997; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Of these, the MRP and MRQ tools have been widely used since their development, mostly in elementary and middle school contexts. A 20-item survey accompanied by individual interviews, the MRP tool explores grades three and five (ages eight and ten) students' reading self-concept and the value they place on reading. So, it is based on motivational concepts of self-concept and task-value. On the other hand, the MRQ tool, which arose from research in The National Reading Research Centre in the United States (and which has since undergone revisions), takes a less narrow view by "integrating cognitive, motivational, and social aspects of reading with achievement motivation theory, which includes readers' competence and their beliefs about their own efficacy as readers, as well as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and purposes for achievement" (Unrau & Schlackman, 2006, p. 83). This questionnaire does not see IM and EM as dichotomous concepts, but enables a complex view of a student's motivation to emerge based on both IM and EM constructs (see Chapter Two section 2.3.1.1 and Figure 1). By portraying reading motivation as multi-faceted, it aligns with Hidi's (2000) call to "shift the agenda toward finding the synthesis of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation that will engage students, especially adolescents, in learning the broad-ranging skills and competencies

they need for creative and productive futures" (p. 333) and provides opportunity for a blend of intrinsic and extrinsic variables to emerge as motivational factors for reading.

Initially the MRQ (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1995) conceptualised IM and EM via 11 constructs measured by 82 question items answered on a 4-point scale *very different to me* to *a lot like me*. Work with different samples of elementary grade students (Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997) confirmed that reading motivation was multi-faceted and factor analysis led to a revision of the eleven constructs (four related to IM: curiosity and interest, preference for challenge, involvement, and self-efficacy; seven related to EM: competition, recognition, grades, social interaction, compliance, importance, and work avoidance) measured by 54 question items, on the basis that these were the ones that significantly correlated with achievement.

The main criticisms levelled at the revised MRQ (Watkins & Coffey, 2004) were based on the restrictive student sample (fourth-graders who were fluent readers from one geographical region) and that the 11 constructs did not fit the data analysis as not all items were used in the factor analysis. In two studies of third to fifth-grade students (*N*=328), using geographically diverse samples, Watkins and Coffey (2004) concluded that only eight of the 11 constructs could be distinctly identified across both studies.

Agreeing that assessing the dimensions of students' motivation needed to continue (Wigfield et al., 2004), in ensuing years the development team (with changing personnel) employed the revised MRQ in a number of ways, choosing a variety of the constructs and over more diverse samples. For instance, Guthrie et al. (2007) used a shortened version alongside semi-structured interviews and comprehension tests to investigate 31 fourth-grade students participating in a reading

intervention comprised of reading strategy instruction, science instruction and a set of motivational strategies designed to increase reading IM. When exploring the extent to which IM and EM correlated with text comprehension directly or indirectly through amount of reading for 187 Taiwanese Chinese and 197 United States students (90% Caucasian) with a mean age of 9.8 years, Wang and Guthrie (2004) used eight constructs of the MRQ, removing self-efficacy on the basis that it related to internal motivation rather than IM, and work avoidance and importance as these were less well correlated than other constructs. These eight constructs were also those distinctly identified by Watkins and Coffey (2004). For both groups of students, results showed that IM was highly correlated with EM, and IM shared a positive relationship with text comprehension while EM associated negatively.

Other studies have only employed some of the IM constructs. The challenge and curiosity constructs were used when investigating self-efficacy and IM of 150 third-grade students (Wigfield et al., 2004) and a further study added the involvement construct (Guthrie, Wigfield, Barbosa, et al., 2004). Abbreviated versions, with items for constructs reduced, have also been used (Guthrie, Wigfield, Metsala, et al., 2004). However, most of these early studies were limited to third- and fourth-grade students. Later studies have included older samples and samples representing struggling and advanced readers (Klauda & Guthrie, 2015).

Researchers have used aspects of the MRQ with different age groups, different ability groups, with boys only, with a variety of ethnicities, and with non-native speakers of English. Unrau and Schlackman (2006), studying 2000 students below the United States' national averages in reading achievement in grades six, seven and eight (11 – 13 year-olds) and who were 75% Asian, 20% Hispanic and 5% other ethnicities, used the MRQ of Wang and Guthrie (2004). Analysing only the

Hispanic and Asian data, IM positively predicted reading comprehension for both groups. EM had a significant negative effect on the reading achievement for the Asian students, while there was no significant relationship between either IM or EM and reading achievement for Hispanic students. The researchers posited that the differences in motivation between ethnic samples could be affected by different orientations various cultures have towards school. Logan et al. (2011) also used Wang and Guthrie's MRQ to explore the motivations of 111 low-ability readers in Years 4 – 6 in England, rephrasing some items to suit the English context. They found that IM was important for low-ability readers and concluded that interventions aimed at increasing IM were particularly important for poor readers. Also working with struggling readers and using the revised MRQ to investigate the relationship between EM for reading and oral reading proficiency in 227 middle school United States' students, Paige (2011) found a relationship between EM for reading and oral reading proficiency. He posited that EM aroused individual interest and that this could then trigger IM. Using the revised MRQ, Mucherah and Yoder (2008) found that those in their sample of 388 middle school United States' students who performed well in reading comprehension, were more intrinsically motivated, enjoyed a variety of reading materials and challenging reads, while those mainly motivated for social reasons (an EM construct) did less well.

Several studies have used aspects of the MRQ with adolescents. Working with 330 adolescent boys and leaving the revised MRQ constructs intact, two studies (Bozack, 2011; Bozack & Salvaggio, 2013) concluded that the MRQ was reliable and valid for measuring a variety of motivational constructs in high school boys. Studies have been conducted with adolescent non-native English speakers. Anmarkrud and Braten (2009) had a sample of 104 Norwegian 14 -15 year-olds and a survey of 27

questions, 12 from the revised MRQ and answered on a 10-point scale *never true of me* to *always true of me.* Lau (2009) used four 6-item scales based on the revised MRQ with 1,146 Chinese 11 - 18 year-olds.

Aspects of the MRQ have also been utilised in work with non-native English speakers at middle school level. Law (2009) selected 12 items from the MRQ constructs for 120 Hong Kong Chinese students with a mean age of 12.2 years, and Andreassen and Braten (2010) selected 36 MRQ items from a variety of constructs and used a 5-point scale *does not fit at all* to *fits very well* for Norwegian participants (180 students with a mean age of 10.5).

What this sample of the research using the MRQ reveals, is that it is a widely accepted tool, has been used with both native and non-native speakers of English, has applicability to a variety of ages and reading abilities, that constructs are often deleted and items within constructs changed, and that sometimes researchers change the number of points on the agreement scale. The MRQ used by Wang and Guthrie (2004) appeared mainly to be used in its totality, while the revised MRQ was often changed. The 2004 tool, because it has been previously used with adolescents and with a mix of ethnicities, appeared to be one that could give some insight into my sub-research questions on what motivates Year 10 students to read out-of-school, and whether teachers have a role in this.

1.2 *The Relationship between Out-of-School Reading and Literacy Gains in School*
Reading frequency and amount (sometimes called reading mileage), contributed to by out-of-school reading, are strong predictors of academic achievement and reading comprehension. Reading comprehension and reading amount have been linked particularly to the development of a positive attitude to reading (which in turn

increases reading amount), an increase in vocabulary, spelling proficiency, reading speed, writing proficiency, and positive life outcomes such as increased social mobility and community engagement, and a decrease in loneliness in old age.

Longitudinal studies have consistently shown the relationship between out-of-school reading and reading achievement. A two year study of 157 students starting in grades four, five and six (approximately 9 – 12-year-olds and in the second year, 10 – 13-years-olds), found that reading amount predicted vocabulary knowledge, general knowledge, verbal fluency, spelling ability and reading comprehension (Echols, West, Stanovich, & Zehr, 1996). Similar findings were evident in a French study of 90 students followed from kindergarten age through to grade four (Sénéchal, 2006). A longitudinal study of 1508 German students as they progressed from grade five to grade eight (and who were 14-year-olds at the end of the study), also found that if students read for interest, it was a strong predictor of reading performance (Retelsdorf, Koller, & Moller, 2011).

Other shorter-term studies support these findings. The often-referred-to study of Anderson et al. (1988), of 155 fifth-grade students completing daily activity forms over 26 weeks (with a 48% final completion rate), showed that out-of-school reading accounted for 16% of the variance in reading comprehension in fifth-graders (10-year-olds). The researchers concluded, "the amount of time a child spends reading books is related to the child's reading level in fifth grade and growth in reading proficiency from the second to the fifth grade" (p. 302). Reading amount and breadth have also predicted elementary school students' reading achievement, as measured by standardized vocabulary tests (Stanovich & Cunningham, 1992). Similarly, Whitehurst and Lonigan (2002) claimed that differences in the reading amount of

early or emergent readers might be the only reason for differing skill levels among avid, frequent and infrequent readers.

Research on "the summer slide" (sometimes called "the summer learning effect" or "the summer reading setback") supports the link between reading amount and reading achievement. The "slide" is the drop in reading scores over summer holidays caused by the lack of summer reading, particularly affecting students in low socio-economic groups (Borman, 2005) and this achievement gap widens and is cumulative (K. Alexander, Entwhistle, & Olson, 2007). One recent large scale longitudinal study (Allington et al., 2010), involving 1,330 first and second-grade students from high poverty schools in Florida, provided 852 with self-selected trade books over three consecutive summers, with 478 receiving no books. A statistically significant effect for those receiving books, measured by state reading tests, indicated that easy access to self-selected books for summer reading over sequential years, limited summer setback. The student self-selections and duration of the study differentiated this from previous studies. Others have also suggested that easy book access contributes to the summer slide differences between advantaged and disadvantaged students (Constantino, 2005; Neuman & Celano, 2001). A recent New Zealand study on the summer slide, involving 648 mainly Māori and Pasifika Year 4 - 6 students in five decile one schools, with 92 students completing the final assessment, showed a lesser decline in reading scores of students who self-selected their books than those whose teachers made the selections (McNaughton, Jesson, Kolose, & Kercher, 2012). Studies on the summer slide add further evidence that out-of-school reading has a strong connection to in-school literacy gains and that students self-selecting books has an additional positive effect.

While students read a wide range of text forms out-of-school, most of the research above refers to book reading. This is for several reasons. Book reading has been shown, for instance, to be better predictor of positive learning gains than magazines or comics (Anderson et al., 1988; Nell, 1988). Strommen and Mates (2004) suggested that avid readers tend to read books rather than shorter works such as magazines. Large-scale international studies on students' leisure reading by the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) have shown that students who score well on reading assessments are readers of novels (Brozo, Shiel, & Topping, 2008; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2010), although those who read a wide variety of material perform especially well. Spear-Swerling, Brucker, and Alfano (2010), studying 87 sixth-graders in the United States, and McGeown, Duncan, et al. (2015), studying 3,015 students 11 − 16 year-olds in the United Kingdom, found that only novel reading was a consistent predictor of variations in reading skills. For the case of Internet reading, research continues on the process of online reading comprehension (Coiro, 2011) and its "additional complexities" (Coiro & Dobler, 2007, p. 214).

Reading mileage affects vocabulary development (e.g., Cunningham & Stanovich, 1997; Wu & Samuels, 2004), vocabulary knowledge has been strongly linked to academic achievement (e.g., Anderson & Freebody, 1981; Chall, Jacobs, & Baldwin, 1990) and vocabulary size directly affects reading comprehension (e.g., Biemiller, 2003; McKeown, Beck, & Sandora, 2012). Vocabulary acquisition is particularly important for students learning an additional language (Schmitt, Jiang, & Grabe, 2011) and the field of second language learning (including foreign languages, English as a foreign language and English as an additional language) has contributed an enormous number of studies on the positive role of reading mileage in vocabulary

acquisition (especially within extensive reading programmes such as sustained silent reading (SSR) discussed in Chapter 4 section 4.6.3.1). Some of these studies have also made links to an increase in students' syntactical knowledge (Elley & Mangubhai, 1983; Guo, 2012). Despite many short-term studies supporting these assertions, convincing evidence has emerged, supporting Elley and Mangubhai (1983), that the duration of the extensive reading programme is of importance in the acquisition of vocabulary in the second language learning area. For instance, after a five week reading-for-pleasure intervention, with control and treatment groups of similar pretest reading scores, the control group out-performed the reading group (Abdullah et al., 2012). However, this treatment group did have an increased positive attitude towards leisure reading which, as the researchers claimed, might reap future benefits. It is this increase in attitude where gains might be made. Any extensive reading scheme for language learners only lasts the time frame of the course. To gain vocabulary for fluency levels, rather than only recognition of frequent words, a positive attitude to future independent reading is beneficial. Extensive reading in second languages could have its main affordances in increasing recognition of frequent words rather than learning the meanings of infrequent ones (Grabe & Stoller, 2002), and in motivating students to read out-of-school (Horst, 2005). As posited by the National Reading Panel (2000), repetition and multiple exposures are crucial to vocabulary development. Reading mileage has also been linked to increased spelling ability (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1991; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006) and to writing proficiency (Eckhoff, 1983; Hedgcock & Atkinson, 1993) in both first and second language learners. Research in the second language field demonstrates the importance of reading mileage and extensive reading to students' vocabulary and spelling development, syntactical knowledge, writing proficiency and development of a

positive attitude to reading. This reinforces the importance of out-of-school reading to in-school literacy gains.

Recent enquiries support efforts to increase students' reading enjoyment for reasons beyond literacy development. A New Zealand longitudinal study of 500 Wellington region students, begun when they were 5-year-olds in 1993 and following them into adolescence, with data collections at two-yearly intervals, found that at age 14 "those who enjoyed reading also had higher scores for engagement in school, positive communication and relations with family, and positive friendships. They showed less risky behaviour, and had higher levels of motivation towards school" (Rivers, 2006, p. 15). In its 7th phase of data collection, when students were 16-year-olds, those who performed poorly in national assessments for qualifications and those who were early school leavers, were less likely to enjoy reading (Wylie, Hipkins, & Vaughan, 2008). Elsewhere, Clark and Rumbold's (2006) United Kingdom research on reading for pleasure references studies that demonstrate "reading enjoyment is more important for children's educational success than their family's socio-economic status. Reading for pleasure could therefore be one important way to help combat social exclusion and raise educational standards" (p. 6) - with this reinforced by a later study asserting that "reading for pleasure was found to be more more important for children's cognitive development between ages 10 and 16 than their parents' level of education" (London Institute of Education, 2013, p. 1); documentation for the Australian 2012 'Year of Reading' stated that "outside health and housing, encouraging a child to read and keeping them reading is arguably the single most important thing that can be done to influence positive outcomes in young people's lives – socially, culturally, educationally and economically" (Kelly & McKerracher, 2012); and similarly, Sullivan and Brown's United Kingdom study (2013) concluded

"children's leisure reading is important for educational attainment and social mobility" (p. 37). Concerning social engagement and personal development, Howard's Canadian study of 12 - 15 year-olds found that pleasure reading enabled adolescents to "gain significant insights into mature relationships, personal values, cultural identity, physical safety and security, aesthetic preferences, and understanding of the physical world, all of which aid teen readers in the transition from childhood to adulthood" (Howard, 2011, p. 46). Encouraging leisure reading that could continue into adulthood has further benefits. For instance, working with adult groups, it was found that reading amount predicted involvement in community organisations (Guthrie, Schafer, & Hutchinson, 1991) and elderly adults who read for pleasure were less lonely than non-readers (Rane-Szostak & Herth, 1995).

Research shows that there are significant academic and life gains when students frequently engage in reading, particularly the reading of fictional texts such as novels. A meta-analysis of 99 studies focussing on pre-schoolers through to university students found moderate to strong correlations with print exposure and what the researchers called an "upward spiral of causality" (Mol & Bus, 2011, p. 267). That is, those "who are more proficient in comprehension and technical reading and spelling skills read more; because of more print exposure, their comprehension and technical reading and spelling skills improved more with each year of education" (p. 267). Conversely, those who struggle with comprehension are less inclined to read for leisure and therefore have less print exposure, and the reading gap widens - termed "the Matthew effect" (Stanovich, 1986).

The literature in this section makes a strong case for investing time and resources to involve students in, and connect with, their out-of-school reading, so that students can enjoy the significant gains that reading amount and frequency can bring.

This has informed my main research question: what do New Zealand Year 10 students read out-of-school and is this reading recognised, supported and used for engaging students in learning within English classrooms?

1.3 *Calls to Reconceptualise "Literacy"*

International research indicates adolescents participating in a range of reading and writing activities using digital technologies out-of-school (e.g., Ito et al., 2008; Moje et al., 2008). When these are used as a basis for literacy activities in school, there is evidence students can exhibit literacy capabilities beyond those they exhibit with traditional text (e.g., Love & Hamston, 2003; O'Brien, 2006). The texts encountered out-of-school are often multimodal (using a combination of such things as written and aural text, symbols, graphics, movement, music and hyperlinks) and, it is asserted, adolescents need to "know how to make and get meaning from all of these modes alone and integrated together. In the 21st century anyone who cannot handle multimodality is illiterate" (Gee, 2014, p. xi). The proliferation of multimodal texts, particularly digital, and their demand for the "new literacies" or "multiliteracies" (coined by the influential scholars, The New London Group, 1996), has led to calls to reconceptualise "literacy" in schools, not just to include working with these texts and their complexities, but also to increase the emphasis on teaching critical literacy skills and intensify the teaching of critical information literacy competencies.

There is evidence of a mismatch between students' out-of-school literacy experiences and school literacy practices. Reasons posited for this include narrow teacher definitions of text (Alvermann & Hagood, 2000), leading to calls to amend these to encompass students' expanded notions of text in their out-of-school page and digital reading experiences (e.g., Cairney & Ruge, 1998; Labbo, 2006). Gee (2007)

argued that "schools are out of kilter … with our fast-changing, information rich, knowledge intensive, high-tech, global world" (p. 165), and Jewitt and Kress (2003) have suggested that "new ways of thinking, new theories of meaning and communication are needed" (p. 4). Others have issued warnings about students' defining their reading based on those texts legitimised in classrooms (Alvermann, 2001; Manuel & Robinson, 2003; Moje, Young, Readance, & Moore, 2000; Pitcher et al., 2007), with some positing that students, therefore, do not recognise their own competence, which undermines their reading confidence and leads to feelings of personal rejection (Lenters, 2006), and reduces engagement (Hong Xu, 2002). There is speculation that "learners who 'are digital' may be disadvantaged by learning arrangements that marginalize or penalize important forms of knowledge, understanding and practical proficiency they have acquired" (Lankshear & Knobel, 2003, p. 179).

One recent study highlights the issue of legitimising a range of texts (Moeller, 2015). Working with 71 sixth-graders and graphic novel reading, this study demonstrates that non-traditional modes of reading need legitimising in classrooms, if students are to become critical consumers of multimodal texts. The students closely read the written text but not the visuals. While they may have known how, they did not acknowledge the visuals as being as important as the written text. As Joaquin (2010) has suggested, students "believe that interpreting images, sounds, gestures, and other non-linguistic texts does not count as literate behaviour" (p. 111). There are implications for students' critical literacy and critical digital literacy if they are not exposed to these texts as legitimate texts for study.

There are many calls to expand text choices in schools. While investigating student motivation for reading, Guthrie (2002) noted, "when teachers used a wide

range of trade books, internet resources, reference books, and other media-centred

materials, reading-comprehension scores improved" (p. 152). Another United States

reading motivation study, involving 1,765 sixth-grade students, was scathing about

the narrow range of material for students and concluded, "institutionalised structures

and curricula in schools that are not responsive to students may foster both negative

attitudes and school failure" (G. Ivey & Broaddus, 2001, p. 353). Even when studies

are limited to paper-based texts similar criticism abounds. One reading preference

survey, with categories based on library categories, concluded that school was not

providing a broad enough range of text to match student interests (Worthy et al.,

1999). Likewise, an Australian pilot study of 12 - 15 year-olds in one school kept a

traditional definition of text. Despite this, the study concluded that "teaching practice

and selection of reading material in class needs more consistently to recognize and

value more highly the taste and reading practices of adolescents beyond the classroom

environment" (Manuel & Robinson, 2002, p. 76).

      While high stakes assessment regimes may impact on secondary teachers' text

choices, studies with younger students have revealed similar results. A United

Kingdom study (Mallord, 2003) of Year 6 and Year 7 students concluded that

students' at-home reading was not reflected in the reading they did at school, and that

teachers were at risk of disengaging these students by only using certain materials.

Similarly, others have stressed the importance of teachers being "willing to release

ownership of text selection and learning to the students, allowing them to bring their

world into the classroom" (Alford & Snell, 2003, p. 29).

      Even schools identified as innovative show a mismatch between students' out-

of-school and in-school literacy experiences. An Australian project (Cairney & Ruge,

1998), undertaken to identify the literacy practices employed by four schools

identified as being innovative for acknowledging the diversity of literacy practices in their school community, found that most of the innovations were connected with relationship building, rather than the recognition and use of community literacy practices. This is not unusual. As pointed out in the Australians' report, most literacy programmes concentrate on informing families about school practices rather than developing pedagogy informed by home practices. Another important finding was that students, whether from the dominant culture or from 'minority' language and cultural backgrounds, encountered "a more restricted range of literacy practices at school than the literacy practices in which they engage at home" (p. 58). School notions of literacy were narrow compared to student out-of-school practices. The researchers concluded that schools needed to investigate the home language and literacy practices of their students and "teachers need to find ways to use the knowledge gained to broaden their conceptions of literacy, and to ensure that school literacy practices build on, rather than replace, students' home literacy practices" (p. 67). More recently, four New Zealand schools, nominated by the Ministry of Education, school information and communication technology (ICT) advisers and educational technology providers as having a sound ICT infrastructure and a strong commitment to professional learning, participated in an ICT study. It could be argued that their commitment and infrastructure put them in a position more than most to make links to students' out-of-school digital reading. However, researchers found there was not necessarily a high level of digital text use in classrooms (Ward & Parr, 2010). It is perhaps not surprising then, that in the only international electronic reading assessment New Zealand 15-year-olds have participated in (the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2009), "New Zealand students had less

positive attitudes to computers and were also slightly less self-confident carrying out high level ICT tasks than the OECD average" (Kirkham, 2011, p. 3).

Further PISA evidence shows New Zealand 15-year-olds' reading performance is very strong, however boys' reading literacy scores are much weaker than girls', with this disparity evidenced over the five PISA administrations starting in 2000 (N. Marshall, Caygill, & May, 2008; May, Cowles, & Lamy, 2013; Ministry of Education, 2009a; Sturrock & May, 2002; Telford, 2013). Therefore, studies exploring the use of boys' out-of-school reading experiences in school have particularly relevance to New Zealand. Australian studies are especially interesting, not just because of the similarities in education systems, but also because of the influence of the New London Group. Half of this group's ten academics were Australians and, it might be assumed, Australian literacy researchers would be influenced by this seminal work and early-adopters of broad definitions of text. Two small-scale Australian studies emerged as early-adopters of a broad text definition and concentrating on adolescent males. Love and Hamston's (2003) study of digital reading experiences was with Australian mid-adolescent boys who could read on-the-page text, but chose not to. The boys chose not to imitate the reading dispositions of their educated, middle-class families. The high personal value of their reading choices was apparent:

> Through the voices of these boys, a powerful sense of their agency emerges in their decisions to pursue specific types of print and electronic-based leisure reading which carry immediate pragmatic and social investment and which contribute to the construction of their masculine identities at this point in their lives. (p. 176)

An important conclusion of the study was that teachers needed to find ways to incorporate the multimodal experiences of these boys into the valued print-based practices of school. Another adolescent study (Lankshear & Knobel, 2003) used new

literacies as a basis for literacy education with four adolescent boys. The boys "oriented themselves toward being capable" (p. 194). This research indicated that by engaging the boys via their out-of-school experiences, they demonstrated their literacy understandings to a higher level than they had in the past, such that "belied their reputations as poor literacy and English students" (p. 193). Other studies support these findings. In the United States, O'Brien (2006) attempted to increase male student self-perceptions by using digital media with which they had some familiarity. Initially to increase motivation, this had wider repercussions. Students saw themselves as successful, read and wrote more than previously, and became engaged in schoolwork. They began to "change their perceptions of themselves as not only literate, but highly so given an expanded notion of what it means to be literate" (p. 30). The students in these studies are examples that those "who have been failed by conventional schooling, and thus who have limited engagement … could be offered by new technologies new ways back into school as a context for learning experiences" (Freebody & Hornibrook, 2005, p. 373).

These research investigations indicate that school textual choice, and pedagogy that is responsive to students' out-of-school reading interests, should engage students in text that they find not only motivating, but also meaningful. Millard (2003) calls this a transformative pedagogy - one that "would allow children's cultural interest to be merged with the school requirements into what is described as a literacy of fusion" (p. 3). Others make more definite distinctions, arguing for a "third space" (Gutierrez, 2008; Petrone, 2013) where students' out-of-school literacies are not just merged with school requirements, or used as a bridge into school-valued literacy practices, but rather where students' "funds of knowledge" (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992) are as valued as those of sanctioned school knowledge. The

warning is that students' choices should not just be seen as a way into school sanctioned texts, but as texts worthy of attention in their own rights – and part of this attention should include the critical literacy and critical information literacy strategies necessary for critical readings of these texts. It is claimed that "the ability to navigate relatively unregulated formats of information … creates a need for new forms of literacy" (Howard, 2011, p. 4). Part of this criticality should be based on "Internet safety, commercialism, the stereotypical depictions associated with games and virtual worlds, and the need for discerning use of online resources" and providing opportunities for adolescents to "consider the practices in which they engage, and how they position themselves and are positioned by others" (Burnett & Merchant, 2015, p. 273). These aspects are discussed further in Chapter Four section 4.6.4. Other warnings have been concerned with "the risk of burying youth's pleasures by exposing them to adult critique" (Alvermann & Heron, 2001, p. 123). However, student resistance does not seem widely researched, and Alvermann and collaborators report later that students might, in fact, be enthusiastic about such inclusions (Alvermann, Hinchmann, Moore, Phelps, & Waff, 2006).

The work of the theorists and researchers above contributed to my main research question. I also wondered whether there were any differences in students' out-of-school reading choices and reading frequency based on gender, ethnicity and socio-economic factors (as indicated by school decile), in large urban New Zealand schools. I became interested particularly in the ways students have their out-of-school reading recognised in subject English and whether there was the mismatch between students' in-school and out-of-school text experiences, as claimed. To be able to recognise students' out-of-school literate practices, teachers need to know what students read for leisure and, to work with these texts in classroom, teachers need to

embrace them as text and legitimate them, as well as work with students on critical stances towards them. These became aspects incorporated into my research questions.

1.4 *The New Zealand Barriers to Bringing Digital Text Inside the School Gates*

In Chapter Five section 5.6.6 I discuss the international literature outlining the barriers to bringing digital text into classrooms. Despite significant resourcing, both in school infrastructure and teacher professional learning, recent New Zealand reports show teachers' professional learning and time constraints for sustained learning (and therefore confidence with digital technologies), student access - a "first order" barrier identified by Ertmer (1999) - and a lack of technical support in schools, were impacting the integration of ICTs in classrooms.

In 1999 The New Zealand Ministry of Education began the *Information and Communication Technologies Professional Development* (ICTPD), lasting until 2008. This ongoing project was an important feature of policy implementation outlined in the Ministry of Education policy documents through these years (Ministry of Education, 1998, 2003a, 2006). The aims of the ICTPD were to increase teachers' ICT confidence, skills and pedagogical understandings of ICTs, and to increase the frequency and quality of ICT integration for strengthening students' learning, engagement and achievement. Using clusters of schools participating for three years, the programme included evaluations by 2,674 teachers working in both primary and secondary schools.

An interim report on the ICTPD (Fink-Jensen et al., 2003) showed that 42% of secondary teachers were likely to be experiencing "familiarity and confidence," while only 5% were able to make a "creative application to new contexts" (p. 85-86) (that

is, use ICT as an instructional tool and integrate it into the curriculum). It has been noted that teachers need to feel comfortable and competent with the technology itself before they are able to integrate it into curriculum (McGrath, 1998) and these teachers were not yet at this stage.

The final evaluation (Sahin & Ham, 2010) reported that the programme had a greater impact on primary school teachers than secondary, with teachers expressing future concerns around student access to technology, technical reliability and sustaining teacher learning. These findings reflect those of international studies (British Educational Communications and Technology Agency (Becta), 2004; Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010; Somekh, 2008). The teachers' confidence as personal ICT users was greater than their confidence with ICTs in classrooms, and secondary teachers reported using ICTs in a smaller proportion of their units of work with students than the primary teachers. The final cohort of teachers used ICTs more frequently than previous years' cohorts, particularly to produce static presentations (slide shows) and word processing, using spreadsheets, Internet information processing activities, email and social networking communication, and curriculum practice activities with students such as drill and practice, and games. When asked about the extent their classroom practices had changed as a result of participating in the programme, 45% said *to some extent* and 32% *to a large extent.* However, only 18% of secondary teachers indicated *to a large extent.* Primary teachers reported increasing their classroom ICT use significantly more than secondary teachers, and this included information processing, communicating, for creative activities, and in curriculum practice and technical skills. The programme had a greater impact on primary teachers.

Secondary school research, surveying 200 teachers in four "strong ICT schools" (Ward & Parr, 2010), found that ICT use for specific pedagogical work in curriculum areas was low. Similarly, an investigation into the success of Laptops for Teachers, a government-funded leasing initiative to get a laptop to every teacher, found secondary teachers used laptops more for communicating with colleagues and parents, and developing class materials, than for classroom use (Cowie, Jones, & Harlow, 2005). Ward and Parr (2010) reasoned that there might be "less need to use computers where traditional practices continue to work adequately such as in the delivery of specific content and skills" (p. 120). This perception of need, they suggested, has implications for the level and type of professional learning necessary for increasing usage to impact student learning. Arguably, as evidenced in other sections of this Literature Review, for English teachers such learning might profitably include developing understandings of the text forms of new literacies, how students' out-of-school literate practices can impact literacy gains in school and how technology can contribute to pedagogy in these areas.

The six-year longitudinal study of the laptops for teachers initiative (Cowie et al., 2008) found a lasting benefit to streamlining reporting, timetable checking and maintaining student attendance and assessment records. Although there was some laptop use for teaching in classrooms, teachers signalled that accessing online resources, lesson planning and resource preparation were still the main laptop benefits. However, results showed a definite increase in teachers' confidence with technology.

In 2012 the New Zealand Government's Education and Science Committee investigated and made recommendations "on the best structures, tools, and communities, in both rural and urban New Zealand, for enabling students and

educators to attain the knowledge and skills, such as digital literacy, that the 21st century demands of us all" (Education and Science Committee, 2012, p. 9). Key recommendations included considering requiring all teachers to reach a defined standard of digital literacy and undertake maintenance programmes for this; introducing policies and initiatives ensuring every student at school had access to a digital device and digital learning in school; and considering improvements to technical support in schools for effective ICT use. These recommendations align with some of the teacher concerns expressed in the 2008 ICTPD evaluation. The committee also recommended strengthening the Ministry of Education's digital capability leadership and considering establishing a crown enterprise for leadership in digital capability and twenty-first century learning environments.

A 2012 national survey of school principals and teachers, part of an ongoing monitoring project, found the foremost issues for both included the adequacy of ICT equipment and Internet access for students in classrooms. These two issues showed an increase of concern from 31% of teachers in 2009 to 54% in 2012 (Wylie, 2013).

A 2014 report on digital technologies in schools (Research New Zealand, 2014) surveyed 619 schools and received 95 secondary school principals' responses. Of these, 80% indicated their school had an ICT strategic plan, with 76% indicating this included teacher professional learning plans and 70% included a change management strategy. A policy for digital devices in learning was included for 55%. Questions on which digital tools students used showed Microsoft Office was used by 81%, Wikipedia by 63%, Google Drive/Docs by 49% and Moodle by 30%. In a typical school week students used personal digital devices in a few classes in 55% of the secondary schools but 93% indicated that there were school devices available for classroom use (71% did not allow these to be taken home). Major barriers identified

to using digital technologies were cost of equipment (54%), cost of upgrades (40%) and staff professional development (29%). Only 19% saw technical support as a major barrier, which is in contrast to what teachers have reported in other surveys. Teachers have also expressed the need for ongoing professional development (see above). This might indicate that the perceptions of school leaders are different from those of classroom teachers. Seventy percent saw integrating digital technologies into the curriculum as a *major barrier* or *somewhat a barrier* and 65% saw *no*, *very little* or *a moderate* impact of digital technologies on student achievement. On a 6-point scale of digital adoption, 47% thought their teachers were at stage 4 (familiarity and confidence) and 27% thought teachers were at stage 3 (understanding and application of the process). Only 3% saw them at stage 6 (creative application to new contexts). Noteworthy is that 88% said school management teams had the most influence on the school's expenditure on digital technologies, with 2% indicating that teachers were the major influencers. Whether lack of teacher consultation affects the level of adoption and curriculum integration needs further research.

Despite significant resourcing via upgrading school networks and providing software funding, professional development programmes, laptops for teachers, free advisory services and initiating teacher virtual learning networks (see Ministry of Education, 2015), research shows that integrating digital technologies into classroom work is still a challenge in most secondary schools. Teachers are confidently using ICTs to research, plan and prepare resources, and for classroom slide shows. There appears to be less confidence in exploring ICTs alongside students in classrooms.

This part of the Literature Review informed my decisions to investigate English teachers' definitions of *text* and whether digital texts were explored in

classrooms for literacy purposes. I also wondered whether critical digital information literacy skills were taught, if digital technologies were not widely integrated.

1.5 *Conclusion*

On the basis of the literatures explored, the implications they present and the decisions I arrived at after each section, I designed research questions for my study. Having a wide definition of reading (including the reading of online text forms), to explore Year 10 students' out-of-school reading, bridges a gap in the New Zealand literature. Using both quantitative and qualitative methods would enable me to capture not just the breadth and frequency of this reading, but also student voice concerning their text choices and their in-school reading. This too bridges a research gap. Research demonstrates the importance of reading motivation. This has not been explored with New Zealand Year 10 students. PISA research showed New Zealand students comparatively unconfident in using ICTs, and data revealed digital technologies not being widely integrated into secondary curriculum work. I wondered, therefore, if students were being taught critical information literacy skills. Although New Zealand research has been conducted in this area (e.g., Hipkins, 2005a), with *The New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2007) committed to students being literate, critical thinkers who actively seek, use and create knowledge, it seems timely to explore this again. There is also New Zealand evidence that teachers struggled with teaching these skills (Probert, 2009) and that information literacy skills were not well taught in secondary schools (Education Review Office, 2005). If there are literacy gains to be made by increasing the use of students' out-of-school reading, then teachers need to be aware of what students read, view these texts as legitimate for classroom activities, and be able to use them. If these texts are digital, then

teachers require expertise in them and ability to access them during teaching. How these texts are embraced in secondary English is under-researched in New Zealand. In New Zealand these issues have as a backdrop the decline in students' out-of-school reading as evidenced in PISA results and other international studies (e.g., Clark & Rumbold, 2006; Clark et al., 2005; Sullivan & Brown, 2013) and a reading achievement gap as outlined in my Introduction; a gap showing boys, and Māori and Pasifika students at the lower end of statistics (Kirkham, 2011; N. Marshall et al., 2008; May et al., 2013; Ministry of Education, 2002, 2009a).

The research questions for this study incorporate the above.

*Main Research Question***:** What do New Zealand Year 10 students read out-of-school and is this reading recognised, supported and used for engaging students in learning within English classrooms?

Research Sub-questions:

1. Are there any differences in students' out-of-school reading choices and reading frequency based on gender, ethnicity and socio-economic (as indicated by school decile) factors?

2. In what ways do students have their out-of-school reading recognised in subject English and is there a mismatch between students' in-school and out-of-school text experiences?

3. What do students say motivates them to read for pleasure and is there a teacher role in this?

4. What do English teachers of Year 10 think their students read out-of-school and how do they know?

5. Are Year 10 English teachers embracing a broad definition of *text* philosophically and in practice, and are there any constraints or barriers to this?

6. What types of text do Year 10 teachers perceive as valuable for classroom literacy development and are such texts visible in teachers' choices for classroom teaching and learning contexts?

7. What do teachers say about student critical information literacy strategies and what strategies do students say they use?

In the following chapters I explore further literature as findings emerge. In the next chapter I outline the methodology used in the study, the rationale for the data collecting instruments and their relationship to the research questions.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY: THE RESEARCH DESIGN

Layering colours will give your work resonance, so strive for a rich texture, even if it's worked in fifty shades of grey.

(Kaffe Fassett, knitter and designer:
Vogue Knitting International Magazine).

In this chapter I discuss the methodological approach of the study and reasons for the methods chosen to answer the research's main and sub-questions. I outline the research paradigm and research phases and give an overview of the steps within these. I then give a broad introduction to the data gathering instruments and the data analysis plan. I follow this with an explanation of how participants were chosen. Next, the reliability, validity and trustworthiness of the chosen methods are considered. Ethical considerations for approaching the participants are explained and I end by considering the risks related to the research design.

This chapter is an introduction to the study's overall design. The following four chapters report participant perspectives in relation to the research questions. Chapters Three and Four investigate student perspectives and Chapters Five and Six investigate teachers' perspectives. Within each of these chapters I give fine-grained details of the participants and ethical considerations, and outline the arranging, planning and conducting of that research step. This includes how each research instrument was devised, its piloting and revisions (where applicable), how data were analysed, and the reliability, validity and trustworthiness of that step of the research process.

2.1 *The Research Paradigm*

The preceding literature review contained both positivist and interpretivist studies.
Studies that investigated students' selection of page texts for out-of-school reading
and students' motivations for reading have tended to engage with large cohorts
through surveys, (e.g., Clark & Douglas, 2011; Hughes-Hassell & Rodge, 2007; G.
Ivey & Broaddus, 2001; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
(OECD), 2010; Sullivan & Brown, 2013; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). These studies
have resulted in quantitative findings emerging from a positivist paradigm. On the
other hand, studies investigating students' activities with digital technologies using
students' own voices about their views and engagement with a variety of text forms,
(e.g., Alvermann, 2006; Lankshear & Knobel, 2003; Love & Hamston, 2003; Taylor,
2011; Walsh, 2010), have tended to be of a smaller scale. They employ methods such
as case study, focus group discussions, classroom or small-setting observations and
interviews, resulting in qualitative findings coming from an interpretivist paradigm.
The review of the literature and the nature of the main and sub-questions in my
research led to a mixed methods approach for my study.

2.1.1 *Mixed Methods*

It has been argued (R. Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007) that mixed methods
research is one of three research paradigms, along with quantitative research and
qualitative research. By asking 36 leading mixed methods research methodologists
and analysing the 19 responses received, these scholars offer this definition of mixed
methods "… combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches
(e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis,
inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding
and corroboration" (R. Johnson et al., 2007, p. 123).

The research questions required me to find out the breadth of student-out-of-school reading choices and frequency of accessing these choices, while also investigating the texts teachers perceived as valuable for literacy development and the visibility of these texts in the English classroom. A quantitative approach revealing frequencies and numbers suited my purpose. Combining this with a qualitative approach, by giving an opportunity for multiple participant perspectives, gave depth to these answers. Occurring within the same study, this mixed method approach negotiated identified gaps in the research literature. Knowing what might hinder or encourage teachers to choose the texts that they do, whether they know their students' out-of-school reading preferences, what students think of the texts teachers choose, and whether students and teachers think programmes encouraging students' leisure reading in school are successful, are some of the areas that give a richer understanding of the quantitative data. These areas require the depth referred to in the above definition, and are more suited to a qualitative approach that allows participant voices to be heard, as they expand on their choices and opinions. Such a process, as Scott and Usher (1999) suggest, allows the development of emerging themes as individuals reveal their personal stories.

If the qualitative approaches are subsequent to the quantitative, then they can provide a richer exploration of the statistical evidence, a process advocated by Aldridge and Levine (2001). The explanatory two-phase design also allows the quantitative data to define the respondents to be approached in the second phase (Myers, 2014). Having the quantitative exploration followed by teachers and students expanding their responses and giving their thoughts and feelings about their practices would give rich data which, when synthesised, could reveal different perspectives. As Denzin and Lincoln (2013) assert, adopting multiple paradigms and methods means

"incorporating multiple perspectives" (p. 207) and for this study it would result in a compelling picture of students' out-of-school reading and its visibility in English programmes.

2.2 *The Research Design*

2.2.1 *The Research Methods*

The research project design was dictated by the research questions. The main research question, "what do New Zealand Year 10 students read out-of-school and is this reading recognised, supported and used for engaging students in learning within English classrooms?" has two parts. Initially, as in the international studies, what students read out-of-school was investigated by surveying students. The second part, exploring whether teachers know what their students read and whether they see these texts as valuable in a classroom, was also investigated by survey. However, I needed to employ methods other than survey to drill deeper into students' text choices, why they choose to read what they do (for example the influence of personal interests, peer groups and teachers), the opportunities they have to bring their choices into school and whether they value these opportunities. Similarly, to get a full picture of teacher views on their text choices, what texts they value and what might encourage and constrain their choices, teacher voices needed to be involved beyond what a survey was able to measure.

Because there were more students than teachers involved in the investigation, I chose a focus group method to hear student voices, and a semi-structured interview method to expand on the teacher survey. In addition, because recent research has indicated that adolescents are involved in reading a variety of texts via digital technologies, and are immersed in social media activities (Lankshear & Knobel, 2003;

Lenhart, Madden, MacGill, & Smith, 2007; Madden et al., 2013; O'Brien, 2006; Thomas, 2007), a diary method was used for students to outline the breadth and popularity of their online and computer activities. Table 1 shows how each method contributed to the research questions.

2.2.2 *The Research Phases*

The teacher and student surveys served to give a wide range of data that could be explored in teacher interviews and in student diaries and focus groups. The quantitative phase, therefore, preceded the qualitative. The quantitative phase also enabled the selection of student focus group participants and this in turn informed the selection of teachers for interview. This sequential process is one of the key points to identify when using mixed methods (V. Alexander, Thomas, Cronin, Fielding, & Moran-Ellis, 2008; K. F Punch, 2005). In this study, the first phase "provides a quantitative backdrop to the emerging qualitative analysis" (V. Alexander et al., 2008, p. 130) so that the quantitative phase is the adjunct, with the qualitative phase having the most weighting. This weighting of phases and their methods can be diagrammed in a similar way as used by Creswell (2002, p. 570) and can be seen in Table 2. Both the teacher survey and student diary activity mainly revealed measurable data, (for instance from frequency and preference scales, and time data), but they also contained data requiring thematic analysis. Nonetheless, their data were substantially quantitative. Table 2 also broadly shows the manner in which I analysed the data emerging from each data collection instrument. A much fuller rationale for, and explanation of, the data analysis in each phase is reported in the following chapters (Chapters Three, Four, Five and Six).

Table 1

Relationship of Research Questions to Research Methods

Research questions	Research instruments				
	Student survey	Teacher survey	Student diary	Student focus groups	Teacher interview
Main research question: What do New Zealand Year 10 students read out-of-school	✓		✓	✓	
and is this reading recognized, supported and used for engaging students in learning within English classrooms?		✓		✓	✓
Research sub-questions					
Are there any differences in students' out-of-school reading choices and reading frequency based on gender, ethnicity and socio-economic (as indicated by school decile) factors?	✓		✓	✓	
In what ways do students have their out-of-school reading recognised in subject English				✓	✓
and is there a mismatch between students' in-school and out-of-school text experiences?	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
What do students say motivates them to read for pleasure and is there a teacher role in this?	✓			✓	
What do English teachers of Year 10 think their students read out-of-school and how do they know?		✓			
Are Year 10 English teachers embracing a broad definition of *text* philosophically and in practice, and are there any constraints or barriers to this?		✓		✓	✓
What text types do Year 10 teachers perceive as valuable for classroom literacy development and are such texts visible in teachers' choices for classroom teaching and learning contexts?		✓		✓	✓
What do teachers say about student critical information literacy strategies		✓			✓
and what strategies do students say they use?				✓	

The unfolding nature of the study, the role of the quantitative data in informing the questions in the focus groups and the teacher interviews, the role of the diary in the focus group questions, and the findings of the focus group discussions influencing the semi-structured interview protocol for the teacher interviews, meant that particulars of analysis would be finalised as the study unfolded.

Table 2

Weighting of the Research Phases and Methods With Their Data Analysis Approach

Quantitative Phase		QUALITATIVE PHASE	
Quantitative research		Qualitative research	
Method of data collection	Data	Method of data collection	Data
Student survey	• Numeric scores • Descriptive statistics	**Student focus groups**	• Text data from discussion • Thematic analysis
Student diary activity	• Numeric scores		• Text data of computer usage • Thematic analysis
Teacher survey	• Numeric scores • Descriptive statistics		• Text data from open ended questions • Thematic analysis
		Teacher interviews	• Text data from discussion • Thematic analysis
		Researcher's diary	• Text data written during data collection; consistency checks; ideas; thematic notes
		Transcriber's notes	• Non-verbal

2.2.2.1   *Steps in the research phases*

Each research phase had a number of steps. University ethics approval needed to be gained and surveys needed constructing and piloting before the main study began. Once data collection started, a rigorous timeframe was needed over multiple sites to follow the structure of the research phases and so that different sets of findings could inform next steps. Overall, a 14-step process was planned starting with the pilot survey and ending with the teacher interviews. The research phases are in Table 3.

2.2.2.2   *Research timelines*

The iterative nature of this study and the number of methods meant that the pace of data collection had to be maintained. Some initial data analysis had to be completed before moving to the next step, so next-step participants could be chosen and to inform the focus group and interview protocols. Yet, data collection had to be completed within a year's time frame (2010), so that the students did not move beyond Year 10 and their teachers did not change. This meant that, in reality, the steps were staggered. For instance, it took 11 weeks to complete the data collection in steps nine through to 12, and analysis was only preliminary so that data collection could continue. See the timeline in Table 4.

Because the data collection would take a year, the piloting of the student and teacher surveys was conducted in the previous year. As explained in Chapter Five, the teacher survey was piloted in four schools after it had been critiqued in a further school. Administering the pilots, inputting data and data analysis of the teacher survey pilot, took six months to complete.

Table 3

The Research Phases: Steps for Constructing Data Collection Tools, Ethical Agreements, Piloting, Data Gathering and Data Analysis

Main Quantitative Phase						
Step One	Step Two	Step Three	Step Four	Step Five	Step Six	Step Seven
Construction of student survey tool	• University ethics approval (pilot and main study) • Principal, teacher and parent information and consent forms; student information and assent forms	Pilot of student survey: one school	Reconstruction of student survey	• Ethical procedures for student survey • Teacher meetings for student survey information: three schools	• Student information sheets and assent • Implementation of student survey: three schools	• Analysis of student survey • Selection of diary and focus group respondents: three schools
Construction of teacher survey tool		Feedback on teacher survey: one school	• Pilot consent procedures • Pilot of teacher survey: four schools	Analysis of teacher survey pilot (and survey changes if required)	• Ethical procedures for teacher survey • Implementation of teacher survey: three schools	• Analysis of teacher survey

Main Qualitative Phase						
Step Eight	Step Nine	Step Ten	Step Eleven	Step Twelve	Step Thirteen	Step Fourteen
• Diary construction • Teacher survey analysis. • Teacher survey: thematic categorising checked	• Implementation of Diary Activity: three schools • Selection of teacher interview respondents	• Diary analysis • Focus group protocol developed	• Focus group discussions: three schools • Focus group self-efficacy questions	• Focus group analysis • Focus group: thematic categorising checked • Teacher interview protocol developed	Teacher interviews: three schools	• Teacher interview analysis • Teacher interview: thematic categorising checked

After the last teacher interview and its transcription, a more in-depth analysis of each piece of data took place. The steps in the research phases outlined above took two years, with data collection finishing at the end of 2010.

Table 4

Data Collection Timeline

Week	Activity	Week	Activity
1	• Student diary School 4	7	• School 10 focus groups arranged • School 7 focus group transcribed
	•		•
2	• Student diary School 4 • Student diary School 7	8	• School 10 focus group conducted
3	• Student diary School 7 • School 4 diaries analysed	9	• School 10 focus group transcribed
4	• School 4 focus groups arranged • Focus group protocol developed • School 7 diaries analysed • Student diary School 10	10	• Preliminary focus group analysis
5	• School 4 focus group conducted • School 7 focus groups arranged • Student diary School 10	11	• Teacher semi-structured interview protocol developed using all previously collected data
6	• School 7 focus group conducted • School 10 diaries analysed • School 4 focus group transcribed		

2.3 *The Research Instruments: An Overview*

All of the research instruments are discussed in detail in the Chapters Three, Four, Five and Six. In these chapters I outline how the instruments were formulated and the rationale for this, and how I sought feedback on the survey and diary instruments prior to using them in the study. The explanations below, therefore, give a brief overview of each instrument.

2.3.1 *The Student Survey*

The student survey was in three sections. I developed a questionnaire that constituted the first two sections. The first section sought demographic data and the second sought data on what students read out-of school. An explanation of the development, rationale

for questions and question types is given in Chapter Three section 3.1.1. The third section of the student survey tapped into students' reading motivations. For this I utilised a Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ).

2.3.1.1   *The motivation for reading questionnaire (MRQ)*

Students' out-of-school reading can comprise reading that they do for pleasure and leisure, are interested in, and which is self-chosen. If intrinsic motivation (IM) is defined as "engagement in an activity based on personal interest in the activity itself," and it is accepted that "motivated students are inclined to explore the world of reading and to find a variety of topics that interest them" (Wang & Guthrie, 2004, p. 162), then this reading is reading in which students are intrinsically motivated. If the texts they choose for pleasure are recognised in school, and their out-of-school reading is supported in school, teachers may be able to capitalise on this IM in classrooms by allocating time for this leisure reading and welcoming these texts into their programmes for literacy activities and text study. R. M. Ryan and Deci (2000a) argue that IM and extrinsic motivation (EM) are theoretically distinct constructs and define EM as being based on external values and demands. It is important, therefore, to know what extrinsically motivates students to read and whether teachers may have a role in this and could, accordingly, play a part in increasing students' motivation for out-of-school and in-school reading. Consequently, I required an instrument that conceived of IM and EM as distinct from one another. The MRQ suited this purpose.

The MRQ, devised by John T Guthrie and colleagues, has undergone a number of iterations since its inception. Initially reported in a 1995 study (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1995), motivation was conceived in the tool as having 11 possible constructs measured by 82 items (seven or eight per construct), arrived at after a review of motivation and reading motivation literature. The MRQ was administered to 105 fourth and fifth grade

students on two occasions in the 1992 - 1993 school year. The constructs were examined by "factor analyses of children's responses, computing item-total correlations, and computing the internal consistency reliability of the theoretically-derived and empirically-derived dimensions" (p. 8). A revised version with 54 items was then given to 600 fifth and sixth grade students participating in an intervention study to enhance their reading comprehension (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Exploratory factor analysis of the individual sets of items for each construct, item total correlations, and reliability analyses identified that eight of the 11 constructs had good internal consistency reliabilities, so question items were revised for three of the constructs, as reported in Baker and Wigfield (1999). This became the tool currently known as the revised MRQ, with 11 motivation constructs divided between IM and EM concepts, and measured by 54 items. Wang and Guthrie (2004) used eight of these constructs measured by 45 items. Their study sought to understand the extent Chinese Taiwanese and United States students' IM and EM correlated with text comprehension directly or indirectly through amount of reading when controlling for past reading achievement. This 2004 model conceived of IM as made up of three motivational constructs and EM as made up of five (see Figure 1). Each of these eight constructs had items to be responded to on a 4-point agreement scale, ranging from *very different from me* to *a lot like me*.

The IM constructs were curiosity, involvement and preference for challenge. Preference for challenge was a reader's desire to absorb difficult ideas, curiosity was the desire to read for personal interest and involvement related to the pleasure of engaging in text. The EM constructs were made up of recognition (being recognised as a good reader), grades (achieving good marks for reading), social reading (sharing reading and ideas in reading), competition (achieving better than others in reading),
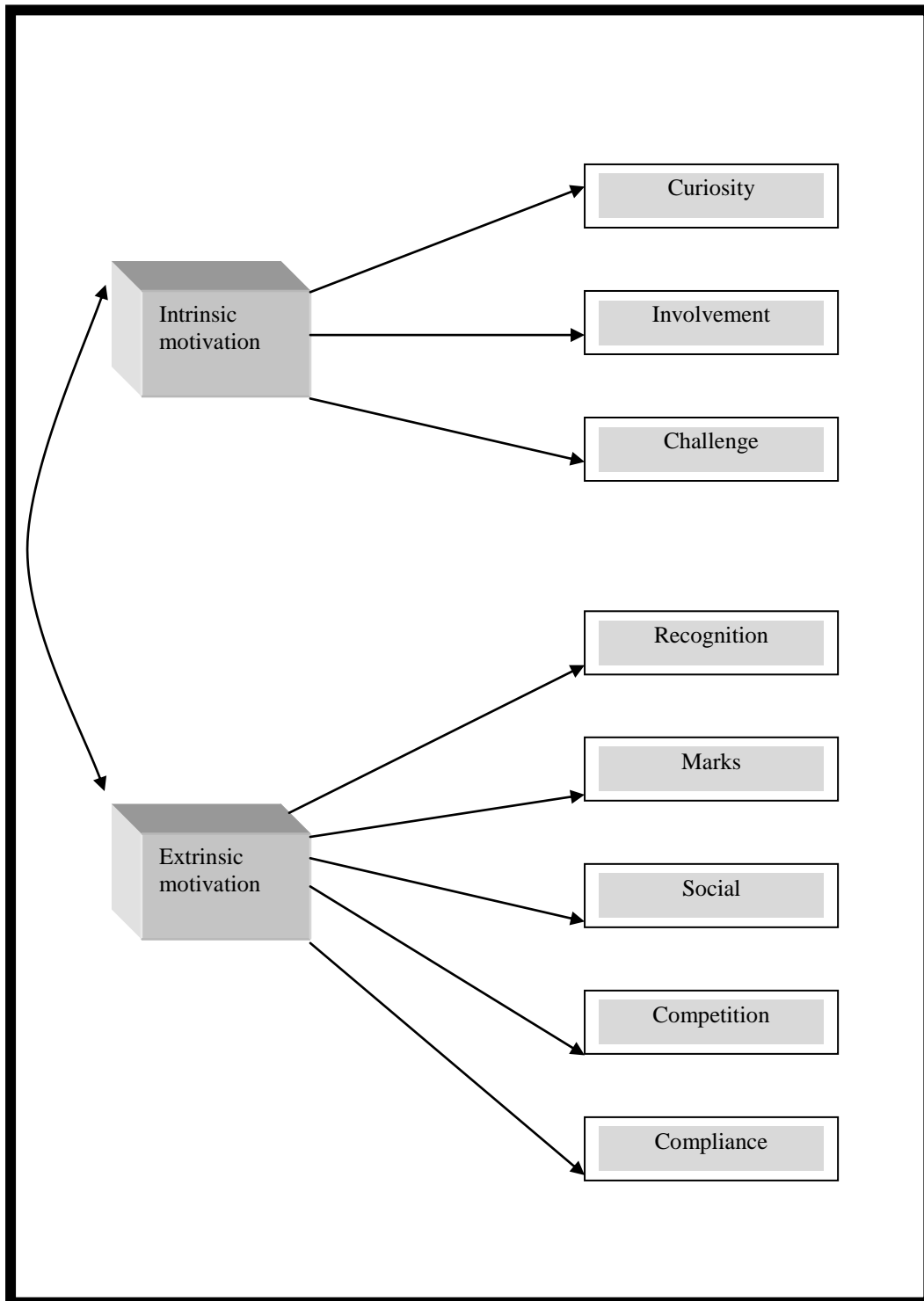
Figure 1. The two-factor motivational measurement model. (Wang & Guthrie, 2004, p. 166) ('Grades' changed to' Marks' to suit New Zealand terminology).

and compliance (reading to meet an external requirement or goal) (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). After a pilot project (Wang & Guthrie, 2000) the original 54 items that made up the constructs were reduced to 45, removing those that had a .40 correlation or less with the motivation constructs. Wang and Guthrie (2004) reported that the reliabilities for the scales "were highly similar" for the two cultural groups participating in the survey, and the "reliability (alpha) of the eight motivational scales ranged from .43 to .83 for the U.S. group and from .59 to .88 for the Chinese group" (p. 169).

The Wang and Guthrie (2004) study also sought to discover if there were any differences in the relationships represented in this model, across United States and Taiwanese Chinese 9 – 10 year-olds. While younger than the students in my study, because the MRQ had been piloted with Chinese children (Wang & Guthrie, 2000) and revised as a consequence of this cross-cultural exploration, and the findings "suggested that intrinsic motivation was equally salient in U.S. and Chinese children's reading" (Wang & Guthrie, 2004, p. 181), this revised version was the appropriate choice for the multi-ethnic settings of my research schools.

An additional appeal of the revised MRQ (2004) was its acceptance internationally (Komiyama, 2013; Logan et al., 2011; Unrau & Schlackman, 2006) and its grounding in previous theoretical work and a multitude of studies. It is one of the most common measures of reading motivation currently in use (Schiefele, Schaffner, Moller, & Wigfield, 2012).

Some aspects of the series of statements that make up the MRQ required wording changes to suit the New Zealand environment and to be clear to New Zealand students (for instance *grades* became *marks*). In addition, students were reminded that 'reading' included reading online. This heeded a warning in other research that students might not use this expanded definition of 'reading', because their parents and

teachers do not use it (Manuel & Robinson, 2003; Pitcher et al., 2007). I added five

statements to reflect digital text reading. These reflected the original MRQ statements

for book reading. The changes were important for addressing my research questions

and also overcame a stated limitation of a very recent study using the MRQ

(McGeown, Osborne, Warhurst, Norgate, & Duncan, 2015). That was, that the MRQ

was created with a focus on page reading and did not encompass digital text. The

additions resulted in 50 statements for the MRQ section of my survey (see Appendix A

section 3).

I piloted the student survey with one class of students in a non-research site.

The piloting process of the student survey is reported in Chapter Three section 3.1.2.

2.3.2 *The Teacher Survey*

I devised a teacher survey to elicit information required to answer the research

questions. English teachers in the school where the student survey was piloted gave

feedback on the teacher survey. The survey was then piloted in four English

departments not in the main project. The survey, feedback and the piloting are reported

in Chapter Five section 5.1.

2.3.3 *The Student Focus Groups and Diary Activity*

I constructed a booklet for a 14-day diary activity where students entered their

computer activities. There were columns for entering the activity, the duration, the

purpose, the result and any simultaneous activities undertaken. The diary was not

piloted, but I sought feedback from two Year 10 boys whom I knew. The diary is

further explained in Chapter Four section 4.2.1.

For consistency and coverage of the overarching ideas in the study, I prepared a

focus group discussion guide. The student survey and the diaries gave a perspective on

the students' activities and this helped me to formulate more in-depth questions. I

divided the guide into sections for coherence and to aid analysis. Each section contained possible probing questions going from the general to the specific.

To add to the focus group discussion I also had some questions about their reading self-efficacy. Previous versions of the MRQ had included four items related to reading self-efficacy (Baker & Wigfield, 1999). Studies have shown a strong relationship between students' self-efficacy beliefs and their reading motivation (Guthrie, 2002, 2004; S. Ivey & Guthrie, 2008; RAND Reading Study Group, 2002; Verhoeven & Snow, 2001) and between students' positive reading self-efficacy beliefs and their reading achievement (Mucherah & Yoder, 2008; Schunk, 2003). At the conclusion of each focus group, the students answered the four items measuring reading self-efficacy (Baker & Wigfield, 1999). This was to see if their responses might contribute to a rich picture of how this purposively sampled group of page and Internet text readers saw their self-efficacy as readers. Further explanation of the discussion guide and self-efficacy questions is in Chapter Four section 4.2.2.

2.3.4. *The Teacher Interviews*

The same semi-structured interview guide was used for each teacher interview. The interview guide centred on getting the teachers to expand on the teacher survey findings and to get each teacher's perspective on what the students had revealed in their survey and in focus groups. I also had probes and prompts that I could use if necessary. Some of these came from the particular teacher's survey and their particular students who had participated in the focus groups. Hence, I was able to give explicit and relevant examples to probe the interviewee's responses and to act as prompts. A detailed explanation of the interview protocol is in Chapter Six section 6.2.

2.3.5 *The Researcher's Diary*

Throughout the study I maintained a researcher's diary. This was used not just as a reminder of the organisational aspects of the study (such as survey deliveries and pickups, English departments meetings, when to text students diary reminders, and so on), but also as a tool for reflecting on the data during analysis. I used it to track items and ideas to follow up in focus groups and interviews and for reminders of comparisons to make amongst the data revealed by the different research instruments. The researcher's diary was particularly useful during the focus group discussions for noting non-verbal aspects that the discussion transcript would not expose. I had a transcriber for the focus group tapes. She also attended the focus group discussions and took notes on non-verbal interactions. Both our notes were then used to annotate the transcripts.

2.4 *Data Analysis: An Overview*

The quantitative student survey data were coded and entered into the Statistics Package for the Social Sciences, Version 20 (SPSS). The same was done with the quantitative data in the teacher survey, but the open questions in this survey underwent a constant comparative process to arrive at themes (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). A thematic analysis was also undertaken with the student focus group transcripts and the teacher interviews. All theme constructions were checked by an independent coder, as recommended by Pope, Ziebland, and Mays (2000), and I report the inter-rater reliability when this occurred. Student diary time data were manually calculated and student purposes for Internet site visits were initially categorised using themes generated by other researchers (M. Berg, 2011; Hamilton, 1998), until I arrived at my own categories.

A detailed account of data coding, analysis procedures and thematic checking, is given in each of the Chapters Three, Four, Five and Six. Each chapter has different respondents, a different data collection method, and therefore different analysis procedures. Any changes that occurred during the multi-stage research process are also reported in these chapters. As Creswell (2014) states, "the initial plan for research cannot be tightly prescribed and some or all phases of the process may change or shift after the researcher enters the field and begins to collect data" (p. 186).

2.5 *Selecting Participants*

2.5.1 *The Students and Teachers: The Year 10 Focus*

The research focus was on Year 10 students (usually 14 – 15-year-olds) and their teachers. This was so that student and teacher responses would not be skewed by the time and content demands of internal and external assessments for national qualifications, which usually start in Year 11. In addition, I assumed that Year 10 students' out-of-school reading practices would not be overly influenced by curriculum subject demands because they were not in a high-stakes assessment environment. The third reason for selecting Year 10 students was because the recent New Zealand data on the decline in students' leisure reading (and that of their international counterparts), and their strong digital reading but lack of confidence in using information and communication technologies, came from the several studies from the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) (Kirkham, 2011; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2010; Telford, 2013). These international PISA studies focused on 15-year-olds, the age many students turn in the latter part of Year 10. The teachers approached were all English teachers who taught Year 10.

2.5.2 *The Schools*

I selected three Auckland co-educational secondary schools with rolls of over 1,500 students and representing a range of deciles (four, seven and ten) to participate in the research. I used five criteria to choose schools. Firstly, I chose schools with large student populations. Year 10 students are under the age of 16 and thus I needed not just their assent to participate, but also parent or caregiver consent. I knew this would affect participant recruitment. Then, I decided on a range of deciles so that the study's sample would represent a cross-section of urban youth, including those from low socio-economic backgrounds. A range of deciles in different areas of the city also gave access to students who came from a variety of ethnic backgrounds because each school's roll reflects its immediate community. It has been asserted that "few surveys of leisure reading habits and attitudes have included low-income minority urban youth" (Hughes-Hassell & Rodge, 2007, p. 23) and I was keen to have these students' voices heard. Thirdly, I wanted schools that had a dedicated leisure-reading component to their Year 10 English programmes. Knowing more about students' reading preferences and how they and their teachers viewed these programmes as opportunities for students to bring their own reading choices into school, would give important information that might lead to improvements in using this valuable school time. The fourth criterion was that the schools must not have participated in the piloting procedures. The last criterion was pragmatic. I needed manageable travel times to the research sites, so I decided that the school should be no more than 12 kilometres from central Auckland.

2.5.3 *The Focus Group Students and the Teachers for Interview*

The multi-stage design of this study had the students for the diary activity and focus groups selected depending on responses to the student survey. Some items in the survey acted as screens to select students who were not only those who indicated

having engaged in book reading in the past week, but who also participated in Internet activities, used email and had a page on a social networking site. Focus group literature indicates that groups of six to eight participants lead to optimum interaction (Cronin, 2008; Krueger & Casey, 2000), so I intended to form focus groups around this number. These students were selected after the student survey data had been entered into SPSS and they were also the diary activity participants.

The teacher interviewed in each school was the one who taught the largest number of focus group participants. This ensured the interviewees had a good knowledge of what could arise in the focus group discussions, particularly regarding the conduct of the leisure-reading component in their Year 10 programmes and particular resources students might mention being used in class. This allowed different perspectives to emerge on these programme components.

2.6 *Ensuring Reliability, Validity and Trustworthiness*

This section gives an overview of the reliability, validity and trustworthiness of the research design. The following chapters address this explicitly.

There are many definitions of reliability, validity and trustworthiness. Reliability can be defined as meticulously describing all procedures and documenting all decision making, as proposed by Kirk and Miller (1986) and Swinton and Mowat (2006). Validity refers to "whether or not the final product … truly portrays what it claims to portray" (Byers & Wilcox, 1991, p. 11). One of the main ways I ensured reliability and validity, then, is through what Patton (1990) and Merriam (1998) call "thick descriptions," and by being explicit and thorough, as recommended by Whittemore, Chase, and Mandle (2001). This explicitness, through rich descriptions, increases the trustworthiness of the research (Williams & Morrow, 2009).

The use of both quantitative and qualitative methods strengthens the reliability and validity of this study. Robson (2002) asserts that when using a mixed method approach "error due to methods is regarded as tending to average out when multiple methods are used" and that "the interpretation of statistical analyses may be enhanced by a qualitative narrative account" (p. 371). I employ not only a statistical approach, but explore "the intentions, beliefs and propositional attitudes of social actors" (Scott & Usher, 1999, p. 82).

When reporting the quantitative phases of the study I discuss the response rates. I do this not because I will be generalising the findings to any wider population, but to add to the argument given below about patterns, trends and transferability. Discussing response rates adds to the transparency of my study. The 77.4% response rate for the teacher survey is well above the rates recommended for research. Bailey (1991) sees a 30% response rate as reasonable while others make recommendations as high as 50% - 60% (Babbie, 1979; Malaney, 2002). For the student survey there was a 22.3% response rate overall, based on the Year 10 populations schools *made available to me*. I also report rates school-by-school. However, the response rate based on the population available to me and after parental consents were given was 99%. In Chapter Three I discuss the representativeness of the sample, the role of gatekeepers, and the impact of the students being younger than 16 years-of-age. While these factors affected the response rate of the student survey, there has been a move in the research literature on whether non-response is a good indicator of bias. Keeter, Miller, Kohut, Groves, and Presser (2000) compared two survey administrations where responses were different on few variables, despite having different response rates, and Groves (2006), when discussing nonresponse rates and nonresponse bias in surveys, questions a

connection between the two. I have also reported the representativeness of the student and teacher samples by using school roll returns and national English teacher data.

Some scholars think that response rates "are an important measure of survey quality" (Czaja & Blair, 2005, p. 38) so there was considerable piloting of the surveys to check fitness for purpose (Babbie, 1998). Both pilots are further reported in Chapters Three and Five, where further aspects of validity and reliability are discussed (for instance, choices on scales, survey pathways and coding procedures).

Purposive sampling was accomplished using the student survey questions as screens to select focus groups. This recruited participants who had the experience to respond to the focus group discussions and the interests that would enable them to conduct the diary task (Elo et al., 2014). The purposive sampling contributed to the validity of the focus group findings (Grossoehme, 2014; Patton, 2002).

In the qualitative phases of the research, a threat to trustworthiness can be the "balance needed between what the participants say and the ways in which the researchers interpret the meanings of words" (Williams & Morrow, 2009, p. 579). Having only one researcher can exacerbate this. As Bosk (2008) asserts, "all field work done by a single field-worker invites the question, Why should we believe it?" (p. 167). I put several processes in place to increase balance. A constant comparative reading of focus group and teacher interview transcripts "to honor the obligation to interpret their perspective with a little distortion as possible" (Moss, 2005, p. 270) and reporting students' and teachers' perspectives in their own words, increased balance. Using participants' words increases the validity criteria of authenticity and integrity to the data (Whittemore et al., 2001; Williams & Morrow, 2009). Member checking with each focus group occurred when I gave a summary of the discussion and asked for feedback. For Year10 students, attending voluntarily and in their own time, this was an

appropriate way to check. The interviewed teachers were sent a copy of their transcripts for checking.

Other processes put in place to alleviate researcher bias included the focus group attendance of the transcriber, the process of thematicising and interrater reliability checks. Firstly, someone else transcribed the focus group tapes. I knew that words themselves would not totally represent the conversations because strength of enthusiasm, excitement or criticism can often be conveyed non-verbally. The transcriber also needed to distinguish each participant's voice. Therefore, she attended the focus groups and made notes as conversations progressed. These notes, along with mine, were used to annotate the transcripts.

Secondly, to reduce researcher bias, in the constant comparative process of analysing the open questions in the teacher survey, and the teacher interview and focus group transcripts, themes emerged from the participant voices, rather than voices being allocated to already devised themes. Allowing themes to emerge from the data strengthened the thematicising by "allowing the text to co-determine the criteria through which it is evaluated" (Moss, Girard, & Haniford, 2006, p. 132). At times I used the participants' own words to name the themes, as advocated by Swinton and Mowat (2006). When analysing student purposes for site visits in the diaries, I initially began categorisation using six categories proposed by Hamilton (1998) and five patterns of text use that emerged from M. Berg (2011). I did this because student diary responses were not fulsome and it made the initial categorisation easier. However, as I began allocating student responses I had to devise some new categories and begin a process of reallocation. The final eight categories were my own, based on my student responses. This process is explained in Chapter Four section 4.3.1. This attention to detail when generating themes reduced the likelihood of bias.

Thirdly, there was an independent coder checking the themes from the open-ended survey data, and focus group and interview conversations. She also checked my allocation of respondents' comments to themes. We discussed theme titles and moved some comments between themes, despite a high level on interrater agreement. This checking "whether phenomena are properly labelled" (Kirk & Miller, 1986, p. 20) is another factor contributing to reliability.

A further approach establishing the reliability of the qualitative data was ensuring that all focus groups and interviews had the same protocol because "recording questions, and to some degree standardizing them, is not only a necessary step, but a sufficient one" (Kirk & Miller, 1986, p. 55). In addition, while not possible for the focus groups (see Table 3), I achieved "synchronic reliability" (Kirk & Miller, 1986, p. 42) by conducting the interviews in a similar time period. The results of the student and teacher surveys show consistency over the three sites and this is important for reliability and validity. As posited by Byers and Wilcox (1991), "reliability refers to the extent to which the results are repeatable" (p. 111) and the consistency of results shows the "stability of the measures" (Sapsford, 2007, p. 15) and confirms the reliability of the surveys.

Triangulation is another aspect that can strengthen a study's validity. Flick (2009) suggests that triangulation arises from the gathering of different points of views and by using a number of methods. Data triangulation was achieved in this study not just across methods, but also across aspects of the study. For instance, teacher survey responses were followed up in the teacher interviews and student survey responses were followed up with the focus groups. In addition, students and teachers gave their perspectives on similar points. For instance, in the student survey, students were asked if their teachers used the Internet and how they knew, while teachers in interviews

were asked about their use of ICTs in the classroom. In the teacher survey teachers indicated what text forms they used in the classroom, while the focus groups were asked to comment on their teachers' text choices. Another example is when the survey students were asked about who taught them about using ICTs, focus group students talked about their Internet researching strategies and who had taught them their researching skills, teachers in the survey indicated their thoughts on students' research skills, and the teacher interviewees spoke about how they scaffolded their students' Internet researching skills. There was also within method triangulation, for instance by way of probes in the student focus groups and teacher interviews. The use of triangulation was a way of verifying responses in the self-report methods and enabled, through a process of comparison and contrast, convergent and disparate findings to come to the fore.

It is argued that basing a definition of generalisability on universality "is problematic and bears little relevance to educational research whose goal is to understand behaviour and relationships as they operate in local context" (Hartas, 2010, p. 77). I make no claims to the generalisability of the findings of this study. However, the trends and patterns noted could be "transferable" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) to other settings. Or, to use Bassey's term (2001), the trends and patterns can result in "predictions." Bassey maintains that "a fuzzy prediction replaces the certainty of scientific generalisation" (p. 5) and that "the *prediction* is a fuzzy generalisation which extrapolates the findings to similar people-events-situations and suggests that similar findings may be discovered elsewhere" (p. 17 italics in original). In another publication he explains:

> There is necessarily a measure of tentativeness in extrapolating the finding to other people-event-situations, but making a prediction of what may be the case elsewhere, is, I suggest, a proper outcome of research. It conveys to the professional reader, in terms which are framed by the researcher, guidance for

action. It conveys to the academic reader a theoretical construct which can be tested and so supported, or refuted, or amended. This leads to two criteria of quality. Findings can be judged by their trustworthiness. Predictions can be judged by the likelihood of general accuracy. (Bassey, 2000)

While the findings reported in this thesis may not be "generalisable" to a larger population, there will be commonalities over the three focus groups and within the teacher interviews that show patterns, and enough evidence in the teacher and student surveys to show trends. Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, and Allen (1993) posit that it is the conduct of the research, the authenticity, the trust with participants so that they give honest and valid information, which adds to the trustworthiness.

The following chapters give clear, detailed descriptions of every step in the research process and this, coupled with the explanations of the reliability and validity given above, contribute to the trustworthiness of the findings. The evidence and argument in the following chapters attest to the study's trustworthiness, while the rigour of design, sampling, analysis and statistically based conclusions, attest to its validity. In addition, as this research unfolded (including the piloting), emerging findings were peer reviewed by international experts and published (Ladbrook, 2009, 2010; Ladbrook & Probert, 2011), and are being cited in the works of others. This also supports the claim of trustworthiness of the processes put in place for the project.

2.7 Ethical Considerations

University research ethics were applied for and granted twice. The first application was for the piloting of the survey instruments and the second for the study.

2.7.1 Informed Consent

2.7.1.1   Schools and teachers

Formal consent was sought from school principals. I did this by presenting the

research aims and methods, the significance of the study and the ethical issues involved. A formal information letter sought each principal's written consent. I approached teachers in English department meetings. I outlined the study and gave information sheets and sought consent for both the survey and a possible interview. Teachers were able to withdraw their data from the study by a given date if they changed their minds.

2.7.1.2   *Students*

Students were under 16 years-of-age. Therefore, parent/caregiver consent was required. A letter, explaining the aims, benefits and confidentiality aspects of the project in simple terms, was sent home with students with a consent slip. The letter sought permission for students to participate in the survey and, if selected, in a brief 14-day diary activity and a one hour focus group meeting after school. Before the student surveys were administered, students were also given an information sheet and asked to give their assent.

Both permissions needed signing before a student could participate in the research. It was made explicit to both students and their parents/caregivers that participation in this project was entirely voluntary, and that participation or non-participation would not affect the students' relationship with their school in any way. However, all students would be given a survey to complete in class time. This ensured that those students whose parents/caregivers do not give consent, or who themselves do not assent, would not be separately identified from the participants during survey administration in class. However, non-participants' surveys would not form part of the research data. The students were given a date by which time they were able to withdraw their survey from the study if they changed their mind (and their diaries and focus group contributions if applicable) and information was given on how to do this.

2.7.2 *Confidentiality*

Neither the teacher nor the student survey was anonymous. The student surveys were

used to select the focus group and diary activity participants, so names were needed.

Teachers selected for the interviews would have their survey responses followed up,

so names were required. While student confidentiality could be preserved in phase one

of the project by coding techniques, focus group confidentiality could not be

guaranteed. Guidelines for confidentiality were discussed with the focus groups before

discussions. Participants were asked to respect group members' privacy by not

discussing things mentioned outside of the focus group. Also, students had the right, at

any time during focus group discussions, to request the audiotape be turned off (as did

the teachers interviewed). The researcher collated and entered the data, but someone

else transcribed focus group and interview tapes. The transcriber signed a

confidentiality agreement for this work. All data, surveys, transcribed material,

audiotapes and diaries were stored in my secure, locked office. Electronic data were

stored on my password-protected computer that only I could access. At the end of the

project, surveys, tapes and diaries will be stored and destroyed after six years. No

person or school is named in any ensuing research report or this thesis. Pseudonyms

are used when reporting what respondents said in the oral sessions.

2.7.3 *Power Relationships with Teachers*

I lecture in pre-service secondary teacher education in subject English, therefore it was

likely that some of the teachers approached would be my past students. These teachers

may have perceived an unequal power relationship. The teacher information sheet

explained that participation was entirely voluntary and that declining would not

prejudice their relationship with me as researcher or the University where they had

completed their pre-service programme.

2.7.4 *Safety*

Establishing a safe environment for the focus groups, where participants felt at ease and had an equal opportunity to participate, was of utmost importance. Focus groups had simple ground rules to eliminate any potential problems. Students were texted a couple of days before the meetings as a reminder and also to make sure they had told the people at home that they would be later home from school. Other aspects of safety included having a focus group venue at school so that students would be at ease and having refreshments available. As an experienced secondary teacher and a previous Year 10 Dean in a large secondary school, I was confident that I could ethically manage the focus groups and ensure student comfort with the process, but I was also prepared to refer any stressed student to their school counsellor and to meet their parents.

2.7.5 *Costs to Participants*

There were no financial costs to participants. There were time costs. Focus group discussions were approximately one hour. The diary activity took each student approximately five to ten minutes per day for fourteen days. The teacher interviews were approximately an hour long.

2.7.6 *Benefits to Participants*

Student participants had the opportunity to reflect on and discuss their experiences and, for those in focus groups, an opportunity to share in the views and experiences of others. I hoped that students could develop a sense of agency by participating and seeing an acknowledgement of their personal experiences. The purpose of the research is to inform school practice, so there are benefits to participating schools. Any published reports have been sent to these schools. The teacher participants benefited from the opportunity to reflect on their practice.

2.7.7 *Social and Cultural Sensitivities*

Every effort was made to work in a sensitive manner with each participant. Students were from many of the ethnicities represented in their schools. I have a background in multi-cultural and multi-ethnic education and as a preservice teacher educator in both subjects English and English for Speakers of Other Languages, I have worked extensively with peoples of ethnic and cultural backgrounds different from my own.

2.8 *Project Risks*

At the beginning of the research study there were a number of risks I wanted to minimise. The research relied on the goodwill of the schools involved, the teachers, the students and their parents/caregivers. My professional standing with the teachers and the benefits of the investigation helped. There was also extensive data collection and the mixed method approach required me to work with both quantitative and qualitative data analysis.

There was considerable organisation and preparation required. With all students completing the student survey, even if they were not participants in the research, hundreds of student survey copies were required for delivering to schools within strict time frames. Good planning was crucial.

A major risk was the parent/caregiver consent forms. Students needed to take them home and bring them back to class teachers. Teachers were essential to the recruiting process. In addition, teachers administered and collected the student surveys. Ensuring teacher co-operation was crucial.

I knew that there might be limitations to the study concerning the size of the subgroups (such as different ethnic groups) for the student survey and was prepared to deal with this once I knew who my participants were.

That the research relied on self-report was also a risk. The strategies employed to strengthen the validity and trustworthiness (see section 2.6) were of importance.

Another risk was that a selected focus group participant could decide not to continue with the project before phase two was completed or that they would change schools. I had an initial meeting with the students so that they would be well informed about the project, hopefully interested in it and see their contribution as important.

Despite these risks, I thought that good planning, clear communication of the worth of the study and attention to detail when reporting, would overcome many of them. What eventuated is reported in the following chapters.

2.9 *A Conceptual Framework: The Relationship of The Study Components for Investigating the Research Questions*

A conceptual framework can be "rudimentary or elaborate, theory-driven or commonsensical, descriptive or causal" and its aim is to show the main components of a study and the "presumed relationships among them" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 18). The conceptual framework in Figure 2 shows how the student survey was used to investigate students' motivations for reading and to reveal what they are reading out-of-school, using the broad definition of text so that it encompassed both page and screen reading. Student reading was further elaborated on in the student dairies and focus group conversations.

The focus groups and diary activity allowed an exploration of students' online practices, including the effectiveness of their online information seeking strategies. By discovering if any of the extrinsic constructs and the particular variables that make these up (that is, from the questions in the MRQ related to these constructs) are part of the students' motivational profiles, it might be seen whether teachers have a role in

students' extrinsic motivations and what this role might be. By discovering which of the intrinsic constructs contributed to students' reading motivation, teachers could be able to tailor their text choices to raise students' IM. The student focus groups explored the opportunities that students had for bringing their out-of-school text choices (that is, those that they were motivated to choose for their leisure reading) into the classroom and whether students saw these opportunities as successful.

The teacher survey and interviews investigated what text forms teachers embraced theoretically in their definitions of text for subject English, and which of these they chose for classroom programmes. The interviews explored teachers' reasons why some texts that might have been theoretically embraced, were not visible in programmes of work. The barriers and affordances impacting teacher text choices formed part of this drilling down. For students' out-of-school text choices to be visible in classrooms, teachers need to know what these texts are and to also view them as useful for literacy activities. The survey and interviews, therefore, also investigated what teachers thought their students read out-of-school, how they knew and whether they saw them as having value for classroom work.

Given the New Zealand and international research on students' generally weak information literacy skills (Education Review Office, 2005; Hipkins, 2005a), that students may not be taught research skills in secondary schools (Hipkins, 2005b), and at least one New Zealand study showing that teachers may have inadequate understandings of information literacy (Probert, 2009), the focus groups had the opportunity to outline their online information searching strategies, teachers were asked about their perceptions of the effectiveness of students' digital information literacy and both groups were asked about the opportunities provided in subject English for learning these skills.

The research questions and the motivational theoretical lens led to this conceptual framework. The framework led to the selection of methods. By planning for both student and teacher perspectives in the study and drilling down via the study's sub-questions, a complex picture emerges showing whether there is a match or mismatch between teachers' text choices and those that students read out-of-school. This coming together of different perspectives will answer the central research question: What do New Zealand Year 10 students read out-of-school and is this reading recognised, supported and used for engaging students in learning within English classrooms?

2.7 *The Next Steps*

The next four chapters show how the research design unfolds. Chapters Three and Four tell the students' story and Chapters Five and Six concentrate on the teachers' perspectives. Each chapter can be read as a separate study but, ultimately, they will be combined in Chapter Seven to present the complex answer to the central research question.

Curiosity

Involvement

Intrinsic motivation

Challenge

The out-of-school reading choices of Year 10 students, their motivations for reading and the recognition and support of this reading in school, alongside influences on teachers that impact this recognition and support.

Teacher knowledge of students' out-of-school reading choices

Students' out-of-school page and screen reading choices

Opportunity?

Subject English

Match or mismatch?

Teacher text choices

Teacher definitions of text

Teaching of skills?

Teacher role?

Barriers and affordances

Recognition

Marks

Social

Competition

Compliance

Extrinsic motivation

- Curriculum
- Assessment Standards
- Philosophy
- Beliefs about text forms for literacy development
- Knowledge of text forms
- Personal enjoyment
- Access
- Community impact
- English department

Figure 2. A conceptual framework for investigating the research question

CHAPTER THREE

THE BROAD VIEW: EXAMINING STUDENTS' OUT-OF-SCHOOL TEXT

CHOICES AND READING MOTIVATIONS USING A SURVEY

> POLONIUS: *What do you read my lord?*
> HAMLET: *Words, words, words*
> POLONIUS: *What is the matter my lord?*
> HAMLET: *Between who?*
> POLONIUS: *I mean, the matter that you read my lord.*
> (Shakespeare. *Hamlet, Prince of Denmark*. I, ii, 190-194).

In this chapter I present the broad picture of the Year 10 students' out-of-school text choices and their reading motivations. I begin by outlining the survey and its pilotting. I then move to describing the participating schools and the student participants' relationship to their school's Year 10 cohort statistics. I also include other informtion that contributes to the student profile. This is followed by an explanation of the participant recruitment process and the survey response rate. Next, I outline how analysis was conducted and the reliability and validity of the survey process. In the second part of the chapter I present the survey findings. These particularly relate to my study's main research enquiry concerning the students' out-of-school reading. These are presented, along with the students' reading motivations, illustrating decile and gender differences.

3.1 *The Student Survey Instrument*

3.1.1   *The Student Survey*

The student survey was in three parts. Demographic data were collected in section one. This section asked for responses on gender, ethnicity, the language used at home and had questions on home computer and Internet access, library membership and

whether library use was for accessing reading material and computers, and if there was home access to newspapers and magazines. Gender, ethnicity and home language were included to ascertain whether these factors impacted students' reading choices, either in the survey or later in the responses of the students who were selected as focus group participants. Questions on home access were asked because, as McQuillan (1998) posits, access to reading materials could be a strong predictor of reading achievement scores. Library membership questions were included to take account of the assertion that "libraries matter, and they matter a lot" (Krashen, Lee, & McQuillan, 2012, p. 30) and because libraries have been reported recently as the most common source of books read for enjoyment by students aged 12 – 17 (Scholastic Inc, 2015). I included home Internet access and whether this was high speed because "those who have a higher quality of access … use the Internet for a broader range of purposes" (Eynon & Malmberg, 2011, p. 586), a claim supported by others (Livingstone & Helsper, 2007). MacArthur Foundation research also argues that:

> Sporadic, monitored access at schools and libraries may provide sufficient access for basic information seeking, but is insufficient for the immersed kind of social engagements with networked publics that are becoming a baseline for participation on both the interest-driven and the friendship-driven sides. (Ito et al., 2008, p. 36)

These questions, therefore, would also be useful screens when selecting the focus group participants.

Students responded *yes* or *no*, or to six-point frequency scales using tick boxes. The explanation for the choice of six-point scales is provided in Chapter Five section 5.1.1. Survey section two asked students about their reading on screen and page. In this section there were open questions to check the students' frequency and categorical responses. For instance, in section two students were asked if they had done any book reading in the past week, and if they answered *yes* they were required

to write the title, author or the reading topic. There were also questions to ascertain activity frequency; what they did; their favourite topics; whether they usually went to books, other printed materials or the Internet when seeking information; and whether they used social networking sites and email. As I explain in section 3.5, some frequency questions were followed by a question where participants listed their activities, reading preferences and so on. I decided not to provide choices, to not anticipate student responses, thus adding to data richness. Section three of the survey was the section based on the MRQ. This section contained 50 statements set out in eight parts. Each part related to one of Wang and Guthrie's (2004) eight motivational constructs (see Chapter Two section 2.3.1.1). At the start of each, students were reminded that "reading includes reading online and on printed pages," foregrounding this expanded definition for the students.

3.1.2 *The Student Survey Pilot*

The student survey was piloted at a decile ten school. I selected this school for teacher feedback on the teacher survey prior to its piloting (reasons are outlined in Chapter Five section 5.1.2) and the student survey was piloted on the same day as the teacher feedback. Twenty-seven Year 10 girls completed the survey in a one-hour English period. To simulate what it would be like in the research schools, I spent 10 minutes explaining the project to them. In the survey schools, 10 minutes would be necessary for teachers to organise the student assent process. In effect, the pilot students had about 50 minutes to complete the survey. After, I spent 15 minutes getting feedback from them about their difficulties. I was interested in which questions that they had trouble understanding, whether it was clear that "reading" included computer screen reading, and their comments on survey length. Most students finished on time but were rushed and gave valuable feedback on section three. This section was based on

the MRQ of Wang and Guthrie (2004), as explained in Chapter Two section 2.3.1.1. They were emphatic that a scale response was too time consuming and that if a 'yes' or 'no' response was required, that they would have completed with less rush and have been more thoughtful. In fact, two from this "very capable" group (the HOD's estimation) did not complete. I needed to make a decision about whether getting the survey completed was more important than having data with maximum variability. Respondent fatigue could lead to students skipping MRQ questions, lowering response rates, and potentially risking the accumulation of data. In addition, lower response rates might be associated with sampling bias, as "only the most involved and interested … may be the ones to answer questions" (Gogol et al., 2014, p. 191). I decided that complete data and an ability to make generalisations on the cohort of survey respondents were more important than reporting the 'extent' that a scale gave and perhaps being able to make comparisons with other studies. On the girls' advice, I changed the MRQ section of the survey. Instead of 4-point agreement scales (Wang & Guthrie, 2004, p. 169) this section became a *yes* or *no* response. I would still be able to see if patterns emerged in the responses to the different constructs of the two-factor motivation model, and I could pursue these in the focus group discussions if necessary. The final version of the survey is in Appendix A.

3.2 *The Student Participants*

3.2.1   *The Participating Schools*

I approached three Auckland co-educational secondary schools with rolls of over 1,500 students and representing a range of deciles (four, seven and ten). A range of deciles was important for capturing any variability represented in a cross-section of secondary urban youth. This range also meant that each school reflected its immediate

community's ethnic composition. When I approached the schools, the two largest ethnic groups in each were as follows: decile four: Asian (53.4%) and Pacific Island (24.3%); decile seven: European/Pakeha (42.4%) and Pacific Island (22.5%); decile ten: European/Pakeha (76.1%) and Asian (10.9%) (Ministry of Education, 2009b). Henceforth, the three schools in this study will be referred to as "school 4," "school 7" and "school 10" as a reminder of their decile ratings.

I chose schools with large student rolls because the ethics of involving students under the age of 16 meant that parental or guardian permission was required for participation as well as each student's assent. That is, even if parents consented for their child to be involved, the students themselves could decline. I was also reliant on the schools overseeing the distribution and collection of the parental permission slips and information sheets. These factors meant that I needed a large cohort of students to approach, so that final survey numbers were as large as possible.

The research focus was on Year 10 students (usually 14 – 15-year-olds) and their teachers (see Chapter two section 2.5.1). The student survey's purpose was to get an overview of what Year 10 students were reading (on page and on screen) and their reading motivations. From these participants I planned to select the highest users of Internet text and seekers of information online, (who were also readers of page text), to participate in a more in-depth probe via a diary activity and focus group participation. The teacher in each school who taught the most students completing diaries and participating in the focus group at each school would then be invited to participate in a teacher interview. There was, therefore, a cascade effect. The future selection of student and teacher participants was reliant on outcomes of the student

survey; that is, further research participants would be "serially" sought (Higginbotham, Albrecht, & Connor, 2001).

3.2.2   *The Student Demographics*

I am reporting the student demographic data here so that it is easily comparable to the school statistics above. One hundred and ninety students, who had parent or guardian permission, agreed to participate in the student survey. Of these, 74 came from the decile four school, 47 from the decile seven and 69 from the decile ten. Eighty one (42.6%) students were male and 109 (57.4%) female. Participant gender and ethnic characteristics are in Table 5.

Demographic data were collected in section one of the survey. Students chose which of the listed ethnicities best described them. In school roll returns to the Ministry of Education students are grouped as *Pakeha/New Zealand European*, *Mãori*, *Pasifika*, *Asian* or *Other*. My survey did not group students as *Asian*. I provided more fine-grained choices of *Indian*, *Chinese* and *Korean*. Also, students could write their ethnicity if they felt they were not represented in the mentioned groups. I provided more fine-grained groups for different reading choices relating to ethnicity to emerge. For instance, Korean and Japanese students might read manga more than Indian students. However, to ascertain how representative my sample was of the official Year 10 student roll returns, I aggregated the three categories *Indian*, *Chinese* and *Korean* (to reflect the official *Asian*) and took account of what students wrote if they did not see themselves represented by the designated groups. Hence, students who would count as *Asian* on official statistics (for instance, those identifying as Malay, Pakistani, Singaporean and Taiwanese) were added to the category *Asian* for comparison to official roll return data.

Table 5

Percentage Comparisons of Survey Participants by Ethnic and Gender Group with Participating Schools' Year 10 School Rolls

Student ethnicity and gender	School 4 roll Y10 (*n*=442)	School 4 survey students (*n*=74)	School 7 roll Y10 (*n*=539)	School 7 survey students (*n*=47)	School 10 roll Y10 (*n*=297)	School 10 survey students (*n*=69)	Aggregated rolls Y10 (*N*=1254)	All survey students (*N*=190)
Other	3.9	2.6	4.1	12.7	3.8	11.6	3.9	8.9
Māori	7.3	4.1	16.7	4.3	6	4.3	11	4.2
Pasifika	24.3	12.2	22.5	6.4	3.2	0	18.8	6.3
Asian	53.4	64.9	14.3	12.8	10.9	17.4	27.1	34.7
European /Pakeha	11.1	16.2	42.4	63.8	76.1	66.7	39.2	45.8
Males	54.3	47.3	58	51.1	50.2	31.9	55	42.6
Females	45.7	52.7	42	48.9	49.8	68.1	45	57.4

Of the 66 students who would officially identify as *Asian*, 20 were *Indian* (10.5% of respondents) with 19 at school 4 (25.7% of school 4 respondents). Nineteen students identified as *Chinese* (10% of respondents) with 14 at school 4 (18.9% of school 4 respondents). There were 10 students who identified as *Korean* (5.3% of all respondents) and five of them came from school 10 (7.2% of school 10 respondents). These were significant percentages within my sample, so my decision proved useful.

Table 5 illustrates Māori and Pasifika students notably under-represented as participants at schools 4 and 7, while Asian and European/Pakeha students were over-represented as a percentage of the total number of participants, compared to official roll returns. In all schools there was a greater percentage of female participants (57.4%) than that indicated on official school rolls (45%). This presented me with a possible dilemma of representativeness, which is further discussed in section 3.3.2.

Other participant demographic information showed 78.9% (150 students) spoke English as their main home language. The majority of those who did not were from school 4 (27 students; 36.5% of school 4 participants; 14.2% of all respondents), with four students from school 7 (8.5% of school 7 participants; 2.1% of all respondents) and nine from school 10 (13% of school 10 participants; 4.7% of all

respondents). Some students not having English as their main home language became focus group participants and in Chapter Four I discuss how this affected their leisure reading and its acknowledgement in school.

Demographic data also revealed that 185 students (97.4%) had a home computer (two from school 4 and three from school 7 did not), with 91.9% of those with a home computer at school 4 having Internet access, 93.6% of those at school 7 and 100% at school 10. For school 10 respondents, 98.6% of home computer owners indicated having a high speed Internet connection, whereas at school 4 this was 86.5% and 87.2% at school 7. These home computer data could be a reflection of the communities from which the schools draw, as indicated by each school's decile rating.

Public library membership data showed that 154 students (81.1%; *N*=190) belonged to a library other than their school's, with school 7 (85.1%; 40 students; *n*=47) having the highest percentage. Of all respondents, 70.5% used a library (including their school library) to access reading material and 18.4% used the library to use computers. Slightly more school 4 students (20.3% of school 4 respondents; 7.9% of all respondents) used library computers than respondents in the other schools. However, there was little difference across schools (less than 4%) in the proportion of each school's respondents who used libraries for accessing reading material or for computer use.

Of all 190 participants, 22 (11.6%) *always* read library books, 46 (24.2%) *often*, 67 (35.3%) *sometimes*, 47 (24.7%) *seldom* and 8 (4.2%) *never*. Figure 3 shows the frequency of library-book reading by school. It also illustrates that students who read library books *always* and *often*, comprised 35.8% of the survey respondents. When *always*, *often* and *sometimes* are aggregated, 71.1% used libraries for accessing

books. There was a marked difference amongst the schools in the numbers of students indicating that they read library books *seldom* or *never*. Of the school 4 respondents, 33.8 % (*n*=74) indicated this, at school 10 (*n*=47) 30.7%, while at school 7 only 19.1% (*n=47*) *seldom* or *never* read library books. School 4 was the only school operating its wide reading programme in classrooms rather than in the library, so this could be an explanation for its students reading library books less frequently. However, school 10 did operate wide reading in the library and had a similar percentage. It might be that students in school 10 have more ability to own books rather than borrowing them. Nonetheless, this is just surmise and later the focus group students could offer no reasons for this either.
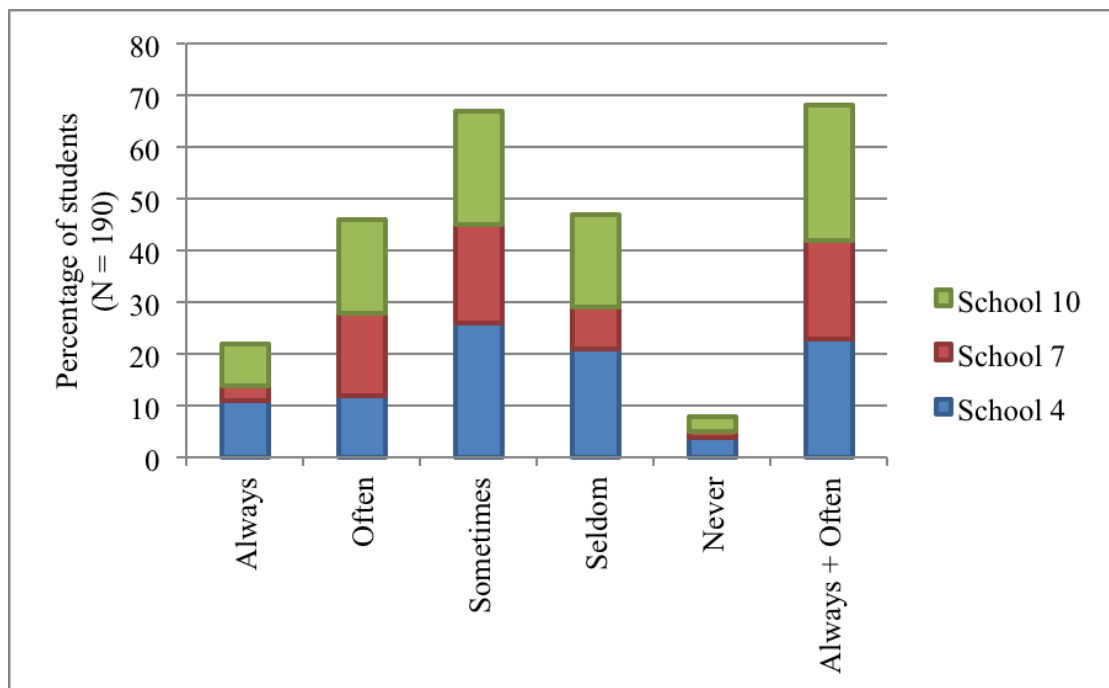
Figure 3. Students' frequency of reading library books

There was little decile difference in home newspaper access, with 75.8% of all respondents indicating regularity. However, there were differences in regular

magazine home access. Overall, 51% indicated regularity, being 39.2% of all school 4 respondents (15.3% of all respondents), 55.3% of school 7's (13.6% of all respondents) and 60.9% of school 10's (22.1% of all respondents). Again, this could be a reflection of the socio-economic levels of each school's community.

3.3 *The Student Survey Procedure*

3.3.1 *Recruiting Student Participants*

I initially contacted the Heads of the English Departments (HODs) in each school and explained the project. This included the plans for the student and teacher surveys, as well as the focus groups and diary procedures, and the teacher interviews. Because the student survey started the iterative participant selection process, led to student invitations to participate in diary and focus group activities, and in turn the selection of teachers for the interviews, it was important that HODs supported the study. English teachers were integral to the dissemination and collection of both the parent and caregiver information and consent letters and those for the students. In addition, the survey was to be administered in English class time by classroom teachers, so having enthusiastic support of the HODs was paramount. They would also be important in providing access to their staff for the teacher survey. All three HODs were tremendously supportive and saw that the study's outcomes might provide guidance on staff professional learning needs, as well as give valuable student reading information that could influence their programmes.

After enlisting HOD support, I approached the school principals. Having HOD support was fundamental to getting principal permission to approach students and teachers. All three principals granted permission. The next step was to explain the study to the English teachers. I visited each department at a staff meeting. The teacher

survey was completed at these meetings and this process is explained in Chapter Five. In addition, I explained the student survey procedure and the importance of both parental consent and student assent. I would deliver the parent information and consent letters in class bundles to the teachers and was reliant on them distributing and collecting these. Their time and support at this point was essential to getting students to participate in the research.

There was no dilemma of what to do with non-assenting students while participants completed the survey in class time. To preserve anonymity of participants from non-participants, the ethical considerations of the project dictated that all students would do the survey, but only surveys from those who gave assent and whose parents had given consent would be used in the analysis. However, each survey was not anonymous to me. Students named their surveys so that those selected for the diary and focus groups could be identified and so that consents and assents could be matched to surveys. Student assents were completed at the time of the survey. It was not until the surveys were completed that I knew how many students were participants in the study. There was only one time that the survey would be handled in each class, so any absent students would not be followed up.

3.3.2   *The Student Survey Response Rate*

At school 4 there were a possible 14 classes that could participate. A further two classes, which the HOD called "Alternative Learning" classes, were not participating because he deemed that they would struggle with returning consents and to read and complete the survey in one class session. Two teachers were anxious about their class programme being disrupted so they decided that they would not participate. This left 12 classes comprising 351 students. Throughout the week when consents were distributed to classes, I emailed each teacher daily reminding them to check for

returns and thanking them for their time in following this up. At the end of the week I visited the school and uplifted the consent forms. I followed this same process for each school. Seventy-six parental consents were received at school 4. After students completed the survey and handed in their assents, two students out of this 76 had not given their assent. This gave 74 participants at school 4. This was a 21% response rate for school 4 (or, 97.3% of students with parental consent).

At school 7 there were a possible 14 classes that could participate. One of these was similar to the school 4 "Alternative Learning" class and the HOD decided that they would not participate. One teacher of two Year 10 classes was experiencing some difficulties, so the HOD decided not to place more demands on her. Another did not want her programme "disrupted." This left 10 classes to approach. However, before the process got underway, another teacher went on sick leave and the HOD did not want anything additional on the replacement relief teacher. This left nine classes with 235 students. After consent and assent processes, 47 student surveys were eligible for the research. This was a 20% response rate for school 7 (and 100% of students who had parental consent).

At school 10 there were 11 classes and one of these was a "Learning Support" class and did not participate. Also, there was one teacher who decided that his class could not spare the time. Over the remaining nine classes there were 265 students and 69 had both parent consent and student assent. This was a 26% response rate for school 10 (and 100% of students who had parental consent).

In all of the schools there were teachers who received only a few student consent forms, whereas others had nearly 50% returned. I noted that teachers whose classes had higher number of returns, were also those who responded to my emails and asked questions about the project. It appears that teacher enthusiasm and follow-

up might have affected response rates. The ethical need for students under the age of 16 to have signed parental consent as well as assenting themselves also affected response rates. In total, over the three schools, there was the possibility of 851 survey participants, with 190 finally participating. This gave a response rate of 22.3%. While recommendations for research response rates vary, it has been posited that 30% is reasonable (Bailey, 1991). Babbie asserts that response rates are a "guide to the representativeness of the sample respondents" (Babbie, 2010, p. 272). In section 3.2.2 I have shown how the survey respondents are representative of their school populations. The need for parent consent and the reliance on third parties to follow up the collection of these consents is at the heart of the response rate for the student survey. Low response rates can sometimes be attributed to poorly designed surveys, bad timing and so on. However, it is apparent that gaining written parental consent can be an issue. Only two students did not give their assent after parental consents were received. The response rate is not indicative of the survey quality, as has been posited (Czaja & Blair, 2005), because the survey was not seen until after consent procedures had been finalised.

Above, I have calculated response rates based on the population made available to me *by the schools.* If, however, the survey response rate is calculated on the population made available to me *by the schools and by parental consents,* then a different picture emerges. There were 192 parental consents and 190 participants, giving a response rate of 99% based on parental consents received. For each school, this gives a response rate of 100% for schools 7 and 10 and 97.4% for school 4.

The process of gaining consent demonstrated the drawbacks of 'outsider' research and having no contact with the participants in this phase of the study, and the role teachers can have as 'gatekeepers'. Ethical approval was granted for this phase of

the project with the proviso that parents or guardians gave consent. There was, therefore, a reliance on teachers giving out the consent material, it reaching homes, parents signing and it being taken back to school to teachers and then passed on to me. Consequently, the number of consent forms not returned did not necessarily equate with dissent. Also, HODs and teachers had made decisions about particular classes and whether they would be approached to participate, denying these students and their parents the right to decide on their own behalf. Heath, Charles, Crow, and Wiles (2007) argue that "the right of gatekeepers to give or withhold access is in practice often conflated with the right to give or withhold consent, even though gatekeepers have no legal powers to give or withhold consent on their charges' behalf" (p. 405).

Similar difficulties have been reported in other rigorous studies with similar consent mechanisms. In their study of children's views of risk of accidents, Green and Hart (1997, 1998, 1999) report the impact of parental "opt in" on sample size. When discussing this "good" ethical practice and sample representativeness, they assert that "schools are one environment where a hierarchy of gate-keepers may influence the sampling process: local education authorities, head teachers, class teachers and parents, for instance, may have unpredictable effects on the group composition" (Green & Hart, 1999, p. 31). Despite this, as evidenced in at least these three publications, their study has been widely reported and also used as an example of rigorous focus group research (Barbour & Kitzinger, 1999). At this point, I am reminding the reader that the results of the student survey are for *this sample and no other,* yet results might reveal out-of-school text selections and behaviours that apply to many New Zealand Year 10 students. I have thoroughly reported the process of recruiting the students and, as stipulated by Bartlett, Kotrlik, and Higgins (2001), I am

now "allowing the reader to make his or her own judgements as to whether they accept the researcher's assumptions and procedures" (p. 49).

3.4 *Analysis of the Student Survey*

I coded and entered answers to the closed *yes*/*no* questions and those using frequency scales into SPSS. Each survey was given a code identifying school, class and participant. This enabled me to locate the surveys of the students later selected for focus group and diary activities, and perform analysis by school. Data were entered school-by-school and class-by-class. For the open questions each different response was given a code. For instance, question two (section two) asked "what sorts of books do you like reading?" and each text type students mentioned was coded and became a variable for analysis. The exception to this coding was in question one (section two), where students were asked whether they had read books in the past week (*yes* or *no*) and then "if yes, write in the title, author, or a specific topic you read about." This was a consistency check and to alert students that there would be follow up questions for some of their responses. Answers to this were coded as *able* or *not able* to respond. Any non-responses to questions were entered as a "999" and during data entry I checked for "domain errors" (Bethlehem, 2009, p. 182) – for instance students ticking both *yes* and *no* options. There were no occurrences of this.

3.5 *The Reliability and Validity of the Student Survey Processes*

The student survey had been piloted not just for question ease but also for completion time. The piloting involved 27 students. This was well within the range advocated by Simmons (2008), who says "in a proposed survey of 2000 respondents, the pilot sample should include between 10 and 20 respondents" (p. 203). The pilot resulted in

the changes to the MRQ as reported in section 3.1.2. Pilot feedback on the layout, and the question order and formats, was positive, and contributed to the "content validity" (Fink, 2009, p. 44). There were clear sections and numbering and questions were not split over pages. The use of both open and closed questions meant that there were consistency checks (Bethlehem, 2009). These were worded to not require precise recall over a long time (for instance, there were no questions like "how many novels have you read this year?"), heeding warnings about memory-based questions (Arksey & Knight, 1999). The open questions avoided being over precise or imprecise, having response overlap, or being complex, composite or awkwardly phrased and elaborate, all of which are "common faults in questionnaire design" (Scott & Usher, 1999, p. 67). When questions asked for periodicity I avoided options such as "often" and "frequently", and opted for more specific categories such as *about once a week* or *every day*, thus avoiding different words meaning different things to different respondents (Bethlehem, 2009; Simmons, 2008). The pilot respondents reported no difficulty understanding the questions, and I was satisfied that question phrasing meant "a wide range of respondents can understand" and that "it is easy for them to see how they can record their responses" (Simmons, 2008, p. 185). I avoided leading questions (J. Doyle, n.d.) and did not force students to choose between options that might not be exhaustive (Cargan, 2007; Jolliffe, 1986). Writing about validity in reading preference surveys, Worthy et al. (1999) point out that the validity:

> is dependent upon the inclusion of materials that are aligned with participants' actual preferences. This may be difficult to accomplish because the number of materials included is necessarily limited and because there may be a mismatch between what adults perceive as students' preferences and what students actually prefer. (p. 15)

Therefore, for instance, instead of asking students if they read graphic novels or providing lists from which students could choose different text forms they read, I

asked respondents to list the types themselves. These then became variables for analysis. Also, students were reminded several times in the survey that "reading" included online reading. I considered question order, with questions related to different texts or behaviours being clumped together. Many writers on survey methodology recommend this approach (Bethlehem, 2009; J. Doyle, n.d.; Fanning, 2005; Jolliffe, 1986; Simmons, 2008), with one asserting that this "will improve the quality of the data collected" (Bethlehem, 2009, p. 55). The demographic questions came first because, as de Vaus (2002) argues, easily answered and factual questions should be the first ones that participants encounter. This attention to "the questions that are asked, the ways in which they are phrased and the order in which they are placed" (Simmons, 2008, p. 183) contributed to the survey's validity.

One threat to the survey reliability was the survey administration. While "one of the fundamental objectives" of administration is to "maximize the return rate" (Gray, 2004, p. 208) - and only two of those with parental consent did not give assent - the survey itself was administered by classroom English teachers. Although each had the same instructions, there was no check that administration was the same across all classrooms. However, the time to complete the survey and the survey itself was the same for all participants. That is, the standardisation was based on every student being "asked precisely the same question in the same way … so that any differences between respondents aren't due to differences in application" (Sapsford, 2007, p. 107). The survey pilot revealed it would take a whole one-hour class to complete the survey, so it might be safely assumed that there was little time for teachers to veer from the instructions. Analysis also showed that the participants completed the survey. I did all of the coding of responses.

These factors contribute to the reliability. Furthermore, I have been careful to alert readers to the consequences of the ethical procedures undertaken and the impact of schools and teachers as "gatekeepers" on the final group of survey participants. Moreover, I have shown that other studies with similar gatekeeping effects have had rigorous results. Several researchers emphasise the importance of giving detailed accounts of procedures as pivotal to reliability and trustworthiness (Kirk & Miller, 1986; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

As reported, changes to the MRQ section of the survey were made after the pilot. This reduced the potential threat of lowering the response rate and avoided sampling bias, but still retained the ability to see emerging patterns. While this change meant results could not be generalised to other populations, it has been argued that basing a definition of generalisability on universality "is problematic and bears little relevance to educational research whose goal is to understand behaviour and relationships as they operate in local context" (Hartas, 2010, p. 77). I make no claims to the generalisability of the student survey results, but they could be "transferable" to other students in similar contexts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

3.6 *The Student Survey Findings*

3.6.1 *Student Book Reading and Preferences*

The week prior to taking the survey, 81% (154, *N*=190) of the respondents indicated that they had read books and of these only three were unable to name a title, author or topic for this reading. More females (86.2% of the 109 females) than males (74% of the 81 males) had read books in that week. While school and other requirements might dictate some of this reading, 58.4% of the respondents indicated that they had read a book for their own interest *about once a week* or more, with 42.6% indicating

that they read books for their own interest *almost everyday* or *every day*. More females than males read *about once a week* or more, with 69 of the 109 girls doing this (63.3%) compared to 42 of the 81 boys (52% of the boys). For students identifying as Korean (10 students), 80% had read for interest in the past week, followed by 66.7% of the Pakeha (87 students) and 66.7% of the European (6 students). However, the small numbers in different ethnic groupings makes it difficult to draw conclusions from this. There was not a great difference in each school's percentage of students reading books for interest for the *past week*. At school 4 (*n*=74) 74.3% of students had, at school 7 (*n*=47) 85.2% and at school 10 (*n*=69) 85.5%. It might be expected that these percentages would be higher, given that each school operated a wide reading programme and that school 4 had wide reading every day. School 4 responses showed 36.5% reading *almost every day* or *every day*. This alerted me to prompt discussion in focus group sessions about the efficacy of these programmes.

Nearly 60% of the students indicated they read a book for their own interest *about once a week* or more. However, 12.6% indicated they *never* or *almost never* read a book for interest and 29% indicated that they did leisure reading *about once a month. Ov*er 41%, then, were reading for pleasure infrequently. There was a marked difference over the three schools. While schools 10 and 7 had few respondents reading *never* or *almost never* (7.2% and 4.2%, respectively), at school 4 nearly a quarter (23%) of this school's participants indicated this. Again, I needed to follow this up with the school 4 focus group who had a daily wide reading programme.

This infrequent book reading for interest reflects data from international studies. The most recent large-scale international study on students' leisure reading is the 2009 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). Administered

under the auspices of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) with 34 OECD countries and 31 partner countries participating, and having reading as its main focus, between 4,500 and 10,000 "15-year-olds" (those between 15 years 3 months and 16 years 2 months) in each country (a total of 470,000 students) were surveyed (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2010). Mainly using agreement, frequency and time scales, students were asked about their attitudes towards reading, how often they read various texts, and the time they spent reading for enjoyment. On average, 31% read fiction for enjoyment and "fewer students reported reading for enjoyment in 2009 compared to 2000. This decline was seen in most countries that participated in PISA in both years" (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2010, p. 74). Other studies support these findings of a decline in students' book reading for leisure (Clark & Rumbold, 2006; Rampey et al., 2009; Sullivan & Brown, 2013), although this is not a new phenomenon (Greaney, 1987; Whitehead, Capey, Maddren, & Wellings, 1977). The New Zealand 2009 PISA data showed very little decline, with 69% of New Zealand students reading books for enjoyment daily, but 10% never or almost never reading fiction (Telford, 2013). My survey had a higher percentage of respondents indicating less daily reading for enjoyment and a slightly higher percentage indicating that they *never* or *almost never* read for leisure.

A higher percentage of females than males indicated that they had read for interest in the survey week and that they read regularly (once a week or more). These are unsurprising gender differences. The New Zealand 2009 PISA results showed boys were more likely to regard reading negatively, about half read only if they had to and a quarter of them regarded reading as "a waste of time" (Telford, 2013, p. 21). Additionally, "well over one-third of New Zealand boys (41%) never read for

enjoyment on a daily basis – close to twice the percentage of girls (22%)" (Telford, 2013, p. 23). This gender gap exists internationally and is not a new phenomenon (Brozo et al., 2014; Johnsson-Smaragdi & Jonsson, 2006; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2010). However, it should be noted that many have warned against making assumptions about boys' enjoyment reading based on books only, suggesting that they are "differently committed leisure readers" (Hamston & Love, 2005, p. 183), that book reading is constructed as a "girl appropriate activity" (Millard, 1997, p. 42), or as non-masculine (Dutro, 2003), that what boys read is often invisible (Alvermann, 2001; Hall & Coles, 1999), and that some boys "resist appropriating family reading dispositions which privilege selected print-based materials invested with a school approved form of cultural capital" (Love & Hamston, 2003, p. 161). For this reason, my survey went beyond book reading and was to be followed by the student diary activity and focus group conversations to capture non-book reading activities.

In my student survey, when students listed the "sorts of books" they liked reading, every different response was recorded as a variable. For reporting percentages of student choices, I have collated some similar text forms together. This meant that 21 different categories emerged, some of which could overlap each other. For instance, categories such as "horse books," "romance," "mystery" and so on, could possibly also be "novels". While appreciating that this was a possibility when I devised the survey, I was keen not to restrict student choices by supplying a tick list. Table 6 shows the ways in which the students described their reading preferences and also demonstrates the types of books that were popular with them.

Interestingly, no students put graphic novels, manga or "series" when recording the "sorts of books" they read for interest, despite other researchers

presenting evidence that this age group enjoys these (Hughes-Hassell & Rodge, 2007; Manuel, 2012; Worthy et al., 1999), and low numbers mentioned humour, in contrast to one recent study (Scholastic Inc, 2015). A slightly different picture emerged in the focus group conversations, perhaps showing that when answering a survey at school, they concentrated on what they perceived as school-sanctioned reading.

Table 6

Students' Text Choices for Interest Reading

Student listed text types	Number and percentage of students (*N*=190)	Number and percentage of males listing text type (*n*=81)	Number of females listing text type (*n*=109)
Action, adventure, spy	61 (31.9%)	31 (38.3%)	30 (27.5%)
Novels	60 (31.4%)	16 (19.8%)	44 (40.4%)
Romance, love	41 (21.5%)	2 (2.5%)	39 (35.6%)
Fantasy	39 (20.4%)	11 (13.6%)	28 (25.7%)
Thrillers, suspense, mystery, detective	38 (19.9%)	13 (16%)	25 (23%)
Horror	25 (13.1%)	6 (7.4%)	19 (17.4%)
Nonfiction	21 (11%)	10 (12.3%)	11 (10.1%)
Biographies	15 (7.9%)	7 (8.6%)	8 (7.3%)
Science fiction	13 (6.8%)	7 (8.6%)	6 (5.5%)
Drama, tragedy	12 (6.3%)	1 (1.2%)	11 (10.1%)
Comic books	12 (6.3%)	9 (11.1%)	3 (2.8%)
Humour, comedy	11 (5.8%)	4 (5%)	7 (6.4%)
Graphic novels	9 (4.7%)	4 (5%)	5 (4.6%)
Sports books	8 (4.2%)	6 (7.4%)	2 (1.8%)
Military, war books	6 (3.1%)	2 (2.5%)	4 (3.7%)
Classics	6 (3.1%)	3 (3.7%)	2 (1.8%)
Picture books	4 (2.1%)	1 (1.2%)	3 (2.8%)
Ghost and vampire	3 (1.6)	1 (1.2%)	2 (1.8%)
Bible, religious books	3 (1.6%)	1 (1.2%)	2 (1.8%)
Horse books	2 (1%)	0	2 (1.8%)
Cooking books	2 (1%)	0	2 (1.8%)

Books that had action, adventure and dealt with spying were the most popular, followed by those with romance and love interest themes. There were, however, distinct gender differences for this latter group, being preferred mainly by females. Both of these findings accord with previous research which have shown little change over the last two decades (Hopper, 2005; Manuel & Robinson, 2002, 2003; Moffitt &

Wartella, 1991; Rennie & Patterson, 2010), with further longitudinal data (2006 –

2010) showing similar findings (Manuel, 2012). The females in my study also

indicated enjoyment for thrillers, suspense, mystery and detective works, which, if

coupled with the male preference for action and adventure, could be a useful indicator

to teachers when selecting books for class study. "Novels" were the second most

popular type of book (with 31.4%), but again gender differences showed 19.8% of the

males (n=81) enjoying them and 40.4% (n=109) of the females – a difference also

found by Rennie and Patterson (2010). It might be that some students interpret novels

as either being "chick lit" (a category that did not feature in responses), and this might

explain the difference in gender preferences, or they may have assumed their novel

reading had been covered in their other response (for instance, when indicating

"suspense"), or they may have equated "novels" with the books that teachers choose

for students (as their class novel study). Nonetheless, overall, a third of the students

read novels, similar to the finding of Moje et al. (2008), who found 30.2% of their

youth read novels three to four times a week or more and that novels were "central to

youth reading" (p. 125). In their study of similarly aged students, females also

indicated spending a far greater time reading novels than the males. Other gender

comparisons can be seen in Figure 4.

Taking the top five most popular interest reading text types, the gender

differences for each show the challenge teachers have in selecting texts for in-class

study that will appeal to all students in a class, if only offering one text.

3.6.2 *Student Reading of Comics and Magazines*

When students indicated the "sorts of books" they liked to read, 12 (*N*=190, 6.3%) put

comic books. Nine of these were males and ten were from school 4. No student

indicated reading magazines in this survey question, which might signal that students
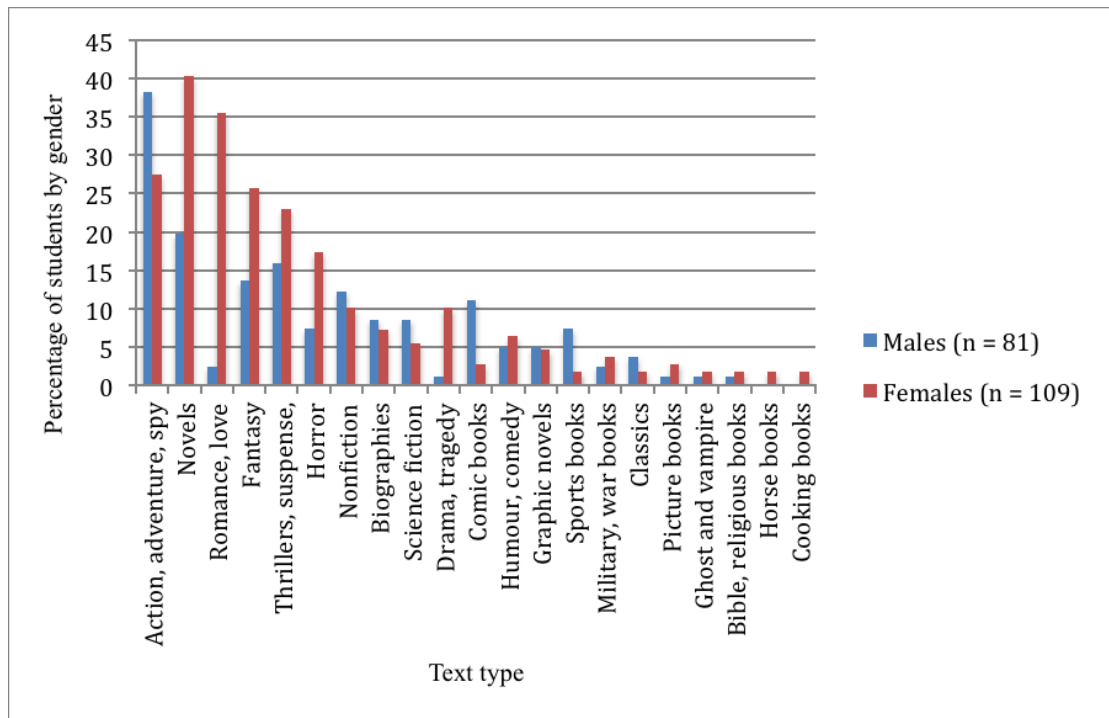
Figure 4. Text choices for interest reading by gender

saw comics, but not magazines, as "books." A different picture emerged when students indicated their comic and magazine reading frequency. The week prior to the survey, 121 respondents (72.5%) indicated that they had read a comic or magazine. There were decile and gender differences, with 72.5% of the school 10 students reading these in the past week, compared to 59.5% of the school 4 students and 57.4% of the school 7 students, and 70.6% of all females and 54.3% of males. Comic or magazine reading frequency showed 24.2% *never* or *almost never* read them, 35.8% read them *about once a month*, 30.5% *about once a week*, 5.8% *almost every day* and 3.7% *every day*. That is, 40% (76 students) read comics or magazines at least once a week. These frequencies were higher than the 2009 PISA results for New Zealand (Telford, 2013), where 21% of the respondents read magazines several times a week and 25% about once a month. The PISA report also showed that between 2000 and 2009 there was a decrease in the magazine reading of our 15-year-olds, with the

decrease for males being double that of the females. Again, my students did not align with the New Zealand 2009 PISA data.

Compared to 27.2% of the males (*n*=81), 42.2% of the females (*n*=109) read magazines or comics *about once a month*. There were minimal gender differences in reading these texts *about once a week* (30.3% of the females and 30.9% of the males) and *at least once a week* (39.4% of the females and 40.7% of the males). Numbers for reading comics and magazines for the week preceding the survey administration were higher than those reported as their usual weekly frequency. Slightly more males than females read magazines *once a week*, similar to Australian findings when surveying 69, 12 – 15 year-olds (Rennie & Patterson, 2008). Over half of these Australian students read magazines regularly. My results showed females to be more frequent readers of magazines overall. Other international studies of similarly aged students have also found females more likely magazine readers than males (e.g., Hughes-Hassell and Rodge (2007) in the United States, and Clark et al. (2005) and Hopper (2005) in England). My finding reflects the New Zealand 2009 PISA results, where 48% of the males and 59% of the females were reading magazines "at least several times a month" (Telford, 2013, p. 32). These are, however, higher percentages than my more recent survey. My data support the contention that magazine reading could be declining in this age group.

There were definite differences amongst the schools. At school 4, 23% of the read comics and magazines *about once a week*, 29.8% at school 7 and 36.2% at school 10. This pattern was repeated when *about once a week, almost every day* and *every day* were added together to show the frequency of weekly comic and magazine reading. Frequency increased as decile rating increased, perhaps because of ease of access. Decile ten students might have more home access, and both the decile ten and

seven schools operated wide reading programmes in the school library with magazine access, while the decile four had their wide reading programme in classrooms. It is interesting to note that 36.4% of the decile four students had indicated that English was not their home language. This alerted me to investigate in the focus groups whether students with a non-English home language perceived school as acknowledging their mother tongue reading choices, and whether this perception of what school values, affected their reading choices.

The five favourite topics that students wrote they enjoyed reading about in magazines were celebrities (N=190, 29.3%), gossip columns (25.7%), nonfiction articles including documentary articles and articles on global issues (21.5%), fashion (17.3%) and sports (13.1%). Again, there were gender differences in these preferences, with the females (n=109) reading about celebrities (47.7%), the gossip columns (38.5%), fashion (28.4%), nonfiction articles (23%) and sports (2.7%). The males favoured sports articles (27.2%), nonfiction articles (19.8%), the gossip columns (8.7%), reading about celebrities (5%) and fashion (2.5%). The topics that students read about in magazines were also topics many followed up on the Internet (61.5% of all respondents), although more males (66.7% of the males) than females (57.8% of the females) did this, and more students at school 10 (68.1%) compared with 57.8% of respondents at each of the other schools. These gender differences demonstrate the challenge that teachers in co-educational classrooms have in choosing texts for study from magazines that will build on students' interests.

3.6.3 *Student Computer and Internet Activity*

In the week preceding the survey, 95.8% of the students had used the Internet, with males and females responding similarly (96.3% of the males and 95.4% of the females). At school 10 all students had been online in that week and at the other

schools over 90% had. This high usage reflects earlier research from the United States that found 93% of teens (those 12 - 17 years-of-age in a survey of nearly 1,000) were Internet users (Lenhart et al., 2007). A frequency scale in my survey revealed that nearly 79% regularly used the Internet *everyday* or *almost every day*, with 72 students (37.9%, *N*=190) accessing *every day*. Seven (3.7%) students indicated that they were infrequent users, *never* or *almost never* going online. An additional four students (2.1%) indicated use *about once a month*. More males (86.4%, *n*=81) than females (70.6%, *n*=109) accessed the Internet *almost every day* or *every day*, with those from school 10 (85.5%, *n*=69) being more frequent users than those from school 4 (79.7%, *n*=74) and school 7 (68.1%, *n*=47).

When students wanted to explore something they enjoyed (such as sport, music or how to do something connected to an interest), 75% did this on a website rather than consulting a book or magazine. Students used the Internet mostly at home, with only five indicating that they mainly used school facilities and another five that they mainly got access elsewhere. Six of these ten students were from school 4 and the demographic data showed that they did not have an Internet connection at home. School access was, therefore, critical for these students.

When students reported their frequency of school computer use, regardless of whether this was for enjoyment or for class work, 30% *never* or *almost never* used them, 27.4% used them *about once a month*, 33.1% *about once a week* and 9.5% used them *almost every day* or *every day*. That is, 57.4% of the students used computers irregularly (about once a month or less) during school time.

The main activities students did on school computers were researching (61%) and writing school assignments for homework (54.8%). Ten other activities were mentioned but fewer than 10% of students engaged in these. Some subject areas were

referred to, with 9.5% of the students using online games for Mathematics (in schools 4 and 10) and 5.3% going online for work in subject classes for Information and Communication Technology and Media Studies (in school 4). Some students mentioned using Photoshop (4.2%), Excel (3.2%) and PowerPoint (4.7%). Again, these were students from schools 4 and 10.

Curriculum subject teachers are evidently not heavily involved with working with students on their digital and critical online literacy. That students' reported irregular computer use raised questions for me to ask the focus group students about whether English teachers were validating digital text as school reading material and whether critical information literacy skills and Internet research strategies were being explicitly taught.

I was interested in whether the students thought their English teachers used the Internet and what made them think this. This survey question was included to see if teachers modelled online information literacy skills and used online texts via data shows, even if students themselves had irregular computer use at school. A total 88.8% of the students thought their teachers used the Internet. Of the students at school 4, 80.8% thought this, compared to 93.6% of the school 7 students and 94.2% of the school 10 students. Eleven different reasons emerged as to why students thought their English teachers used the Internet. These ranged from speculation such as "I am guessing," "she's smart/has lots of ideas," "she's young," "everyone does/teachers do," "he/she is a nerd/seems like she does," "I don't know/I never see," "she says she does," "has a laptop," "to get information to prepare our lessons," to the observable "uses a computer in class" and "to get books." A relatively small percentage overall (17.9%) said that the teacher used a computer in class but there was no additional information on what this entailed. For instance, it could be to check

the class roll or to model information-seeking strategies and use online text for class work. This was something to explore in the focus groups and teacher interviews but, nonetheless, this was a small percentage of students who saw their teachers using a computer in class (12.2% of the school 4 students, 7.2% of the school 10 students although 42.4% of the school 7 students). Such a low percentage might also go some way to explaining the 2009 New Zealand ICT PISA results, where New Zealand 15-year-olds were "slightly less confident than the OECD average" (Kirkham, 2011, p. 28).

Given the low student reportage of teacher computer use in class, it was not surprising that only 4.2% of the students (8 of the 190) said that it was a teacher who had taught them the most about using the Internet. Adults at home (36.8%), a sibling (26.4%), a friend (14.2%) or someone else (18.4%) had done this. Whether this "teaching" adequately explored the full potential of the Internet, and enabled students to develop the information literacy skills necessary for effective online researching and reporting, needed further scrutiny in the focus groups.

Only three students (male) indicated that they did not use a search engine when finding information on the Internet and 92.6% of the students used the Internet beyond "finding out information." Nineteen activities beyond information seeking emerged when students wrote their activities. These reflected those they had listed as Internet activity in the last week, a previous checking question. Students' activities beyond information seeking are in Table 7.

There was variety in what students said they did online. They were readers, listeners, viewers, writers, speakers and, in the case of many online games, possibly designers (Gee, 2003). Social networking (for instance via facebook.com) was the most popular online activity apart from information seeking. Using email and instant

chat were popular, demonstrating that these students, when not researching information, used the Internet substantially for social interaction and seeking connection, particularly the females. The New Zealand digital reading results for 15-year-olds in the 2009 PISA also showed that "girls carried out online social activities more frequently than boys" (Kirkham, 2011, p. 26). No students mentioned other social networking activities such as using Twitter, Blogger or Delicious, reinforcing other studies showing that these activities are largely the preserve of older age groups (e.g., pingdom.com, 2012).

Table 7

Students' Online Activities Beyond Information Seeking

Student listed activities	Number and percentage of students (*N*=190)	Number and percentage of males listing activity (*n*=81)	Number of females listing activity (*n*=109)
Using social networking sites	82 (43.2%)	27 (33.3%)	55 (50.5%)
Playing games online	80 (42.1%)	42 (51.9%)	38 (34.9%)
Watching Youtube clips and movies	55 (29%)	28 (34.6%)	27 (24.8%)
Using email	49 (25.8%)	6 (7.4%)	43 (39.4%)
Instant chatting	32 (16.8%)	7 (8.6%)	25 (22.9%)
Downloading music	21 (11.1%)	7 (78.6%)	14 (12.8%)
Listening to music	18 (9.5%)	9 (11.1%)	9 (8.3%)
Shopping and using auction sites like Trademe	12 (6.3%)	6 (7.4%)	6 (5.5%)
Accessing pictures and illustrations	10 (5.3%)	3 (3.7%)	7 (6.4%)
Reading about gaming techniques	6 (3.2%)	5 (6.2%)	1 (0.9%)
Reading blogs	6 (3.2%)	2 (2.5%)	4 (3.7%)
Reading film reviews	6 (3.2%)	4 (4.9%)	3 (2.8%)
Reading sports results and sports news	5 (2.6%)	5 (6.2%)	0
Reading the news	4 (2.1%)	1 (1.2%)	3 (2.8%)
Reading graphic novels	4 (2.1%)	0	4 (3.7%)
Downloading software	3 (1.6%)	3 (3.7%)	0
Reading music reviews	2 (1.1%)	0	2 (1.8%)
Reading games reviews	2 (1.1%)	2 (2.5%)	0
Writing a blog	1 (0.5%)	0	1 (0.9%)

Further questions sought information about this social connectivity. These showed two of the 190 students were not aware of social networking sites (both male and from school 4) and that 29 had not visited them (23% of the males and 9.1% of the females). Those with their own pages made up 73.2% of the students, a higher percentage than those of earlier studies. For example, in 2007 a United Kingdom survey of 13 – 17 year-olds found 55% belonged to a social networking site (Livingstone & Brake, 2010), the same percentage as in the United States (Lenhart et al., 2007). This, perhaps, shows how quickly social networking has increased worldwide.

Again, more females (78.9% of the females surveyed, *n*=109) than males (65.4% of the males, *n*=81) had a social networking profile, with 79.7% of students from school 10 participating compared with 71.6% in school 4 and 66% in school 7. Their pages were visited *daily* or *almost daily* by 41.6% of those with them and 61% visited once a week or more. These findings were lower than those reported in 2008 by the Office of Communications in the United Kingdom (Ofcom, 2008, as cited in Livingstone & Brake, 2010), but higher than the 53% with a social network profile in a recent United States study of 15 – 17 year-olds (Scholastic Inc, 2015). These all seem to indicate that social networking sites such as Facebook might be losing their allure for this age group. About a third (33.5%) in my study *never* or *almost never* visited their page: 39% of the males and 29.6% of the females with a profile. A more recent study maintains "focus group discussions with teens show that they have waning enthusiasm for Facebook" (Madden et al., 2013, p. 2).

Just over a quarter of the students used email, with it more popular with the females. Further questions revealed that 94.7% of the students had a personal email address and 53.5% checked their email *daily* or *almost daily*. Email was not foremost

in their minds when indicating their Internet activity, but specific questions on email use prompted more to respond. Nearly 10% *never* or *hardly ever* checked their email. Females checked more frequently than males, with 84.1% of them checking *at least weekly* compared with 70% of the males.

Playing games online was the second most popular activity, with 51.9% of the males and 34.9% of the females involved. No distinction was made whether these were highly interactive games, played alone or with others online and requiring non-linear reading, creating avatars, and high levels of digital literacy, or games like solitaire not requiring this level of literacy, interaction and creativity. Everyday players made up 4.3% of the students, evenly divided between the genders. However, nearly half of all the students (45.8%) indicated that they *never* or *almost never* played online games. This was a far greater percentage than the 12.6% who indicated *never* or *almost never* reading a book for interest.

Overall, it was information seeking for interest and for school that dominated most of the students' online activity. These students were not exploring the affordances of Web. 2.0 technologies for what has been described as a "participatory culture" (Jenkins, Clinton, Purushotma, Robinson, & Weigel, 2006), involving content "archiving, annotation, appropriation, transformation, and recirculation" (Jenkins, 2003, p. 286). Adopting new social practices for reading and creating text through blogs, fanzines, e-zines or similar citizen journalism text types, making and uploading videos for sharing, podcasting, posting images on Instagram.com (or similar sites) or creating pin boards via archiving and so on, were not a feature of the students' responses. Tools for self-publishing did not seem to be part of their world and this perhaps reinforces the 2009 New Zealand PISA results on our students' ICT

confidence (Kirkham, 2011). From my survey, Year 10 students did not appear to be technologically adept users.

3.6.4 *Student Reading Motivations*

In survey section three, students responded to questions from my revised version of the MRQ (Wang & Guthrie, 2004). My revisions were reminders that reading included digital reading and the additional five items related to online reading (see Chapter Two, section 2.3.1). There were eight sets of items and each set measured a motivational construct (see Figure 1). Each item, to which students had responded with either *yes* or *no*, became a variable for analysis.

Of the 50 items in the MRQ, seven were agreed with by over 80% of the students. No item was agreed with by over 90%. The three top items were within the IM constructs of Involvement and Curiosity. "I make pictures in my head when I read" was agreed with by 89.4% (M=1.11, SD=.309), "I like to read because I always feel happy when I read things of interest to me" (M=1.12, SD=.327), and "I like to read about new things" (M=1.16, SD=.372). The remaining four items showed that having someone recognise that they are good at reading and finding information (83.3%, M=1.17, SD=.374), telling friends about interesting websites (81.9%, M=1.18, SD=.386), being able to read difficult material if a project is interesting (81.2%, M=1.19, SD=.392) and trying to finish reading on time (80.6%, M=1.19, SD=.396), were also important motivational items for the students. While over 80% of the students agreed that they could read difficult material if their project was interesting, fewer (75.8%) agreed that if what they were reading was interesting, they did not care how hard it was, drawing a distinction between project topic interest and text interestingness.

The means of each construct showed that the intrinsic Curiosity construct and the extrinsic Recognition were the greatest motivational constructs of the eight, for this group. The least motivating construct was the extrinsic Social followed equally by extrinsic Competition and intrinsic Involvement.

The five items with which students agreed the least were "I often like to read to my brother or sister or younger children" (22.9%, $M=1.77$, $SD=.421$), "I feel like I make friends with people in good books" (24.5%, $M=1.76$, $SD=.431$), "I feel like I make friends when I am online" (25.5%, $M=1.74$, $SD=.437$), "I like to visit the library often with people from home" (28.2%, $M=1.72$, $SD=.451$) and "I like to work on the computer with people from home" (31.9%, $M=1.68$, $SD=.492$). The latter three items are not surprising, given that the students had already indicated information seeking dominated their online activities, and that the adolescent years are often characterised in the western world as moving from spending time with family (Larson, Richards, Moneta, Holmbeck, & Duckett, 1996). Three of these five items are from the extrinsic Social construct and the other two from the intrinsic Involvement construct. The next two least favoured items were also from the extrinsic Social construct and perhaps this indicates that the students have not been exposed to how reading might be a social activity. The social aspects of reading are further explored in the focus group discussions.

Over 75% of the students responded positively to the four items concerning compliments for reading. These items related to teachers saying they read well, getting reading compliments, being happy when someone recognises they are good at reading and finding information. When it came to the motivational ability of marks, 67.2% ($M=1.33$, $SD=.471$) thought that marks demonstrated how well they were doing in reading and 79% ($M=1.21$, $SD=.408$) looked forward to their English subject

marks. Yet, fewer liked people at home asking about their English marks (47.9%, M=1.52, SD=.501), fewer read and researched online to improve their marks (52.1%, M=1.48, SD=.501) and fewer liked being the best at reading and reading assignments (53.5%, M=1.46, SD=.50). They liked positive feedback on their reading but did not necessarily see good marks as being the same as compliments. One conclusion that might be drawn from this is that they liked compliments not on their *writing* about their reading or via other reading assessments but, rather, on their *actual* reading.

3.6.4.1   *Reading motivation by gender*

Only slightly different patterns emerged when I split the data along gender lines. When I looked at what motivated the males, of the 50 items within the MRQ constructs, seven were agreed with by 80% or more of the boys (n=81). None of the items within the EM constructs of Compliance, Marks and Social were agreed with to this extent. The highest male item in the Competition EM construct was "I try to get more answers right than my friends" (88.8%, M=1.11, SD=.318). Other items within the Competition construct scored less well, showing that "matey" competition was more motivating than being the "best", which was another item. There were negligible differences between the other items agreed to by over 80% or more of the boys (80% to 83.8%). Five items were in the IM constructs and two in EM constructs, and three of them were in the IM Curiosity. The boys were intrinsically motivated by challenging reads if a project interested them, but three items in the Curiosity construct had over 80% agreement. "I like to read because I always feel happy when I read things of interest to me" (81.5%, M=1.19, SD=.391), "I have favourite subjects that I like to read about" (83.8%, M=1.16, SD=.371) and "I read to learn new information about topics that interest me" (82.3%, M=1.18, SD=.384). This gives a clear message to teachers that not only do texts that align with boy's interests

motivate them but, perhaps more importantly, teachers need to know what these interests are. The boys also liked recognition that they were good at reading and finding information.

The data from the girls (*n*=109) showed two of the EM items within Social and Compliance were agreed to by over 80% of the girls. Fewer than 80% of boys had agreed with any of the items in these constructs, supporting other findings about girls' motivation (Mucherah & Yoder, 2008; Unrau & Schlackman, 2006). These items were "I always try to finish my reading on time" (83% agreement, *M*=1.17, *SD*=.377) and "My friends and I like to tell each other about interesting websites to go to" (81.9%, *M*=1.15, *SD*=.358). Like the boys, the items in Marks did not motivate the girls, and they also liked being recognised as being good at reading and finding information. Items in the IM Curiosity construct, too, motivated them, but they were not motivated to the same extent by competition with their friends. Similar to the boys, the Curiosity construct contained more items scoring agreement for 80% or more of the girls. Although below 80% agreement, it was interesting to note that 78.5% (*M*=1.22, *SD*=.414) of the boys and 79.4% (*M*=1.21, *SD*=.406) of the girls looked forward to finding out their subject English marks.

3.6.4.2   *Very frequent readers' motivations by gender*

I looked for any gender differences for those students who indicated that they read books very frequently (*almost every day* or *every day*) for their own interest. I chose students this way, because it is posited that book reading is a consistent predictor of variations in a variety of reading skills (e.g., Spear-Swerling et al., 2010). Splitting the infrequent readers (who *never* or *almost never* read) by gender gave low numbers (eight girls and 16 boys), so gender comparisons between the very frequent and infrequent readers were not done. Of all boys (*n*=81), 28 indicated they read very

frequently (34.6% of boys), and 39.3% of these were from school 4, 39.3% from

school 7 and 21.4% from school 10. Of the girls (n=109), 53 indicated they read very

frequently (48.62% of the girls), and 30.2% were from school 4, 17.0% from school 7

and 52.5% from school 10. There was a marked difference between the genders

(aligning with international data showing boys were reading less frequently than girls)

and a very marked difference at school 10. I again used the agreement level of 80%.

Both the male and females groups, (of the very frequent readers), were

motivated by the same items in the Challenge construct as the larger gender groups

and by "I like to read because I always feel happy when I read things that interest me"

in the Curiosity construct. However new Curiosity items emerged: "If the teacher

discusses something interesting I might read more about it" (96.4% of the boys,

M=1.04, SD=.189, and 86.8% of the girls, M=1.13, SD=.342) and for the boys "I

have a favourite subject I like to read about" (89.3%, M=1.11, SD=.315) and for the

girls, "I like to read about new things" (96.2%, M=1.04, SD=.192) and "I enjoy

reading about people in different countries" (81.1%, M=1.9, SD=.395). Again, the

boys showed that they liked competing with friends and the girls agreed with no item

in Competition. The Compliance, Social and Recognition items were also the same as

those for the larger groups, but with the frequently-reading girls indicating that they

also liked talking to their friends about what they were reading (Social) and the boys

indicating that they liked to get compliments for their reading (Recognition). Both

groups of frequent readers had higher levels of agreement with items in the

Involvement construct than the larger gender groups. Both frequently-reading groups

agreed, "if I am reading about an interesting topic I sometimes lose track of time," -

supporting assertions that frequent readers are often cognitively engaged (Taboada et

al., 2009) - and for boys "I like to read a lot of adventure" (85.7%, M=1.14, SD=.356),

and for girls "I like mysteries" (90.6%, *M*=1.09, *SD*=.295). As with the larger groups, the very frequent readers looked forward to their English marks. Overall, as with the total male and female groups, the Curiosity construct (IM) had the most items agreed with by 80% or more of the very frequent readers. Perhaps the most telling item revealed by the very frequent readers was the role of teacher talk in motivating their reading.

Overall, there were not great gender differences in the students' motivations, supporting recent research (Wolters, Denton, York, & Francis, 2014) that these differences decrease in adolescence. There were no differences based on the schools' deciles.

One powerful message in these data is that seeking opportunities for complimenting students on their reading by means other than assessments could increase student reading motivation. Building unassessed reading occasions into class programmes, where students can get compliments and encouragement for reading, could have positive affects on reading engagement. Another powerful message is that their interests and the things about which they were curious, motivated these students.

Further investigation of the motivational data of the focus group participants, who were high Internet users as well as readers of books for enjoyment, is reported in the next chapter. What motivates these engaged readers might reveal important actions that need considering in English programmes and classrooms.

3.7 *Conclusion*

Nearly 60% of the participating students had read books for their own interest in the week preceding the survey. However, over 40% reported reading infrequently. Favourite reading topics and genres, whether accessed on paper or online, varied

greatly. Most used the Internet, with research and school assignments being their main computer activities. Social networking and playing online games were popular out-of-school activities, but these Year 10 students were not exploiting the affordances of Web 2.0 for reading and creating texts. What motivated their reading were texts aligned to their interests and the compliments they received about their reading from teachers, friends and family, rather than marks received from assessments – and this was consistent between the genders and over school deciles. These findings suggest that teachers need to look closely at the texts presented to students, ways to encourage their leisure reading and how to provide unassessed opportunities for reading, where teachers can give positive feedback.

New Zealand reading data gathered for international comparison reveal that "the quarter of students who enjoyed reading the most were very strong readers" (Telford, 2013, p. 73) and that these students "reach exceptionally high reading levels" (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2010, p. 66), demonstrating a strong relationship between reading enjoyment and attainment. This, alongside research outlined in Chapter One, presents a powerful argument for encouraging students' leisure reading, given the persistent areas of under achievement for some students in New Zealand PISA data and the evidence that increasing adolescents' leisure reading can lead to literacy gains. There is also evidence that reading for pleasure has a positive effect on students' futures. These present a strong mandate for encouraging adolescent reading enjoyment, motivation and persistence.

The survey also gives evidence that student ICT use in classrooms is low, with 27.4% noting use about once a month and 30% as never or almost never. This poses questions about whether students' online criticality is nurtured by teachers – a

criticality sanctioned in New Zealand curriculum documents but which New Zealand studies have revealed as weak.

The range of students' reading interests, evidenced in my study, poses challenges to English teachers when choosing texts for whole class study, particularly when interest is such a reading motivator. But, it is apparent that teachers need to know what students' interest are. I explore how these reading interests are, or might be, brought into the school gates, and whether any current initiatives are successful, in the focus group discussions.

The students' Internet activity was mainly for information seeking. Therefore, I pursue the students' digital literacy and online information strategies in the focus group conversations and there is discussion on whether these are strengthened by, or integrated into, the activities they do in English classrooms.

This chapter has contributed findings for my study's research questions by providing a broad view of what and how frequently Year 10 students are reading out-of-school. It also gives information on how frequently these Year 10 students use ICTs at school. Gender and socio-economic differences (based on school deciles) in students' out-of-school text choices and reading motivations have been explored, but not those based on ethnicity, because of under-representation. This exploration has added to "the limited research examining group differences" (McGeown, Duncan, et al., 2015, p. 545). In the next chapter I discuss findings from the student focus groups. The focus groups give student voice to, and build on, the findings in this chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

GETTING UP CLOSE AND PERSONAL: STUDENT AMPLIFICATION

Not everything that counts can be counted; and not everything that can be counted counts.

(attributed to Albert Einstein).

Student voices in this chapter amplify the student survey findings and provide student perspectives on their experiences in English programmes. I describe the selection process of these book and digital readers who participate in a 14-day digital diary activity and in focus group conversations. The digital diary, focus group processes, and analysis procedures for both are explained. I then outline the reliability, validity and trustworthiness of the diary and focus groups procedures. I present the digital diary findings, which begins the profile of these students. That profile is then expanded with a consideration of these students' motivations from their student survey data. This is followed by the findings of the focus group discussions. The findings in this chapter give depth to my study's enquiry into students' out-of-school literacy practices, their digital activities and the critical information literacy skills they bring to these. The students also give their perspectives on the opportunities subject English provides for their reading interests and whether these opportunities are successful, engaging or a mismatch with their out-of-school literacy experiences.

4.1 *The Student Diary and Focus Groups Participants*

The students participating in both the diary activity and focus groups were students who indicated in the student survey that they had read books in the past week and who were comparatively high users of Internet text and seekers of information online. I wanted students who not only read page text, but also read online text with its

incorporation of text, sound, images, movement, hyperlinks and nonlinearity. This homogeneity within the focus groups, as advocated by focus group experts, might also contribute to participant compatibility and result in more satisfaction and less anxiety for them (Carey & Smith, 1994; Stewart, Shamdasani, & Rook, 2009) by eliminating the "fear of being different" (Barnett, 2002, p. 2). In addition, the shared interest in online text would allow participants to "explore issues in depth rather than debating them" (Kahan, 2001, p. 143). As Kahan asserts, " the group should be relatively homogeneous with respect to topic of interest, because the objective is to highlight where agreement exists within a group" (p. 130).

Firstly, I selected students who had read books in the past week. I then selected seven survey questions that acted as "screens" (Krueger & Casey, 2000, p. 79). The screens and student responses I accepted were:

- *Have you used the internet in the past week?* Student response *yes*.

- *Write what you did*. Student response *used the internet for research* (or similar response).

- *How often do you go on the internet for your own interest?* Student response *almost everyday* or *everyday*.

- *When you want to read to find out about something you enjoy, do you read a book, a magazine, information on a website or something else? List the types of things that you read.* Student response *information on a website*.

- *Do you have a page on any sites like these [Myspace, Facebook and Bebo]?* Student response *yes*.

- *How often do you go to your page?* Student response *almost everyday* or *everyday*.

- *How often do you check your email?* Student response *once a week, almost everyday* or *everyday.*

I decided, given the focus group literature recommendations for optimum interaction (Cronin, 2008; Krueger & Casey, 2000), that I would aim for groups of six to eight participants and that there would be one group for each school, as per the recommendations of "three or four focus groups with any one type of participant" (Krueger & Casey, 2000, p. 26). When I completed the school 4 selection process, 12 participants emerged. I decided that for this school I would select participants at the upper end of the group size recommendation. Eight participants would be 10.8% of the surveyed school population and this decision then acted as an additional guide when making selection decisions for the other schools. To reduce 12 participants to eight, I added another survey question as a screen: *If you look up information on the internet do you use a search engine (for instance Google)?* I selected those answering *yes*. The same 12 participants were selected. Although not helpful in reducing numbers, it did verify the appropriateness of the initial selection of variables; that is, the sample would be the most experienced and active Internet users and online information seekers. Next, I used SPSS to randomly choose eight of the 12 participants. In case any of the eight declined, I repeated this, choosing one on the four deselected participants, then one from the next three left, and so on. I then had all four deselected students ordered, in case I needed more students.

I applied the initial seven screening questions to the other two schools. This resulted in six participants from school 7 (12.8% of the school's survey respondents) and eight from school 10 (11.5% of survey respondents). School 7 had a higher percentage of total school respondents. Rather than taking a screen question out (and deciding which) and restarting the procedure, and considering that I would have

groups of six to eight, I left the selection as it was. These numbers fell within recommended sizes and, at this stage, I did not plan to analyse the focus groups by school unless I discerned vastly different patterns of responses. I intended to analyse responses together rather than the unit of analysis being each group. It was the shared experiences of the selected students (rather than unique experiences or differences between the groups from each school) that I sought from the focus group and diary data (Fern, 2001; Krueger & Casey, 2000).

Contacting and seeking student agreement is explained in section 4.2.1. Of the students selected, one from school 10 declined to participate. Therefore, I had 21 participants for the diary activity and focus groups, representing 10.8% (*n*=8) of the school 4 survey respondents, 12.8% (*n*=6) of school 7, 10.1% (*n*=7) of school 10 and 11% of all survey participants (*N*=190).

Of the 21 participants, 13 self-identified as Pakeha/European New Zealanders, three as Indian, two as Korean, one as Taiwanese, one as Ethiopian and one as European. Four students indicated that English was not their home's language. Although not intending to conduct analysis by school, there were differences amongst the focus groups. Survey data showed the students' ethnicities reflected the ethnic composition of their schools, with the three Indian participants coming from school 4 and the two Korean participants from school 10. There was also a variation in accessing reading material from the school library, with 71.4% (15) using the library for reading materials and four of the six non-users coming from school 7. About three-quarters (76.2%) of the participants had public library membership and this included 100% of those at school 4 compared to 66.7% at school 7 and 57.1% at school 10. Table 8 illustrates the gender differences for these aspects. These differences meant that, at times, I might need to analyse data by school.

Table 8

Gender Differences in Diary and Focus Group Participants' Survey Results

Survey item	Percentage of all Males (*n*=8)	Percentage of all Females (*n*=13)	Percentage of all Students (*N*=21)
Public library membership	87.5% (7)	81.0% (9)	76.2% (16)
Uses school library to access reading materials	87.5% (7)	61.5% (8)	71.4% (15)
Has done book reading in the past week	87.5% (7)	84.6% (11)	85.7% (18)
Can name the title and author of the book read in the past week	75.0% (6)	84.6% (11)	81.0% (17)
Frequency of reading library books *often/always*	50.0% (4)	23.0% (3)	33.3% (7)
Frequency of reading a book for interest *almost every day/every day*	62.5% (5)	38.5% (5)	47.6% (10)

The student surveys showed what types of books these students enjoyed, with the top choices showing 33.3% enjoyed action and spy books, and 28.6% romance. Again, there were gender differences. Only the girls read romance, horror and humour, while only the boys read books on sport and science fiction. Magazine topic preferences showed the boys opting for computer topics, global issues and music reviews, and the girls for gossip columns, celebrity news and "fashion and beauty" topics. The girls, although readers, accessed school library books less than the boys. These students had indicated, also, that they were more likely to follow up topics of interest on the Web, rather than in books or magazines. They all had used the Internet in the week prior to the survey either for researching for homework activities, for social networking or for both. In short, the diary and focus group participants were "characterized by homogeneity but with sufficient variation ... to allow for contrasting opinions" (Krueger & Casey, 2000, p. 71).

4.2 *The Student Diary Activity and Focus Group Procedure*

I conducted the diary and focus group activity at each school as close to the survey administration as possible. This was so students remembered the survey and realised that the diary and focus group work were part of the same project. Therefore, the diary activity and focus group meetings for each school were at different times of the year. The focus group and diary activity consent process had been completed during the student survey consent process.

4.2.1 *Arranging, Planning and Conducting the Diary Activity*

The English Heads of Department discussed how to contact the 21 selected students. Two advised on the timing of these meetings and offered to initiate contact. In the third school, I sought the help of a Deputy Principal because it was difficult to get a response from the HOD. I met the groups in SSR time (student silent reading time), after their form level assembly and during form meetings; that is, when it did not require their missing instruction or using their own time.

At each meeting I broadly outlined my project and that I was inviting them to participate in both the diary and focus group activities. I explained the 14-day time commitment and that focus group meetings would be at school for an hour after school. I went over the ethical issues and that there was absolutely no compulsion to participate. One student declined to participate.

I gave the booklet-style diaries to students and carefully went through it with them. There was time for students to ask questions and look at the example at the front of the diary. It was vital that students understood "reading" to include their reading of digital text, whether on or offline. I told the students to e-mail or text me at any time with questions and that I would text them reminders. I also had their landline numbers if necessary. One student had no phone contact. After the students

had looked at the diaries, I again confirmed that they were willing to participate and understood that there would be a meeting after school. None declined, in contrast to reported high refusal rates of diary research (Roghmann & Haggerty, 1972).

I chose a 14-day diary period so enough data were gathered, even if students forgot a few times or if there were atypical days - for instance with family commitments, extra homework, school examinations or a day sick. Asking students to do a14-day activity was a risk and this was one reason I wanted to text them. As recommended in the literature, "the period should ideally be long enough to capture the behaviour patterns of interest without putting at risk the completion by making it too much of a burden" (Vermaas & Van De Wijngaert, 2005, p. 124). Additionally, I hoped that by texting them a relationship would be established that would encourage rapport in the focus group meetings. Over the 14-day period for each group, a text relationship did develop between many of the students and me. For instance, after the first evening with the first group, students were texting back, wishing me a "gr8" weekend and so on. I think this had a positive effect, not just on the completion of the diaries, but also on a relaxed start to the focus groups. Students and researcher were not strangers. Interestingly, the one student who did not complete the diary or attend a later focus group, was the only student who was unavailable by phone.

The diaries, in their A5 format, were designed for ease-of-use, durability and portability. Others had stressed that "the appearance of the diary itself was important" (Vermaas & Van De Wijngaert, 2005, p. 131) to motivate participants. The diaries looked professional with spiral binding and an appealing cover, to show the students this was a valuable activity and that their responses were important. The diary beginning reiterated the oral instructions I had given, gave an example of a filled in diary template - a recommended strategy (Meth, 2003) - and the column responses

encouraged regular daily entries by minimising student writing requirements. Appendices B and C show the diary and example.

The diaries had 14 blank templates, one for each day. Although the template had not been piloted, I had sought advice from two Year 10 boys, (a neighbour and a friend), who both gave feedback on layout, clarity and suggestions on the booklet format. They assured me that for its purpose it was engaging and easy to follow.

I decided to have a diary activity before the focus groups because it would give information that I could build on, alongside the student survey, when deciding on the focus group discussion guide. The students were to enter activities while they were doing them. This was crucial for Internet reading because of the many sites (and, therefore, different text forms) that could be visited in a short time. I suggested they were kept next to their computers. Specifying the time and place for completing diary entries was advocated by Symon (2004), when reflecting on her own diary instrument. It was more a 'leave behind diary' as opposed to a 'recall diary', and hence a more valid instrument because "leave behind diaries are found to be of greater quality than recall diaries" (Vermaas & Van De Wijngaert, 2005, p. 124). The 'leave behind' nature of the diary alleviated trying to remember activities or make an estimation of time-on-task retrospectively. Research warned that respondents' estimations of time spent on the Internet can be often inflated when compared to the time indicated via a diary (Carey & Smith, 1994; Krashen, 2003), and using diaries as a procedure "avoids the problems of a 'time estimate' approach by preventing 'guesstimate' errors" (Barnett, 2002, p. 219). Students were only to record their out-of-school activity. This reduced the task and allowed them to "focus more carefully on these smaller periods of behaviour" (Krashen, 2003, p. 62).

Students were prompted to record their activity and its duration, rather than choose from a list of activities. This avoided defining their activities for them by presenting a list that might not be exhaustive. Thus, the diary would capture all activity, including any unanticipated behaviour and simultaneous activities. I gave no indication to the students as to whether I was interested in their time online or their online activities or both. This way, they had "minimal opportunity to distort activities in order to present themselves in a particular light" (Kahan, 2001, p. 64). There was also a column to record simultaneous activities because, "simultaneous usage patterns are common for various types of information activities" (Carey & Smith, 1994, p. 6) and multitasking is habitual for today's youth (Barnes, Marateo, & Ferris, 2007).

I knew that this simultaneous activity would pose validity problems if I strictly interpreted student time on a site and that, at best, the time aspects of the diary might only indicate time patterns and trends. I knew also that time on a site did not necessarily equate with engagement. However, the diary also prompted students to indicate why they did the activity and what they got out of it. This was to ascertain not just what they did but, more importantly, why, the value they put on their activities, and whether their search activity was successful. I was hoping to discover their motivation, engagement and satisfaction, and gain some insight into their research processes and skills. This information would, in turn, inform the focus group discussion guide. Diary column four asked for indications of the site's content. This acted as a check of the information in other columns.

The diary activity was a "microbehavioural technique for collecting self-reports of an individual's daily behaviour in an open-ended fashion on an activity-by-activity basis" (Kahan, 2001, p. 83) that I intended to build on in the focus groups. By avoiding supplying categories of activities (despite their ease of quantitative analysis),

and the concomitant risk of participants misinterpreting categories (Symon, 2004), I hoped I would gain better insight into what the participants were doing, how and why. However, the diary was neither a fully reflective tool nor an intimate personal diary. While participants had some leeway to write in their own words and give opinions on activities, they knew I would read it. The objective, then, was to inform fuller exploration in the focus groups, to allow Internet activity themes to arise and to give trends in time usage, while simultaneously encouraging completion by being easy to fill. While the example at the front might constrain student responses, I felt this did not interfere with the diary's function and would encourage student completion.

After the 14 days, I reminded students to leave their diaries at the school office. By the time each focus group began, I had looked at their responses. The only diary not returned was from the student without a phone and whose school absences had made it impossible to contact her. Twenty diaries were returned from 21, giving a 95% completion rate.

4.2.2 *Arranging, Planning and Conducting the Focus Groups*

Each focus group occurred as soon after the diary collection as possible. I contacted each student by telephone to arrange each meeting. This also helped build rapport and enabled me to speak with some available parents, so that they, too, were aware of the meeting day. Focus groups were conducted at each school. At school 10, the HOD recommended a suitable day for the group. It was late in the year and she suggested a prize-giving day when classes ended at lunchtime. However, only four of the seven diary participants turned up, despite text and phone reminders. I could not compete with a free afternoon! Student numbers for each focus group ranged between 5.8% and 10.8% of each school's survey participants. Table 9 shows 16 students participated in total, representing 8.4% of the 190 survey participants.

Table 9

Student Numbers for Diary and Focus Group Activities

School decile	Survey participants	Selected for activities	Participants assenting	Diaries returned	Focus group participants
4	74	8 (10.8%)	8 (10.8%)	8 (10.8%)	8 (10.8%)
7	47	6 (12.8%)	6 (12.8%)	5 (10.6%)	4 (8.5%)
10	69	8 (11.5%)	7 (10.1%)	7 (10.1%)	4 (5.8%)
Totals	190	22 (11.6%)	21 (11%)	20 (10.5%)	16 (8.4%)

The discussion guide gave consistency over the groups and coverage of the big ideas in the study. The diaries had given me a perspective on the students' habits and this helped to formulate more in-depth questions. The guide was divided into sections for coherence and to aid analysis. Prompts and follow up questions were included in each section, going from the general to the specific and including aspects that had emerged from student surveys that I wanted amplifying. I noted approximate times for each section to keep within the one-hour timeframe. There is little consensus in the research literature on how many questions are appropriate in a guide. It has been asserted that five broad questions make a guide "quite structured" (Lederman, 1990, p. 65) while 17 is considered by others as "relatively unstructured" (Byers & Wilcox, 1991, p. 65). I had nine main areas I wanted to cover, with a lead question for each (see Appendix D). I allowed myself multiple options in the follow up questions but knew that I would not always adhere to the guide – that it could be beneficial at times to probe into issues that arose from the discussion, that comments might need following up to capture the extent of consensus or diversity, that already mentioned items could be skipped and that new items might emerge. Also, a rigid adherence to the guide might restrict "spontaneous conversation" (Kidd & Parshall, 2000, p. 294) and result in lost opportunities for profitable exploration. Some questions in the guide were deliberately open ended, for example "tell me about a time when a teacher

helped you with your research" or "what are the first steps you do when ...?" to allow students to respond freely.

I used Fern's (2001) four key stages for successful focus group discussions as a process guide. The first stage, social integration, began at the meeting giving out the diaries. It continued when we had a snack and fruit drink as our icebreaker. I had consistently conveyed to the students that they were important and respected participants in the research and this contributed to the second and third of Fern's stages, "mirror reaction" and "condenser phenomenon." That is, by the time we began our conversations, efforts had been made to ensure that each student saw himself or herself as an equal participant, knew that others shared similar activities and, as Fern defines the condenser phenomenon, there was "an activation of the collective consciousness" (Fern, 2001, p. 15). His fourth stage, "exchange," is the sharing of ideas during the discussion.

At each session's beginning I stressed that because the students had indicated that they were high computer users, this did not mean that it was only this I was interested in – that what they did differently from the others, also interested me. I did not want the students to respond in ways they thought I expected. I hoped to overcome the "compliance" effect that is a threat to validity (Byers & Wilcox, 1991; Fern, 2001). I also wanted them to know they were the experts in what they did, not me. I reminded them that their page reading was important as well as their screen reading. I gave their diaries back for the duration of the focus group sessions. Greenbaum (2000) notes that "individuals are more comfortable talking in a group environment when they can refer to some type of written stimuli" (p. 161).

The focus group sessions were taped and later transcribed. My transcriber attended the groups to develop topic and voice familiarity so comments could be

attributed correctly during transcription. We both kept field notes for collecting non-verbal cues, which help with interpreting the comment intensity, interest, agreement, surprise and so on, as recommended by Kidd and Parshall (2000). These cues became transcript margin notes and, as Krueger (1998) observes, could be considered in the analysis. The taping, transcription and note-making process was explained to the students at session beginnings and they were shown the transcriber's signed confidentiality form, confirming not just the confidentiality of their comments, but also respect for their participation.

After the one-hour session, I gave the students an oral summary of the main aspects of our conversation and asked them to verify, add to and suggest anything else that was important that they had not had an opportunity to discuss. In addition, I asked them to complete the four statements on reading self-efficacy with 4-point agreement scales, from the unrevised MRQ (Baker & Wigfield, 1999, p. 476) (see Appendix E). I thanked the students for their major contribution to my research. I was interested in their reactions at the end of the sessions. Those from school 4 proceeded to swap phone numbers and arrange a ten-pin bowling outing, demonstrating the rapport that had been established throughout the process. The smaller school 7 group were very keen for me to get in touch with them if I needed anything else, commented that the meeting had been "fun" and "interesting" and wished me luck with my study. The four students from school 10 were not as enthusiastic, perhaps because the start of a "free" sunny afternoon had been delayed by our meeting, or because of the diverse interests and backgrounds that emerged in the analysis of this group.

4.3 *Analysis of the Student Diary and Focus Groups*

4.3.1 *Analysis of the Student Diary*

The diary had seven columns. Column one asked students to name what they read in terms of its URL or title. This ensured the validity of the entry and, to add to this check, column four asked for an indication of the page's content. Column one was also designed to explore students' initial search strategies, by asking how the site was found. Columns two and six were to ascertain time on task and simultaneous activities, while columns five and seven investigated success, by asking for student observations, feelings or comments on the activity. This was to probe the efficacy of students' search strategies. Finally, column three examined why sites were visited, and the column four information sometimes added to this.

I checked every URL in each diary against its column four (the content) as a quick veracity check and visited any URLs mentioned that did not seem linked to column four's information. This adequately verified each entry. Focus group responses later assured me that this had been a wise process. Students indicated writing fictional URLs in school projects to appear search active. Fortunately, they had not done this in their voluntary diary activity. Using columns two and six I could see each student's online time over an evening and length of time on a particular site. However, they indicated simultaneous activities, illustrating the complexity of the time data and, as mentioned, I was wary of drawing anything other than patterns from the duration responses and site visit frequency. In addition, I appreciated the difficulties of comparing time spent viewing a YouTube clip for enjoyment, with time spent searching for Web material for homework. I knew the difficulties of reporting average times students spent on different activities, because averages can be distorted by reading pace (Guthrie & Greaney, 1991). However, I did rank student activities based on the time spent on them, because these diary respondents were chosen

because they had self-identified in their surveys as regular (and arguably proficient) computer users and frequent book readers.

To analyse students' purposes for site visits, I devised categories of activities emerging from a reading and rereading of columns two and four. To help this formulation, I listed categories that had emerged in previous research on students' reading and Internet searching. For instance, Guthrie and Greaney (1991) indicated that students read for three prime reasons: utilitarian (such as homework tasks), diversion and escapism, and for enjoyment. I decided these categories were not extensive enough to accommodate the affordances of Web 2.0. Agosto (2011) proposed ten categories of student information seeking purposes. Although extensive for information searching, these too did not take into account the social networking nature of many activities. Johnson (2007) proposed five categories of Internet activities: communication, information, recreation, commercial and technical. While relevant for the affordances of Web 2.0, these were less finely grained than I wanted. Hamilton's paper (1998), reporting research on one community's adult literacy practices, identified six purposes for their endeavours: organising life, personal communication, private leisure, documenting life, sense making and social participation. These six categories became a starting point for my analysis, along with the five patterns of text use that emerged in Berg's research (2011) based on students' conversations in face-to-face groups while using online text – text as reference (referring to a text), text as authority (when information searching), text as experience (putting own experiences into understanding text), text as expression (composing) and text as instrument (doing something technical, for instance uploading software). I allocated students' activities to these 11 categories. When an activity did not fit easily, I devised a new category and started the process again. I finally ended up with eight

categories of my own and conducted the category allocation for the final time. Six of the final categories involved using the Internet for (a) researching for homework (b) researching for self (c) playing games online for entertainment (d) listening to music or watching video material for entertainment (e) social networking (f) reading and writing e-mail. The further two categories were (g) doing a special interest technical activity and (h) using MS Word to write up homework.

My next step was to randomly select three days over five diaries (25% of the diaries completed and 42 different activities recorded) and have a colleague assign the activities to my categories, to check category allocations. There was only one instance of disagreement. I had allocated changing a networking page's layout to "special interest technical activity" while the colleague had allocated it as a "social networking" activity. After discussion, we decided that changing the page's layout was not an interactive activity, so it remained as a technical activity.

Columns five and seven (which contained student observations, feelings or comments on the activity) were compared with any comments in column one (their initial search strategies). This ascertained whether there were particular strategies that evoked particular reactions. References to particular search strategies were also noted.

From this analytic process I hoped that findings would start to reveal students' Web searching strategies and information literacy skills, their preferred computer activities (measured in terms of time, despite the complexities of frequency and duration mentioned above) and the principal purposes of their computer-based literacy practices.

4.3.2 *Analysis of the Focus Groups*

Analysing the focus group transcripts was a constant comparative process (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) of reading, annotating, rereading, underlining, noting possible themes

and using the discussion guide sections to help with this formulation. There were several iterations of this process until I had exhausted the thematic development process (Merriam, 2009). I then took the themes that arose from this preliminary analysis and checked for repetitive ideas across theme titles that might need clumping together. Next, I chose possible quotes for illustrating themes by going through the transcripts colour coding for each theme. I then made final thematic decisions. This iterative process was recommended by Raush (1998). Finally, I looked at the chunks of discourse within each theme to see if there were more finely grained ideas. At times, this led to category construction within themes. For instance, in the theme of information processing, I initially colour coded students' two key steps in the research process "accessing information" and "using information". As the iterative process within the theme progressed, these two research steps were further divided into categories. Student comments around "accessing information" fell into three categories: using search engines, choosing sites and judging site trustworthiness. Comments around "using information" were categorised under: reading information, judging accuracy of information and reporting research findings. This then left further student comments that fell into a third aspect, "how teachers help with research". I implemented a similar process for each theme.

At this juncture, I looked at the transcript annotations from field notes. These included the nonverbal aspects associated with student comments and interactions, and queries I had noted to myself for checking. In this manner I paid attention to "the difference between frequency, extensiveness and intensity" (Krueger, 1998, p. 24), that is, not just how often, but how strongly or widely comments were made or agreed with. Although I was looking for trends and patterns and not focussing on reporting quantitatively, it became apparent that some themes had high levels of similar

comments, and I decided that I would report frequencies where appropriate. This was a fitting way to proceed, because to do so was to "keep oneself analytically honest, protecting against bias" (Fern, 2001, p. 94). The analysis also showed differences amongst the groups. It was some of these differences that would inform my questions when later interviewing the teachers. Therefore, overall, the unit of analysis was all three focus groups together, but sometimes it was one of the three groups and then, within this, when the occasional individual comment stood out, one of the 16 students became a unit of analysis. When these latter two instances arose, I was careful to read student comments within the context of previous comments, because I was aware of the issue of independence and interdependence – that is, the influence of the group on an individual's comments. Fern (2001) posits that interdependence is one of the strengths of the focus group method when individuals respond to each other. Yet, "this doesn't mean that individual responses to queries from others lack independence. It is possible for the behaviour of focus group members to be interdependent and still provide independent responses" (p. 132). I checked comments by individuals for repetition. For instance, when a statement was made that was dissimilar to comments by others, I checked whether it had been elaborated, either in response to my probing or by a further comment elsewhere in the transcript. This process contributed to the trustworthiness of the findings and ensured that idiosyncratic views were not attributed to the groups as a whole. I was also careful with the frequencies of comments within each transcript, being aware that frequency does not necessarily show an idea's importance to the group, but might, instead, indicate its importance to one or two group members. My field notes and summary that ended each focus group session (and which was also part of the transcript) were invaluable in this respect. This analytic process also included checking for internal

consistency; that is, checking to see if a participant changed his or her mind or was inconsistent. However, it was mainly patterns and trends that interested me; I recognised the danger of reporting frequencies and was prepared to be careful when I did so. Overall, I planned for the development of the main ideas to come from "an accumulation of evidence – the words used, the body language, the intensity of comments – rather than from isolated comments" (Krueger, 1998, p. 116).

4.4 *Reliability, Validity and Trustworthiness of the Student Diary and Focus Group Processes*

4.4.1 *Reliability and Validity of the Student Diary Processes*

The most challenging aspect to the reliability and validity of the diary process was the dearth of previous studies on which to draw. As Vermaas asserts "surprisingly, diaries in which respondents are asked to write down daily Internet activities are virtually unknown" (2005, p. 122). Online surveys are more common, but they rely on an ability to recall activities and this can be a threat to reliability. It was, therefore, vital that I paid attention to this aspect of the study, even though there were focus group conversations to delve more deeply into the students' responses.

One threat to the validity of the student diary responses was that there was no external way to check response authenticity. Therefore, I devised the diary columns so that there was some internal check over them. For instance, the URLs students said they visited were checked with the content they said they had read. But there was no way to check whether students filled their responses in while they were doing activities or after, thus there was no way to tell if they had relied on recall. I had advised them to leave the diary next to their computer, to fill it in as they went and I sent text reminders each night. Every effort was made to ensure that the responses had

not been estimated - an approach that "has a built-in bias toward over reporting" (J. P. Robinson & Godbey, 1997, p. 59) - and that the diary was not treated as a recall mechanism.

One limitation to the diary method is the "exhaustive toll they take on respondents" (Nie, Hillygus, & Erbring, 2002. p. 219). Therefore, I had students only filling diaries in about out-of-school computer activities (rather than all reading activities over 24 hours), provided an example of how this could be done, checked student understanding in a face-to-face meeting and kept the diary in columns with the maximum of one landscaped page per day to indicate the length of response. I had carefully considered this latter aspect, given the diary's literacy requirements needed to meet a range of students' abilities. Initially hesitant to conduct the diaries over an extended period, I knew this was necessary to capture daily variation and allow for any missing daily entries. The high rate of daily completion (95%) and diary returns (20 of 21) demonstrated that the period was not too burdensome (Vermaas & Van De Wijngaert, 2005).

Furthermore, Robinson (1999) recommended keeping diary activities as open-ended as possible to catch variation in activities. Therefore, I did not constrain responses by supplying a list of activities from which students could choose. This resulted in a more time consuming analytical process but, to add rigour to analysis, I initially used categories from the literature and then built my own via iterations of coding. Finally, I checked the robustness of this procedure by having a colleague check category allocations.

The self-report nature of the diary does not necessarily make it less reliable than other methods. It has been asserted, "diaries have been found to be a more valid and reliable method to gather information on activities than questionnaires" (Vermaas

& Van De Wijngaert, 2005, p. 123) and than online surveys (Eastin et al., 2003).

Also, when compared with other methods such as surveys, there is "a considerable

degree of assurance about the basic generalizability of time-diary data" (J. P.

Robinson & Godbey, 1997, p. 77). Additionally, diaries produce "rather reliable and

replicable results" (J. P. Robinson & Bostrom, 1994, p. 14).

4.4.2 *Reliability, Validity and trustworthiness of the Focus Group Processes*

Because of the qualitative nature of the focus group processes, many of the reliability

and validity assurances relevant to my teacher interviews, reported in Chapter Six, are

also applicable to the focus groups. These include using the same discussion guide

over all groups (Kirk & Miller, 1986), using open-ended questions so that responses

are not influenced unduly (J. A Maxwell, 2005), recording responses and transcribing

these verbatim so that they represent students' "own language" (Kirk & Miller, 1986,

p. 12) and, as a "strategy for legitimation" (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995, pp. 179-

180), using this student voice via excerpts (B. Berg, 2004; J. A Maxwell, 2005) to

keep "faithfulness to the account" (Warren & Karner, 2005, p. 244) when reporting

findings. I discuss the necessity for these assurances in qualitative studies further, in

Chapter Six section 6.4.

     While not proposing that the focus group results are generalisable, the trends

and patterns could be "transferable" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) to other settings. Or, to

use Bassey's term (2001), can result in "fuzzy predictions" and "fuzzy

generalisations" (p. 20). To enable this, I have supplied detailed information about the

selection, conduct and analysis. This detailed documenting and description of

procedures and decisions is persistently stressed as a key to reliability (Kirk & Miller,

1986; D. L. Morgan, 1997) and trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) in qualitative

research. These "thick descriptions" are "an important provision for promoting

credibility" (Shenton, 2004, p. 69), ensuring that "the voices, feelings, actions, and meanings of interacting individuals are heard" (Denzin, 1989, p. 83) and promoting what Ponterotto (2006) calls a "thick interpretation" that leads to a "thick meaning" in the findings "that resonate with readers" (p. 543). The experiences of these students could mirror those of others in comparable situations.

The trustworthiness of the focus group findings was initially built through the rigorous participant selection process. As explained, my participants were those reporting high Internet use and many researchers have outlined how homogeneity is essential for successful focus group interactions (Barnett, 2002; Carey & Smith, 1994; Kahan, 2001; Lederman, 1990; Stewart et al., 2009). Also, there were 16 focus group participants over the three sites and this fitted recommendations for focus group size and numbers of groups (Cronin, 2008; Krueger & Casey, 2000; D. L. Morgan, 1996).

Fern (2001) outlines three essential moderator characteristics necessary for conducting successful focus groups. These centre on academic qualifications, project training for consistency across groups, and personal qualities. I moderated the focus groups myself and this ensured that the first two characteristics were covered. The personal qualities include such things as an ability to keep the group on track, building rapport and providing opportunity for everyone to contribute. I have considerable experience as a secondary school teacher, a Year 10 Dean (the year level of the participants) and as a teacher educator. This background prepared me well in these discussion skills. Some experts perceive being both researcher and moderator as a limitation. Cargan (2007), for instance, sees one limitation of focus groups as being that the researcher can alter the pace and direction of comments and therefore influence data. However, this can also be seen as a strength. Literature on dialogic processes (R. Alexander, 2010; Nystrand, 1997) asserts that incorporating responses

into subsequent questions, allowing comments to modify the topic and encouraging responses that relate to prior comments, support cumulative dialogue and are high level dialogic strategies. Additionally, that a moderator or researcher might influence data is not confined to the focus group method. As Morgan (1997) points out, "the researcher influences all but the most unobtrusive social science methods" (p. 14) and that it is "the moderator's heightened visibility" (p. 14) in the transcript that leads to this "magnified" (p. 15) criticism. Also, he argues that because of "the participant-defined nature of group interaction the focus group setting is less controlled than individual interviewing" (p. 16).

Kidd and Parshall (2000) note that two threats to the validity of focus group findings are "equivalence" (p. 302) and "internal consistency" (p. 303), referring to consistency across moderators and data coders. However, as I was both moderator and coder, this was not an issue. Nonetheless, my being both moderator and coder made it necessary to address my own neutrality as much as possible. When conducting the focus groups I did this in the following ways: using field notes (my own and those of the attending transcriber) and audio recordings to capture all comments, nonverbal responses, interactions and reactions, in the subsequent transcripts; probing students to expand and explain views I did not completely understand; giving an oral summary at the end of each discussion to check participants agreed that I had correctly understood the big ideas; using a systematic approach to the analysis and paying attention to Kidd and Parshall's (2000) "content validity" (p. 304) by having a colleague check theme and category allocations. In addition, the discussion guide included open questions designed to deepen knowledge of the student survey responses and diary activities. I had made an effort to establish rapport with the students before the focus groups began, to establish trust and open

communication, and when conducting the groups I encouraged student-to-student interactions. Furthermore, students' own words are included when reporting findings. These protocols, as outlined by Krueger (1998), Fern (2001) and Marshall and Rossman (2006), add to the validity and trustworthiness of the results.

4.5 *Student Diary Findings*

The three groups of students logged their diary data over different weeks, yet there was some pattern to their weekly use (see Figure 5).
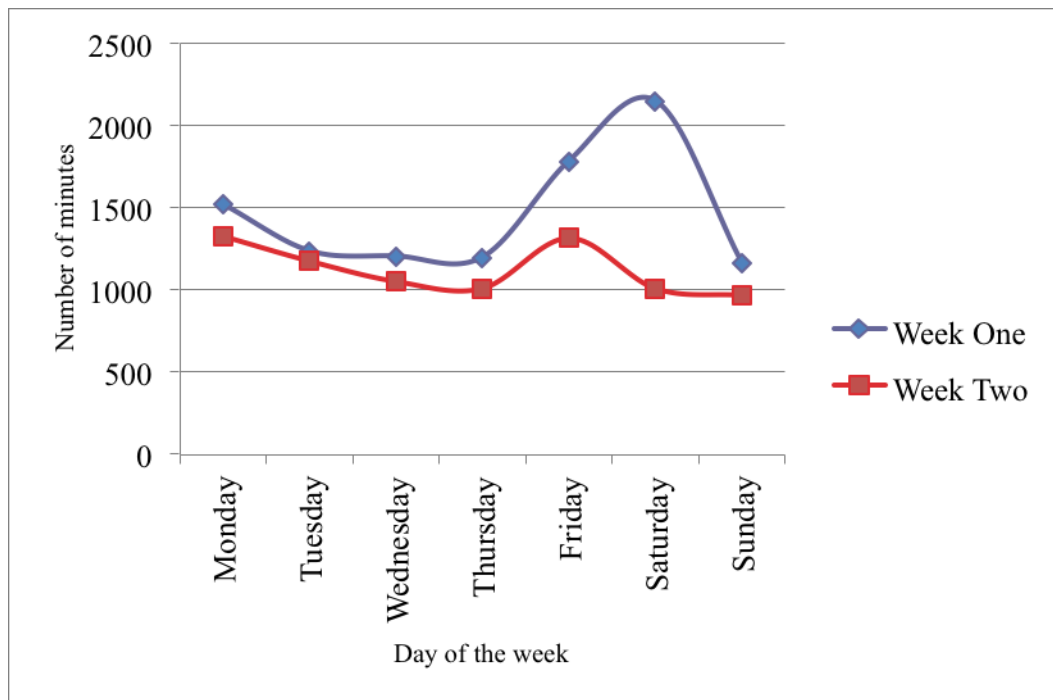
Figure 5. Day comparisons of computer use in total daily minutes

Sunday was the day of least computer activity, with Friday and Monday being the first and second highest usage days – demonstrating the importance of social media sites to students when arranging and then reporting their weekend activities. The mid-week days of Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday showed fewer computer hours and a

regular pattern from week to week. There was no apparent pattern to length of activity on a Saturday.

Five girls and one boy logged individual daily usage of over 200 minutes on at least one day. Australian data, from a study of 7,031 students aged 12 – 13 years, also shows girls online for longer than boys (Smith, Skrbis, & Western, 2013). Interestingly, my high users were also students who recorded days where they had no computer activity at all. One Saturday, Catherine and Ann were both at their screens for approximately eight hours, yet for five days of 14 Catherine had no screen time and Ann had no screen time for three out of 14. All 20 students had at least one day where they were not at the computer at all. Of the six students who had a high use day, two of the girls engaged only in social networking activities and another two did the same while researching for their school science homework. The fifth girl attended a language school one night each week and her high use day was using MS Word for practice essays for her TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language). The boy with a high use day had spent his time viewing television programmes online. On the whole, the high use days were devoted to social networking and entertainment, with the exception of the student studying for TOEFL.

All students were mostly engaged in other things while performing their main activity. These ranged from opening and navigating multiple windows, using social networking sites, to texting, eating and watching television. As expected, it is impossible to draw any robust findings from the diaries about time on a particular task because of these multiple simultaneous activities. More importantly though, while this simultaneous activity might indicate that this generation is able to multitask, focus group interviews demonstrated a lack of critical, engaged thinking going into these simultaneous activities, particularly when "doing research," which mainly consisted

of cutting and pasting information. Recent research with university undergraduates also demonstrates the negative effects of multitasking on task-engaged thinking (Burak, 2012; Fried, 2008) and, arguably, these Year 10 students would be even less adept.

When finding and using websites, the students either already knew the site or they used the search engine Google. This aligns with other findings on teenager researching strategies (Purcell et al., 2012). The diary entries gave no indication of what students' next steps were in the research process and I noted this for focus group follow-up.

As indicated (section 4.3.1), eight categories of computer activity emerged and each diary activity was allocated to one of these. Social networking, particularly via Facebook and CyWorld (a Korean site), accounted for 142 hours of all the computer activity over the 14 days. Although little time was spent using e-mail (14.5 hours), most students indicated that when they did, it was usually connected to social networking activities, such as requests to 'friend' or receiving alerts about networking site interactions. Therefore, nearly 50% of computer use was around social networking activities. This popularity of social networking sites with youth is also apparent in overseas research (Lenhart, Arafeh, Smith, & MacGill, 2008; Roberts, Foehr, & Rideout, 2010).

The second most popular activity involved researching for school assignments (46.5 hours) followed by research for self (43.5 hours), giving research activities more than a quarter of student computer time. Using sites for entertainment, such as listening to music or watching television programmes or video (including YouTube), was the fourth most popular activity (35.25 hours), followed by another school-centred activity of using MS Word to complete school assignments (21 hours).

Playing games online for entertainment took 20 hours of students' computer time. The last category of computer activity was special interest technical activities, with eight hours of computer time being taken up with these. Activities students listed that fell into this category were uploading and editing photographs in Adobe Photoshop, downloading music, learning and using iMovie and PowerPoint, and changing Facebook profile pages.

While wary of drawing strict conclusions based on these time data (because of students' simultaneous activities), there are definite trends in computer use when the total number of computer hours over the 14 days are allocated to these eight categories, as illustrated in Figure 6.
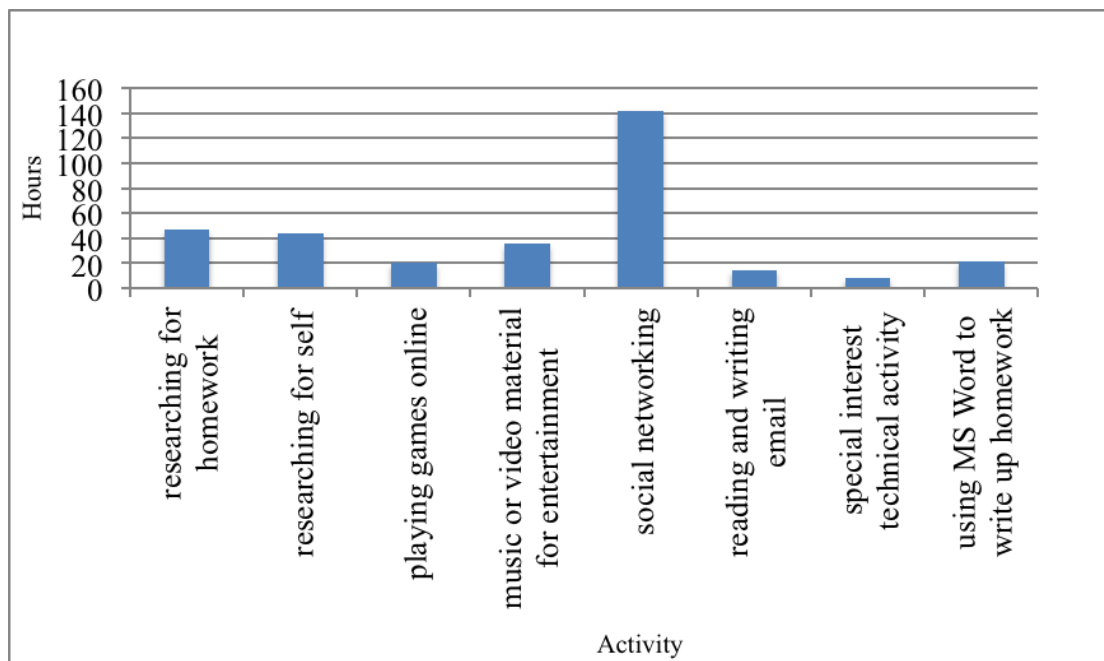
Figure 6. Hours over 14 days spent on different computer activities

These preferences become even more pronounced when similar activities are grouped together. For instance, when social networking, e-mail and changing profile pages are combined (because students indicated these were associated with each

other), and the two homework activities, the researching activities and the entertainment activities each grouped together, the differences are striking (see Figure 7). Information researching then becomes the second most popular activity and highlights the necessity for sound, critical information literacy skills. Therefore, this became an important avenue of investigation in the focus group meetings.
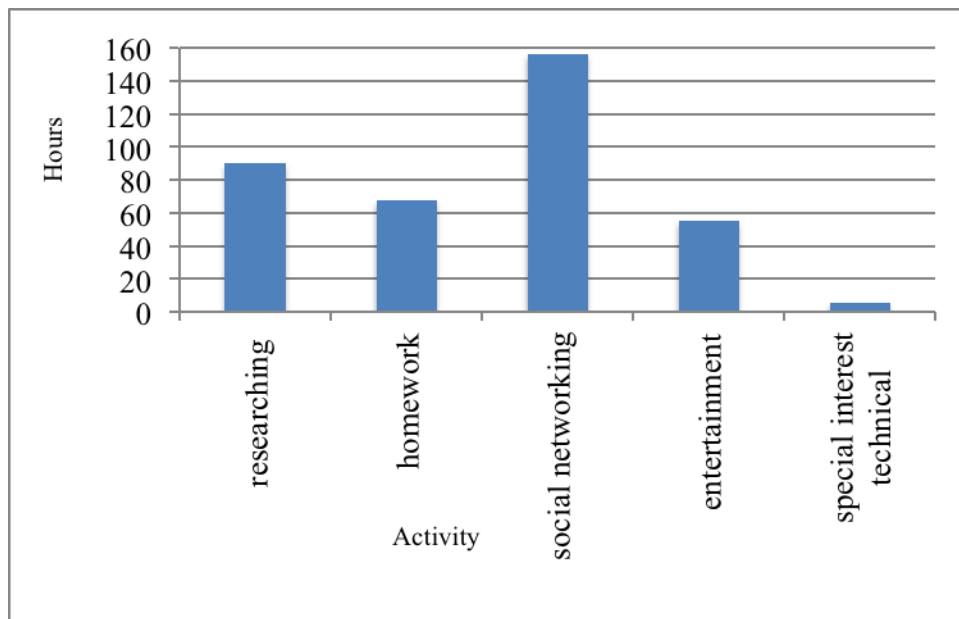
Figure 7. Hours of computer activity over 14 days (revised categories)

The students spent 330 hours and 45 minutes in total on the computer; that is an average of 20 hours and 40 minutes each over 14 days, or 1 hour and 28 minutes each per day. This is a very similar finding to United States data presented in 2010 that discovered, "Today's 8- to 18-year-olds spend an average of an hour and a half (1:29) daily using the computer outside of school" (Roberts et al., 2010, p. 3). This same project also found that social networking activities were the most popular computer activity for 8 to 18-year-olds, however their 22 minutes per day average was exceeded by my students, who averaged 38 minutes per day. This was also longer

than the 30 minutes reported in a study of United States' college students (Pempek, Yermolayeva, & Calvert, 2009). Nonetheless, this is not surprising given that the United States data also showed that higher levels of consumption were evident in the 11 - 14 year-old age group (Roberts et al., 2010, p. 5), the age group closest to that of my students. Furthermore, my diary activity students had been purposively selected because they had indicated higher computer usage than other survey participants.

There was one distinctive activity difference over the three groups of diaries and that was in the use of MS Word for homework. The school 4 students spent less time than those from the other schools word processing homework tasks, even though they were Web searching for schoolwork as much as those in school 10. Arguably, this may be because teachers in the lowest decile school appreciated that there were alternative avenues to the Internet for researching information but that word processing might pose an access issue. This access issue emerged for some students in this school in the student survey (an issue sometimes called the "digital divide" (Rhodes & Robnolt, 2009; Warschauer, Knobel, & Stone, 2004) perceived in lower decile schools).

The students' activities also showed gender differences. The two most popular boys' activities were researching for self and watching videos. The girls spent most time on social networking sites followed by researching for school and researching for self. That females in this age group spend more time on social networking sites is not just a phenomenon of this New Zealand study, but is evident in at least one large-scale research project (Roberts et al., 2010). What was personally researched was also a difference. The boys' personal research consisted of newspaper reading, searching for game cheats or information on computer programmes, looking for car information, visiting auction sites, finding information on favourite bands and checking personal

sports fixture' times. Previous generations found this information in newspapers and magazines, demonstrating this current generations' move from hard copy to online means. For the girls, personal research was usually around health and grooming issues (such as how to heal infected piercings or remove black hair dye). Several other studies, reported in Johnson (2007), have outlined the importance of the Internet to teenagers when wanting access to health related information. These girls were no exception.

Diary columns five and seven, with prompts to comment on "what I got out of doing this" and "my observations/feelings/comments," were mainly designed to elicit students' thoughts on their searching efficacy. On the whole, student comments were one line about a finding or "I finished my homework" or "I enjoyed it." The focus group sessions would need to elicit further responses about students' successful research strategies.

4.6 *Student Focus Groups Findings*

As indicated, 16 of the 21 students who agreed to participate in the focus groups and diary activity attended the focus group sessions. Therefore, I re-analysed their surveys to update the profile of the focus group attendees in section 4.1.

Nine participants self-identified as Pakeha/European New Zealanders, three as Indian, two as Korean and one as Taiwanese. The Korean, Taiwanese and one of the Indian students indicated that English was not the language used at home. The vast majority of the participants (81.3%) had public library membership and this included 100% of the school 4 participants. The school libraries were used for accessing reading materials by 75% (12), with three of the four non-users coming from school 7. Two of the students indicated that they never read library books. In the focus group

sessions, both said that they did read books but one borrowed off friends and the other preferred to read books in her home language and these were not available at school. Magazines and newspapers were regularly available at home for most of them and they all indicated that they had read a book in the past week (a screen for selecting focus group participants). Only one student indicated in the survey that he almost never read a book for pleasure, (but this was refuted during the focus group conversation when he realised that reading in his home language "counted"), while five read for pleasure about once a month and 10 (62.5%) read at least once a week for pleasure. So, these were groups of readers, but nearly 40% of them did not always read for pleasure. Focus group participant numbers were too few to make any valid comparisons from the survey data across schools.

These aspects were slightly different to the profile of the group of students initially selected to participate as presented in section 4.1. The other aspects were the same. On the whole, these students who were the high computer users in the student survey, were also regular book, magazine and newspaper readers.

4.6.1 *Student reading motivations and reading efficacy*

I analysed the focus group students' responses to the MRQ section of the student survey. There were eight sets of items and each set measured a motivational construct (see Figure 1). Each item, to which students had responded with either *yes* or *no*, became a variable for analysis. In addition, the four statements that measured reading efficacy (Baker & Wigfield, 1999, p. 476) that were not part of the revised MRQ, were given to the focus group students (see Appendix E). Many researchers have posited that there is a strong link between self-efficacy beliefs and motivation (Moje et al., 2008; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002) and, indeed, reading motivation in particular (e.g., Guthrie et al., 2007; RAND Reading Study Group, 2002). It has also been

posited that there is a link between positive self-efficacy beliefs and reading achievement (Mucherah & Yoder, 2008; Schunk, 2003; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Therefore, I was interested in the focus group students' responses (on a 4-point agreement scale of *very different from me* to *a lot like me*) to these four self-efficacy items. I hoped that this information might contribute to give a richer picture of how this purposively sampled group of high computer users saw themselves as readers.

4.6.1.1   *Student reading motivations*

The means of the five items that measured the extrinsic motivation (EM) Recognition construct, and the means of the seven items that measured the intrinsic motivation (IM) Curiosity construct, showed that having recognition from teachers, peers and people at home, and reading about interesting and new things, were the greatest motivational items for these students. Having people at home telling them "what a good job I am doing in reading and in finding information online" (*M*=1.13*, SD*=.34) and "getting compliments for my reading" (*M*=1.13*, SD*=.34) were the greatest motivational items within the Recognition construct, while "I read about my hobbies to learn more about them" (*M*=1.06*, SD*=.25), "I like to read because I always feel happy when I read things of interest to me" and "I read to learn new information about topics that interest me" (*M*=1.13*, SD*=.34) were the greatest motivational items within the Curiosity construct.

There were 20 items, which became variables for analysis, measuring the three constructs for IM. Over 50% of the students rated sixteen of these as *yes*; that is, students agreed with 80% of the IM items. Thirty items were used to measure EM. Seventeen of these were agreed with by over 50% of the students; that is, students agreed with 56.6% of the EM items. No extrinsic item was agreed with by more than 90% of the students, while three intrinsic items were agreed with by over 93.8% (15)

of the students. All students agreed with one IM item, "I make pictures in my mind when I read," which was in the Involvement construct. The IM item that had the least agreement (25% (4) of students, *M*=1.75, *SD*=.45) was "I feel like I make friends with people in good books."

There were three most agreed with extrinsic items, two in the construct Recognition and one in Social. Fourteen students (87.5%) responded *yes* to "I like having people at home tell me what a good job I am doing in reading and in finding information online" (an item that did not reach an 80% agreement level from the survey students), "I like to get compliments for my reading," and "my friends and I like to tell each other about interesting web sites to go to" (*M*=1.13, *SD*=.34). It is interesting that the students liked sharing interesting websites with their friends, when only 56.3% (9 students, *M*=1.44, *SD*=.51) liked to "talk to my friends about what I am reading" and 31.3% (5 students, *M*=1.69, *SD*=.48) liked to "swap things to read" with friends.

I calculated the percentage of agreement with each item in each construct and then calculated the average percentage for the items within each construct. I was not trying to *finely* differentiate between the constructs, but rather see if there was one in particular that emerged to provide insight into what might motivate this small group of book and digital readers.

The average percentages of each construct showed Recognition (EM) was the most important motivational construct. This was followed by Curiosity, Challenge and Involvement, the three constructs for IM. Figure 8 shows the focus group students were more intrinsically motivated to read, than extrinsically. However, it is the constructs themselves that may have more importance when helping students make reading selections and choosing pedagogies around that reading. Teacher recognition

and compliments for reading, and access to challenging and curiosity-raising material

seem to be important, as it was for the very frequent readers in the student survey.
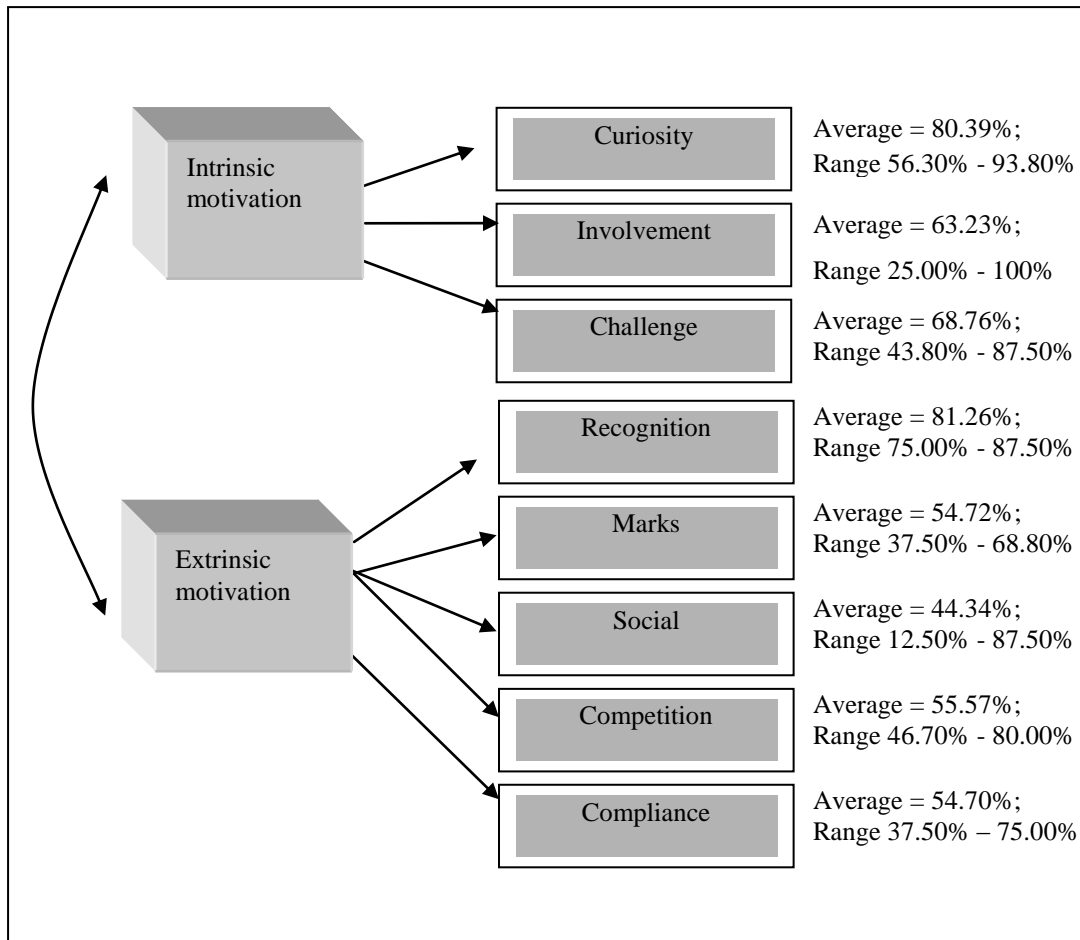
Figure 8. Two factor motivational measurement model: focus groups' averages for each construct (*N*=16). Based on Wang and Guthrie (2004, p. 166)

4.6.1.2   *Students' reading self-efficacy*

The data from the self-efficacy agreement scale ratings (Appendix E) were entered

into SPSS. When results were divided into the two categories *like me* or *different from*

me, students showed a stronger leaning to *like me* for being a good reader, knowing

that they would do well in reading the next year (their first year of high stakes

national assessment), and learning more from reading than most students. On the

other hand, there was a strong tendency to think that, in comparison to other

schoolwork, they did not do best at reading. On the whole, they saw themselves as successful in reading but also that they were better at other things. It might be assumed that, as a group, they not only saw themselves as good readers, but also as good learners in general. Highlighted areas in Table 10 show how most students responded when the two *different from me* and the two *like me* choices are taken together.

Table 10

Student Self-Efficacy Ratings (N=16)

Agreement scale	I am a good reader	I know I will do well in reading next year	I learn more from reading than most students	In comparison to other things I do in school work, I do best at reading
Very different from me	0	0	1 (6.25%)	3 (18.75%)
A little different from me	7 (43.75%)	4 (25.00%)	7 (43.75%)	6 (37.50%)
A little like me	3 (18.75%)	5 (31.25%)	5 (31.25%)	7 (43.75%)
A lot like me	6 (37.50%)	7 (43.75%)	3 (18.75%)	0

When male and female responses were compared, a different pattern emerged. The males had a greater sense of efficacy. However, a greater percentage of females thought that they would do well the following year (see Table 11).

Although there were only four students out of the 16 who indicated that the language spoken at home was not English, I was interested to see if they gave different efficacy ratings. Their sense of self-efficacy in reading was demonstrably less than those students for whom English was their first language (see Table 12).

Table 11

Self-Efficacy by Gender (N=16)

Agreement items	Male (*n*=7)	Female (*n*=9)
I am a good reader: *a little like me; a lot like me*	5 (71.4%) (*M*=3.42, *SD*=4)	4 (44.4%) (*M*=2.56, *SD*=0.73)
I know I will do well in reading next year: *a little like me; a lot like me*	5 (71.4%) (*M*=3.42, *SD*=4)	7 (77.8%) (*M*=3.00, *SD*=0.71)
I learn more from reading than most students: *a little like me; a lot like me*	6 (85.7%) (*M*=3.14, *SD*=3)	2 (22.2%) (*M*=2.22, *SD*=0.83)
In comparison to other things I do in school work, I do best at reading: *a little like me; a lot like me*	5 (71.4%) (*M*=2.57, *SD*=3)	2 (22.2%) (*M*=2.00, *SD*=0.71)

Table 12

Self-Efficacy by Home Language (N=16)

Agreement items	English is not the main language spoken at home (*n*=4)	English is the main language spoken at home (*n*=12)
I am a good reader: *a little like me; a lot like me*	1 (25%) (*M*=I, *SD*=I)	8 (66.7%) (*M*=3.17, *SD*=0.94)
I know I will do well in reading next year: *a little like me; a lot like me*	2 (50%) (*M*=2.75, *SD*=0.96)	10 (83.3%) (*M*=3.33, *SD*=0.78)
I learn more from reading than most students: *a little like me; a lot like me*	1 (25%) (*M*=2.25, *SD*=0.50)	7 (58.3%) (*M*=2.75, *SD*=0.97)
In comparison to other things I do in school work, I do best at reading: *a little like me; a lot like me*	1 (25%) (*M*=2.25, *SD*=0.50)	6 (50%) (*M*=2.25, *SD*=0.87)

It is asserted that "self-belief is a powerful motivator" (Rubie-Davies, Peterson, Irving, Widdowson, & Dixon, 2010, p. 36) and that "levels of students' internal characteristics, such as motivation and self-confidence, also strongly influence their achievements during their high school careers" (Tavani & Losh, 2003, p. 142). With the relationship between self-efficacy and motivation, and motivation and success, these become important findings when seen alongside what the students with a home language other than English said in the focus groups – that their mother-

tongue reading is not allowed in school reading logs and that they call themselves non-readers because their reading is not recognised in school. Their definition of themselves as "readers" seemed to be premised on what their teachers validated as school reading material. Further implications of this might be, as Lenters posits, that "students often perceive this lack of acceptance as personal rejection" (Lenters, 2006, p. 138).

4.6.2 *Student Out-of-School Book Reading Choices*

The student survey provided the initial information about this group's reading preferences. The most popular books for the focus group students were adventure, spy and romance books (for the girls only). Fantasy, mystery, detective and humorous books were the next most popular with no gender differences. The majority of 600 Australian high school students also liked reading comedy (Rennie & Patterson, 2010). Horror books were favoured by two girls, but were not popular with the boys. One boy preferred books about sports and two students, one female and one male, liked biographies.

I asked the groups what books they enjoyed reading. Several titles arose over all groups. When Cherl liked *The Princess Diaries* and explained that they were young adult "chic lit," the other four girls in this group agreed that "chic lit" was a preference. Cherl said she liked *The Princess Diaries* because they were a series and had a lot of popular culture references. The girls also liked the idea of series and one mentioned the *Twilight* series and the others agreed. Irene, in another focus group, also mentioned the *Twilight* series as a favourite. I followed this up with the boys in both groups. It is not surprising that they did not read "chic lit," but they were also emphatic that they did not read the *Twilight* series. Although vampire and fantasy themed, there is a strong romance aspect to this series. One boy said that the romance

aspect did not interest him, while another said that he had never heard of them. The boys, however, also liked series reading. Other studies have shown a series is often popular with this age group (Hall & Coles, 1999; Kavazos-Kottke, 2006), The *New York Times* best seller list has a separate children's series list, and adults who enjoy leisure reading often have fond memories of reading a series (Ross, 1995). Mark said he had read all of the Alex Ryder books (a series with a teenage spy protagonist), while Steve had read "the paybacks" –a series by Richard Stark (Donald Westlake pseudonym), started in the 1960s and continuing, which has been the basis of several films and features protagonist Parker in daring heists. None of the boys read science fiction and they favoured "action", "spy" and "mysteries" and the girls agreed. Several students (both male and female) mentioned the books of J. K. Rowling. Five of the seven boys mentioned non-fiction reading. This took several forms. Two enjoyed "interesting articles" from newspapers and magazines, two read the newspaper online every day, while another read sports autobiographies. It should be noted though, that non-fiction reading did not mean a rejection of fiction for the boys.

Minjun, who liked reading manga in Korean, also read Korean newspapers online most days, and Subin read novels in Korean, but infrequently. I had to prompt both for responses about their leisure reading. Their home language was not English, and an investigation into how visible their out-of-school reading was in school, deserved more attention than that which my project afforded. That they needed prompting to mention this reading, led me to think that perhaps they did not see it as valued outside their own personal circles.

The focus group students' surveys showed 12 of them read for pleasure at least once a week, with seven saying they read at least almost every day. All of them had read magazines and online text in the week preceding the survey. These findings

are similar to those from Gallik's (1999) first year university students and Rennie and Patterson's (2010) secondary students. My students did read for pleasure, but it was magazines, light fiction, "chic lit", adventure and mysteries (often in a series), vampire romances, manga and newspapers – that is, it was often not the traditional book reading valued by school for extended study that so often does not contain the escapist qualities that these students seemed to enjoy. Other studies have had similar findings that students are, in fact, still reading out-of-school (Moje et al., 2008; Rennie & Patterson, 2008), despite some research maintaining a decline in reading for pleasure for this age group (Clark & Rumbold, 2006; Clark et al., 2005). It has been conjectured that assuming students lose interest in reading in their teenage years might be "reductionist, overly simplistic, and largely inaccurate" (Bintz, 1993, p. 613). However, studies vary in their definitions of what constitutes text, which makes drawing conclusions about trends difficult, based on more than a few studies.

The focus group students liked getting recommendations from friends. Subin, who said she did not "read that much," read a book if "my friends say it's good," while Alice, who said "I like to read books a lot" chose "ones that my friends have enjoyed. Me and my friends have quite similar tastes." Steve had just finished *To Kill A Mockingbird,* (a book a teacher might choose for an extended text study), because his sister had read it and "it was really cool." Whether they saw themselves as readers or not, they all liked getting recommendations, mainly from friends, and usually followed them through. This is a finding similar to that of Pitcher et al. (2007) who, in their study of 384 United States students, 43.8% of whom were at the Year 10 age, found that family and friends "exerted considerable influence on what these adolescents read and write" (p. 392).

I asked each group about how long they would usually read in one sitting.

Cherl's statement that it "depends on how good the book is" summed up most views.

Kale: If it's a really good book and it's all intense and stuff, I can read it forever. I can read for six or seven hours.
Mark: Yeah. Reading from 11.00 p.m. 'til whenever.
Dominic: I haven't found a book that's really that great that I could just read it for hours on end. Normally I'd just read like, maybe, an hour or two at most.

Several mentioned reading at night before sleep.

Irene: Like before I go to bed to get sleepy sort of thing.
(Leon nods in agreement).
Irene: For half-an-hourish.
Leon: Yeah.
Steve: Yeah, probably same as well. Like every second night, sometimes every night.

This preferred bedtime reading reflects findings of other studies (Nell, 1988; Nestle United Kingdom Ltd, 2003; Taylor, 2011). The students liked the quiet and relaxed nature of reading in bed and when they had "a really good book" they would read for an extended time.

These reading choice findings have implications for any programme that seeks to incorporate students' out-of-school text pleasures. Some of these implications relate to the context for the reading, the types of text that are made visible, the amount of time allocated, and the place of reading recommendations.

4.6.3 *Avenues Available for Out-of-School Reading to be Conspicuous in School*

There were several opportunities for students to bring their own text choices into their English programmes. In the focus group discussions students spoke about the sustained reading opportunities that the three schools ran, teacher choices of text for class study and the use of reading logs.

4.6.3.1   *Sustained reading opportunities*

All schools in this study provided students with the opportunity for sustained silent

reading (SSR) in one form or another. School 4 ran an SSR programme in which the

whole school participated every day for 25 minutes after lunchtime. Students could

bring their own reading material and read it in their vertical form class. At the other

two schools, Year 10 students had a regular one-hour library period for SSR

(fortnightly or on a seven day timetable cycle, respectively) during which their

English teachers accompanied them. Students pointed out the shortcomings of this

dedicated reading time.

Lyman Hunt reportedly first proposed SSR in the 1960s as a devoted specified

time for student silent reading of self-chosen books accompanied by teacher

modelling, to foster a positive attitude to reading (Chua, 2008; M. Manning, Lewis, &

Lewis, 2010; Reutzel, Jones, Fawson, & Smith, 2008). Studies have supported using

school time for pleasure reading to increase reading mileage - which has a compelling

link to reading achievement (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1997; Guthrie et al., 1999) -

and reading motivation (Chua, 2008; McKool, 2007; Yoon, 2002). It is posited that

"providing a fixed period of time for students to read materials of their own choosing

either for pleasure or for information facilitate their attitude toward reading" (Yoon,

2002, p. 186). In addition, teachers "modeling good habits" (M. Manning et al., 2010,

p. 113) increases student attention to text (Wheldall & Entwhistle, 1988) and is "an

effective functional intervention that can be used to increase student engagement"

(Methe & Hintze, 2003, p. 617). However, by the year 2000 doubts were raised about

the effectiveness of SSR in this form, with the National Reading Panel (NRP) in the

United States questioning its relationship to reading achievement and effectiveness if

used as "the only type of reading instruction" (National Reading Panel, 2000, p. 13).

As Bryan, Fawson, and Reutzel (2003) claim, "simply providing all students the time to self-select their own books and read silently did not guarantee that they would actively engage in silent reading" (p. 47), or similarly, that they would "make good use of SSR time" (Reutzel et al., 2008, p. 195). Krashen criticised the NRP report (Krashen, 2001, 2005) and repudiated further criticisms of panel members (Shanahan, 2004; Stahl, 2004) because the evidence used was not from programmes that followed recommended guidelines for effective SSR implementation. These guidelines are encapsulated by Pilgreen's (2000) eight factors for SSR success, and consider access (providing reading materials), appeal (the range of materials appealing to student interests), the reading environment (comfort and interactive activity), encouragement (which includes teacher modelling and student sharing of reading), staff training (organisation and implementation advice), non-accountability (not following reading with formal assessments), follow-up activities (that "sustain excitement" (Pilgreen, 2000, p. 16) and encourage further reading), and distributed reading time (short periods of SSR several times a week). These guidelines go beyond Hunt's initial concept (as reported in Chua, 2008; M. Manning et al., 2010; Reutzel et al., 2008). It might not be surprising then, that SSR received criticism from the NRP. Krashen (2011) argues that "when a significant number of students are not engaged in reading during SSR, it is a sign that important guidelines for SSR have been violated" (p. 5) and McKool (2007) maintains that if "not implemented effectively, it [SSR] will not yield the results educators are looking for" (p. 126).

Recent studies also suggest elements that constitute successful SSR programmes, with some suggesting a name change. These elements and name changes can be seen, for example, in Kelley and Clausen-Grace's (2006) R^5 (read, relax, reflect, respond, and rap), or Scaffolded Silent Reading (ScSR) (Reutzel et al.,

2008) or Structured Independent Reading (IR) (Fountas & Pinnell, 2001; Trudel, 2007). Despite title differences, there are high levels of researcher agreement about what constitutes successful approaches that build on the initial SSR idea. Elements in these approaches include providing a wide variety of reading materials aligning with student interests and providing challenge, incorporating the explicit teaching of book selecting strategies and helping individuals choose appropriate texts, allowing students to abandon texts when they have chosen poorly, providing opportunities for student conversations about their texts and making recommendations to each other, and teacher conferencing with individuals about their reading choices. These conferences could include discussions about chosen texts, setting goals, and providing feedback on the quantity and quality of what individuals are reading. In addition, there is often an accountability element, where students might keep such things as reading logs and give book talks.

It is paramount that there is adequate provision of a broad range of reading material for any extensive reading programme. Lesesne (2003) stresses the need for "the right book for the right reader at the right time" in her publication's title and asserts that a good choice motivates students to read more. McQuillan et al. (2001) recommend that the reading material is "appealing and comprehensible" (p. 73) and others emphasise that texts need to be in harmony with students' interests (Bryan et al., 2003; Fountas & Pinnell, 2001; Kelley & Clausen-Grace, 2009). At times this might mean that some students are reading, for instance, magazines and comics (McKool, 2007). This concurs with Krashen's (2011) suggestion that "lighter reading can be of enormous benefit" (p. 8). McKool's avid readers "reported they liked reading books in school when they were given choice over materials and time to read for extended periods. They felt, however, that it was critical for teachers to allow

them to read whatever they wanted to read" and reluctant readers "revealed that true choice was really not an option during this period of uninterrupted reading because their teachers did not allow them to read their favourite materials (i.e. comic books or magazines)," while others commented that they "didn't have access to the kinds of materials they wanted to read" (McKool, 2007, p. 125); access to what students like to read is important (Worthy et al., 1999), as is material that students can read independently (J. C. Marshall, 2002). In addition, while important to have materials that align with student interests, the materials themselves need to be interesting (Pilgreen, 2000).

Even when access is not an issue, many students require help with how to make selections. L.B Gambrell (2011) notes that struggling readers often make poor text choices. These students need teaching text selection strategies and teacher assistance when choosing (Reutzel et al., 2008; Reutzel, Jones, & Newman, 2010; Trudel, 2007; Wutz & Wedwick, 2005). A 2003 study of United Kingdom teenagers found that "one in five would read more if they simply knew what to read" (Nestle United Kingdom Ltd, 2003, p. 14). Furthermore, even when students have managed to make selections, some need encouragement to abandon any poor choices they make, as poor choices interfere with any possible positive reading outcomes (Atwell, 2007; Bryan et al., 2003).

The opportunity for discussing reading selections with peers is advocated by many researchers. Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) suggest that these conversations have a positive effect on students' text engagement and motivation to read independently. Building on this, Parr and Maguiness (2005) introduced a conversational aspect to a traditional SSR model and found that student discussions about reading choices encouraged more independent reading. G. L. Manning and Manning (1984) assert that

students want to be allowed to share what they have read, Kasten and Wilfong (2007) discovered that students enjoy other students' recommendations and need to share and discuss books, Hopper (2005) posits that recommendations are significant in teenagers' book choices, and earlier research shows that students are extremely influenced by peer reading recommendations (Appleby & Connor, 1965; Wendelin & Zinck, 1983; Worthy, 1998). In addition, Lee-Daniels and Murray (2000) found such discussions not only positively affect students' attitudes, but also their reading achievement.

Many of the recent suggestions for improving the SSR model suggest an element of student accountability. In terms of the investment – in providing appropriate materials, teacher expertise and valuable learning time – this seems appropriate. Formal assessment would run counter to the philosophy of SSR as a time for encouraging reading for pleasure and leisure, and this seems to be the accountability that Krashen (2011) does not support when he says "there will be more reading engagement if there is minimum or zero accountability" (p. 5). SSR is, perhaps, the only reading opportunity students have in English programmes that is not followed by writing. However, many support accountability via one-on-one conversations with the teacher (Fountas & Pinnell, 2001; Reutzel et al., 2008; Reutzel et al., 2010; Trudel, 2007). These conversations can give an opportunity for teacher feedback and progress monitoring, the maintenance of records of what is read, provide opportunities for student refection on their reading, and goal setting for further engagement (Reutzel et al., 2008; Reutzel et al., 2010; Trudel, 2007). It is suggested that when teachers guide, monitor, give feedback and require accountability in these ways, previously disengaged students stay on task (Bryan et al., 2003) and

students make gains in later formal reading assessments (Gainer, 2013; Kelley &

Clausen-Grace, 2006)

So, what is SSR like for the focus group students in these three schools? In

school 4 there was a school-wide SSR programme for 25 minutes after lunch held in

their vertical form class. This meant that most teachers were involved in the SSR

session and each class comprised Year 9 through to Year 13 students. Students were

required to bring their own reading materials for this. They were allowed to read just

about anything, including books, magazines, comics and newspapers. If they forgot

their texts, some teachers had a small collection of "old stuff" for the students to read.

However, in many of the rooms there were no additional materials and there was little

or no structure to this 25-minute daily slot. All of these eight students agreed that they

did very little in their SSR time each day.

Catherine:	Oh no we're allowed to talk, like relaxing.
Siya:	Depends on what the teachers are like.
Cherl:	Some teachers are really strict and there are some [who are just] laid back and let you talk the whole time.
Saba:	I talk.
Kale:	Coz you know, we have people from Year 13 down to Year 9 in all our form classes and the whole idea of that was that people get to interact more, but then in the SSR thing you stop people from talking [which] kind of renders the whole point of SSR really.

Here Kale refers to the peer support and peer mentoring aim of vertical forms

being in conflict with the silent reading aspect of SSR – and that the student talk

during SSR is connected to neither reading support nor reading mentoring. The

students regularly forgot their books and there was no consistent teacher-instigated

consequence attached to this. There was a lack of appropriate resourcing in terms of

the elements identified by the research cited above, particularly in terms of providing

interesting texts aligned with students' interests, assistance with choosing texts, the

conversational aspects to increase reading engagement, and teacher involvement to

increase student accountability. There was little or no teacher monitoring and the student reports suggest that the programme did little to cultivate positive attitudes to reading for pleasure. Discussing how to choose reading material and conversations among the students about their reading did not occur. Having vertical forms as classes for SSR, with students of Year 9 through to Year 13, would make these conversations challenging even if encouraged, given the range of reading interest and abilities between 13-year-olds and 17-year-olds. Minton (1980) recommends that school-wide programmes at a set time need to be accompanied by staff professional development on successful implementation and that a long enactment period is required to gain appropriate staff support. He also notes that many teaching spaces are not conducive to SSR (such as specialist teaching rooms). Despite the significant class time invested in the programme, (over two hours a week in 25 minute slots), research suggests that these slots might have been ineffectual even if carefully monitored and resourced. G. Ivey and Johnston (2013) argue that "if students can constrain their reading to a 20-minute period set aside in school, they likely are not engaged" (p. 18). The programme in this school, according to the focus group students, did not increase their reading engagement nor facilitate their bringing their own texts into the school world.

In both school 7 and school 10, Year 10 students had an hour of dedicated wide reading time in the library with their English teacher. For the school 4 students this occurred every two weeks, while in school 10 it was on a seven-day timetable cycle. Because this was overseen by the English teachers, arguably those who had a knowledge of and a vested interest in the affordances that a dedicated reading time could offer students, and who might have knowledge of their students' reading interests and abilities, this could have been an opportunity to increase student text engagement by helping with text choices, encouraging conversations about what

students read, increasing student accountability for the reading investment and bringing students' reading interests and texts into the school environment.

None of the school 7 students brought their home reading to these sessions. There was a choice of magazines, comics and library books for the students to read and they all indicated that they did do some reading during these sessions. Irene's comment that "we have to," showed that the teachers monitored the time so that reading did take place. However, the students reported no conversations about how to choose material or to discuss what they were reading. The boys indicated that they usually read comics, while Ann's text selection process was to "find the one that's, like, in the side of the chair that someone's pushed down," while Irene read "whatever I can find that looks interesting." Although they made reading choices, they seemed random and not based on finding highly engaging texts that might increase their long term leisure reading. If they did find a library book that interested them, they were able to issue it to take home, but they needed a library card for this and Ann said, "I never have my library card. I forget it. It's at home." The library issuing system meant that there was, therefore, little text continuity between the reading sessions, or between the library session and home reading. If students did find extended material that interested them, they ended up searching for it on their return visit and seldom finding it. They indicated that when they did read long material, it was not usually self-selected. Leon noted that "sometimes we have to read books for English," showing that teacher-selected material for in-class study was often read during these SSR opportunities.

In school 10 it was also evident that most teachers monitored that reading took place in SSR. The students could also take their library reading choices home and the library system made this easy. There were variations amongst the student experiences,

though. Subin, Minjun and Alice were in different classes and their comments showed

that expectations varied from teacher to teacher:

Subin: We read anything, like magazines.
Minjun: You can't read magazines.
Subin: No. Like, in our classroom everybody reads magazines because our
                teacher lets us, but other classrooms they don't. So we all read
                magazines.
Minjun: We have to read novels.
Alice: We have to read a book.

However, there were several similarities from class to class. There were no

discussions about choosing books or what texts the students were enjoying. Teachers

did no formal monitoring of what students chose and there was no student

accountability. Minjun summed up the sessions when he said, "We just get there first

and just choose our books and sit down and start reading."

Access to a range of reading material did not seem to be an issue in school 7

and 10 but, as with school 4, there was no programme in place for the reading time.

There were no sessions on how to make reading choices, no monitoring of student

progress and enjoyment, no talks about reading material to enhance engagement and

help selection, and no feedback to students or reading conversations between teachers

and individuals. In short, there was a shortfall of the elements that the literature

suggests encourage student reading engagement and which recognise student choice.

4.6.3.2   *Reading log activities*

Students' out-of-school reading can also enter the school gates via reading logs. These

reflect students' leisure reading and allow teachers the opportunity to recognise,

engage with and build on the reading students do in their own time. In Year 11, the

first year of New Zealand high stakes national assessment, an English Achievement

Standard that encompasses wide reading and encourages the keeping of logs, was

fully implemented in 2012. Prior to this, wide reading was recognised in

qualifications at Year 11 by Unit Standard 8808. Many English departments begin their students on logs when they enter secondary school and Year 10 students can begin their work towards the Standard. In the teacher interviews, Phil (school 7) indicated this was the case with his students, while Nick (school 10) said that his students kept logs that were assessed, but not for the Standard. In the teachers' survey, several teachers at school 4 indicated that they learned about students' reading interests via their logs. Reading logs were, therefore, an accepted practice in all three schools.

In school 4 there were a variety of approaches to the log. Cherl's teacher expected her to read out-of-school and make log entries every three weeks, whereas Dominic and Kale's teacher did little monitoring of reading logs. However, both boys were certain that he did expect them to read out-of-school and they did, because they liked reading and because of their perception of their teacher's expectations. Shelley and Saba's teacher expected their logs to be done in school holidays. This teacher gave students suggestions of things they could write about in their logs and this also happened in some of the other classes. Cherl's teacher "gave us a sheet at the beginning of the year that had questions you could start it off with." There were variations in the recognition students got for this reading and how much the teacher engaged with the log content. On the whole, logs were not followed up rigorously. Those classes who did them handed them in once a year and some classes got a mark, others a grade (similar to the Standard) and others got a stamp on their work. When Catherine said this, the others laughed, as they thought it was very minimal recognition of not just their logs, but also of their reading. There were no teacher-student conferences or discussions about the logs, so the logs did not function to increase student engagement with reading nor make them feel that their out-of-school

reading choices mattered. They did acknowledge, however, that they thought they could go beyond books for their entries and include Internet reading and articles. None of them mentioned that newspapers, comics or magazines might be appropriate, and it could be argued that this was because teachers had not suggested a wide range of text for the log activity. All of the students agreed with Shelley when she said she did not like doing the log and Cherl said that writing it was "just like extra work."

Students in school 7 were very aware that they were working towards the assessment Standard 8808. They had been told which types of text they should use:

Irene:	We can do short stories, novels, poems.
Ann:	Yeah poems as well.
Steve:	Proper poems.
Irene:	We just can't use songs.
Leon:	I don't see the difference.

All of these students, despite being in different classes, completed their logs in class, on one occasion. This was carried out as an open-book assessment and students could bring notes they had mapped out. Steve described it this way: "because it's open book you're allowed to look at your book, you're allowed to bring little notes and stuff … I go home, I write my main points and some people, like even some of my friends, just write the whole thing, get to school, rewrite the whole thing." This was a very rigid approach to the 8808 Standard these students were doing. The Standard's intent was to encourage and recognise wide reading over a length of time. What the assessment recommended, which was in place to ensure the authenticity of the student responses, was for the teacher to choose one log entry from a student and have a one-to-one discussion with the student about the reading. The in-class open book assessment did not violate the Standard assessment criteria, but was in conflict with its intent – that is, to reward ongoing out-of-school reading and encourage reading engagement. The

New Zealand National Qualifications Authority (NZQA) clarification statement about this Standard says:

> People credited with this unit standard are able to read an inclusive range of written texts and record the reading experience. Teachers are reminded of special note 1 which states that: "This unit standard is derived from the Personal Reading achievement objectives in English in the New Zealand Curriculum. Personal reading means reading for pleasure and personal development." This concept is re-emphasised in the level 6 indicators for listening, reading and viewing: "students will select and read texts for enjoyment and personal fulfilment." (level 6, English, The New Zealand Curriculum, 2007)

In addition, the Standard goes beyond the types of text these students said were stipulated by their teachers. The standard range statement stipulated that texts "may include novel, short stories, drama, poetry, magazine article, newspaper article, biography, reference book, website," and NZQA recommends that "teachers … help students select appropriate texts … teachers are encouraged to recommend texts and to allow students time to 'sell' their favourite texts to the class. Class and/or library displays are highly recommended" (New Zealand National Qualifications Authority, n.d.).

This school's interpretation of the Standard, and how the reading might be logged, did not reflect the Standard's intent, encourage wide reading for pleasure, nor acknowledge students' reading interests. There is some evidence that when an emphasis is put on assessment, students are less motivated to read (Guthrie & Davis, 2003) and that "this new academic spin on reading has the effect of taking the pleasure out of reading" (Lenters, 2006, p. 143).

In school 10 the reading log appeared to be a course requirement for all of the students but there was very little teacher monitoring of it. Although the focus group was held near the end of the school year, students still seemed a bit uncertain about the log and its function:

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Nigel: We were given the option [to keep one] but I don't know how many
            people have followed it.
Minjun: We have had one … but our English teacher left at beginning of Term
            3 and it stopped there.
Alice: It's part of our end of year mark I think.

When I asked if it was for a Standard, Subin thought it was for practice for the

following year. It appeared that there had been very little on-going teacher discussion

or monitoring of the logs in terms of content and completion, and the students showed

very little engagement with the process. This was in contrast to what Nick, one of the

teachers at the school, said. He indicated that keeping a log was a requirement in the

English department scheme and should reflect in and out-of-school reading. However,

he also said that "it does seem to be one of those standards or junior tasks, assessment

tasks that gets overlooked despite our best intentions." Despite Nick saying that the

log reflected in and out-of-school reading, the focus group students from this school

indicated that it was book reading that their teachers valued. They never entered their

Internet reading, even though Minjun said, "but it's still reading." I asked them if this

was because they thought it did not meet teacher expectations or if it was because

they had not thought of doing it. Nigel said, "I don't think that would be okay, it's not

as long as a book would be" and Alice agreed. Minjun nodded and added, " normally

I think the teacher expects us to just do it on books 'cause she never says write

anything you did on the Internet but they just always say write what you read with a

book or something. Never on the Internet." Alice followed this up by saying that in

her class instructions "it says books." For the same reasons, the students never entered

their newspaper reading, even though several of them enjoyed reading articles and

regularly read newspapers either in hard copy or online.

    In all three schools, according to the students, the reading log appeared to

be a token gesture towards out-of-school reading and in two schools functioned as a tool for national assessment. The use of the logs reflected none of the SSR elements that researchers suggest can contribute to student development and engagement in reading, such as students recommending texts to each other and teacher text discussions with individuals and monitoring progress, to name a few. The logs were not an avenue for students' out-of-school reading to be recognised and valued in school, and there were restrictions on the types of text that could be logged. Despite the students thinking that their teachers preferred book reading in the logs, not all books were valued. This was particularly evident when Subin commented that she mainly read books in Korean and Manga, and her teacher "prefers English books. I'm not allowed to put that in. I was reading Korean books and she said oh that's not allowed." Australian research has also found that the out-of-school literacy practices and text choices of students whose first language is not English are even more invisible than those of native English speakers (J. Ryan, 2005).

4.6.3.3   *Teacher choices of text for class study*

In New Zealand there is no list of prescribed texts for study in English. Teachers use their professional judgement to choose texts that should engage, challenge and contribute to students' literary and reading appreciation. The curriculum document recommends the use of New Zealand and world literature (Ministry of Education, 2007, p. 18) and assessment documents for Year 11 extended text study stipulate that texts chosen for study should be at a Year 11 curriculum level (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2011). More guidance was given in the previous curriculum document for English, which stated "students should read a range of literature, including popular literature, traditional stories, children's literature and literary texts

with established critical reputations " and that "all levels should encourage

enjoyment, breadth and variety" (Ministry of Education, 1994, p. 16).

The students were clear that sometimes they did not like the texts their

teachers chose. They commented that they would like a wider range of text in class,

including magazines and web sites. When I asked them about the literature that they

studied in class, some texts failed to engage them. The students made comments that

they often had "too much description and not enough action" and "some of them can

be very dragged out and boring." Such comments reflected their preferences for

adventure and action in their out-of-school choices. It could be argued, perhaps, that

English teachers' choices have more "action within character" than "character in

action." But it was not only the choices, but also the approaches to text study that

failed to increase their enjoyment.

The school 10 students mentioned particular choices their teachers had made:

Alice: The novel study we did this year, I didn't think it was that great …
            Children of the Dust. Yeah I didn't really enjoy it.
Nigel: Last year we did a kind of novel thing on *Fahrenheit 451* which sort of
            ruined the whole book for me. We took it apart.
Minjun: It was a bad book.

Nonetheless, on the whole, they were somewhat supportive of their teachers' choices.

When I asked Minjun and Nigel (above) if they liked the choices, they admitted:

Minjun: They're not too good but they're not bad.
Nigel: Mmm.

Steve and Leon, in school 7, said that they were generally interested in the

novels their teacher chose because "they are regarded as good books," and

"sometimes they're alright." Steve thought that, generally, the choices were good but

that there needed to be a broad range each year, so that there was change. For

instance, he noted that, "each year you sort of read the same. I know my sister is

reading *To Kill A Mockingbird* at the moment, just for school, so you kind of have a

set thing and next year we'll probably be doing *To Kill A Mockingbird.*"

Other studies have found students less supportive of teacher text choice

(Worthy, 1998) and an "imposition, inconvenience, and interference with current

reading interests" (Bintz, 1993, p. 612). The students in school 4 made comments

similar to those in the other schools. Two of these students though, boys, made quite

impassioned pleas for text choices within a novel study, such as mini sets of novels to

choose from or different novels for each individual – and there is some evidence to

support the role of choice in reading materials to have the potential to "positively

affect high-stakes assessments" (D. N. Morgan & Wagner, 2013, p. 666). The two

boys thought choice would engage them more:

Mark: You've chosen that you want to read it. It's not like forced.
Kale: You pick something that more suits you or what you feel suits you,
           rather than something that the teacher sets everybody to read. It can
           make you think about what you like and you can see what other people
           like as well … you can also talk to your friends or whatever, and you
           discover about those things as well.

Kale accompanied this with lots of animated hand gesturing and seemed quite

enthusiastic about the idea of being able to choose his own set text and talk about

choices with peers. His reaction was similar to that described by G. Ivey and Johnston

(2013), based on recent interviews with 71 students, their teachers and observational

data, when they say "students mentioned the significance of choice in combination

with relevant and engaging books to choose from as an important factor in their

engagement … relationships were a central part of the process … because friends

wanted friends to share the experience and conversation" (p. 14). Empirical research

has shown that collaborative talk, – or "literate conversation" (Allington, 2007, p.

281) - which Kale thought would increase his enjoyment and engagement with

reading choices, does in fact increase students' reading motivation and text

comprehension (Applebee, Langer, Nystrand, & Gamoran, 2003; S. Ivey & Guthrie, 2008) and can "expand their views of themselves as readers" (Lapp & Fisher, 2009, p. 561). G. Ivey and Johnston (2013) argue that this increase in students' views of their own competence increases their sense of autonomy and agency which "leads students to work harder, to become more invested in their learning, to persevere in the face of difficulty and to stretch to more ambitious [reading] goals" (p. 18).

While generally supportive of the texts teachers chose for extended text study, most of the students said they would not read these texts from choice when out-of-school. It was apparent that the same text did not work for all students and that giving students choice within a study would add to their engagement. The boys in the focus groups were less critical of their teachers' choices of texts to study in class than the girls, and this was, surprisingly, in contrast to the students in Australian studies (Manuel & Robinson, 2002; J. Ryan, 2005), who, it might be argued, were schooled in a system similar to that of New Zealand. The boys in my focus groups had been purposively selected for their high computer activity and it was beginning to emerge in the focus group conversations that they were also readers of other materials.

The focus groups gave student voice to what research literature has been suggesting. Researchers have recommended allowing students to choose their texts for class study (Fisher & Ivey, 2007; G. Ivey & Broaddus, 2001; Meltzer, Smith, & Clark, 2001), providing a range of choices for these studies (Moore, Bean, Birdyshaw, & Rycik, 1999; Pitcher, Martinez, Dicembre, Fewster, & McCormick, 2010), and using students' preferred reading materials (Pitcher et al., 2007). Practitioners have also joined the call by advocating for the use of mini-sets of titles for class study rather than one title for everyone (Simpson, 1995) and using strategies such as collaborative literature circles (Burns, 1998; DaLie, 2001) to facilitate multi-text

teaching and student engagement. As early as 1942, the New Zealand Thomas Report on the post primary school curriculum advocated "the whole class need not read the same book at the same time" (New Zealand Department of Education, 1959, p. 21), yet it is taking a long time for this to be evidenced in practice.

4.6.4 *Students' Digital Text Use and Digital Literacy*

The focus group students' diaries revealed that the three computer activities, on which they spent the most time, were related to social networking, researching and completing homework, with the latter two often connected. I was interested in the students' reading practices online and whether these were strengthened by, or integrated into, the activities they did in subject English classrooms. Because the students indicated that their main activity, besides social networking, was researching for school and for personal information, it was their researching practices that came to the fore in the focus group discussions on digital text. The focus group students had been chosen because of their comparatively high computer use, as indicated in their student surveys, so I had an expectation that they would be proficient and effective users of online information. In addition, I was interested in whether school had recognised the students' out-of-school high use of Web 2.0 for social networking, and its implications for student safety.

The American Library Association (ALA) defines an information literate person as having the ability "to recognize when information is needed and have the ability to locate, evaluate, and use effectively the needed information" (American Library Association, 1989). Within such a definition there are skills such as question formation, brainstorming, categorising, skimming and scanning, using contents pages and indexes, note making, evaluating material, synthesising information and presenting findings. Since the formulation of this definition there has been the advent

of the World Wide Web and students have also been searching online texts and, therefore, the skills of using search engines and databases, and testing the veracity of unreviewed material, can be added to the above. In short, the concept of information literacy as locating, evaluating, synthesising and communicating information, also operates in the online environment. The five areas identified by members of the New Literacies Research Lab (Mokhtari et al., 2008, p. 354) around which online reading comprehension centres, reinforces the above information literacy skills:

(1) reading online to generate a problem or question from one's social context;

(2) reading to locate information online;

(3) reading to critically evaluate information online;

(4) reading to synthesize information online from multiple sources;

(5) reading to communicate and exchange information online with others.

Although research on the complexities of reading in an online environment is, relatively, in its infancy (Coiro & Dobler, 2007; Leu et al., 2007), this indicates the close relationship between information literacy and online reading comprehension. The New Zealand curriculum and Ministry of Education materials have for some time incorporated a need to develop students' abilities to be adept, critical and responsible users of ICTs to maximise twenty-first century technologies and information in their current, and future, leisure and working lives (Ministry of Education, 2003a, 2003b, 2007). For instance, vision statements in *The New Zealand Curriculum* aim for students to be "effective users of communication tools," "critical and creative thinkers" and "active seekers, users, and creators of knowledge" (Ministry of Education, 2007, p. 8) and the section on effective pedagogy (pp. 24-26) stresses the development of students' information and critical literacy with Internet text.

There is, however, international evidence that many teachers are not explicitly teaching information literacy skills (Combes, 2009; Oblinger & Oblinger, 2005; Walraven et al., 2008), resulting in students not developing the skills they need to become critical and efficient users of informational text, including online informational text. Students born after 1985 have often been called "digital natives" while their parents and teachers are "digital immigrants," terms coined by Prensky (2001). The assumption is that, because they have grown up with the technology, today's students are 'tech savvy'. Teachers and parents, feeling insecure about their own lack of technical skills with information technologies, seem too often impressed by students' familiarity with technology and the online world. However, research is demonstrating that many students, while skilful when engaged in online personal communications or in downloading music to personal devices, are in fact much less knowledgeable when searching for and using online information (Combes, 2009).

New Zealand research also demontrates that prior to the advent of the Web, many students were not developing information literacy skills. The New Zealand National Education Monitoring Project (NEMP), which reports on the achievement of Year 4 and Year 8 students, showed that there was little evidence of an increase in information skills between 1997 and 2005 (Crooks & Flockton, 1998; Flockton, Crooks, & Baker, 2002; Flockton, Crooks, & White, 2006). Few Year 4 and Year 8 students could describe a coherent process or strategy for finding and using information for a research or study topic, and less than 50% were able to ask two or three 'strong' questions for an inquiry, even when working with others. Students also lacked evaluative skills and were indiscriminate in their use of Internet information. Furthermore, an Education Review Office (Education Review Office, 2005) evaluation of almost 400 New Zealand schools revealed that information literacy was

not well developed in most schools and particularly not in secondary schools. There was little evidence that schools were explicitly and systematically implementing an information process model across the curriculum, and few schools collected achievement data to show improvement in student information literacy skills. Similar conclusions were reached by Hipkins (2005a), whose research into the inquiry process used in internally assessed aspects of NCEA in Years 11 - 13, noted that many students were not being taught generic information literacy skills. Students also understood research to be no more than "information retrieval and repackaging" (Hipkins, 2005a, p. 27).

Given this context, it was interesting to hear how the focus group students, chosen for their high computer usage, described their own online research strategies. All of the students used the Google search engine as their first research step. They mentioned three strategies at this point. They all usually entered a key word, but three (18.7%) said that they sometimes asked a question and one would sometimes enter a phrase. None were using key words connected by Boolean symbols and none used a search engine other than Google, reinforcing other findings on students' limited searching skills (Hague & Payton, 2010).

After using the search engine, there was agreement that the strategy for choosing a site was to enter the first listed. Student reasons for operating this way were expediency and "I think it's the best one," or "It's usually, like, the first one that's the most viewed and most reliable." However, when probed for elaboration there was more happening. Dominic said, "I tend to look more at what it says in the caption below," showing that he skim read before entering sites, and Alice said, "If I think it's something that I think relates to the topic and has some of the keywords, like lots of them," showing that she was drawing on her prior knowledge of the topic and

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key words, and Nigel said, "if it's an extremely long name I probably won't go for it because it's probably fake," showing one of his strategies for checking site authenticity. If the students judged the site as not very useful, using these strategies, they looked at the second on the list, with some (18.7%) going to the third. None went further. It was also clear that if the students did not at first understand what they read, they did not persist but moved rapidly to another site. On the whole, they were satisfied with the first search engine result. As Hague and Payton (2010) posit, students rely:

> on their chosen search engine to display the most relevant and reliable websites at the top of the list of search results. Many have little understanding of how search terms work or the powerful commercial forces that can result in a particular company being top of the search engine's list. (p. 10)

This is a view borne out by other researchers (L. Johnson, Smith, Willis, Levine, & Haywood, 2011; Rowlands et al., 2008).

Once a site was accessed, many of the students (75%) made judgements as to trustworthiness based on what it looked like - in Nigel's words, "whether it looks dodgy." I asked them to explain what they looked for to test "dodginess," and all three groups talked about layout, graphics and colour. A site was untrustworthy if "it just looks cheap," or "it looks confusing," and was trustworthy if "it's nicely presented, it's not just white background, black writing" because that "shows a professionalism" and "it doesn't have the adverts or pop ups." Also popular were sites where the layout was divided into sections, "'cause if it's, like, in one big chunk you probably wouldn't want to read it" and "if it's the subheading you're looking for then you can actually read what you're looking for, so you don't have to read the whole thing." As for the reliability of the information, most students (93.7%) were trusting after having made their initial layout judgements.

I asked the students how they knew if the information on the site was accurate. Their responses included, "You don't," "I don't know, I just go on it," and "You trust it." Dominic summed up what the students were saying when he said, "If it sounds convincing it probably is true." If the students found information on what their search topic required, then they used it without any critical analysis, although Nigel did say he gave thought to "what I know about the topic" showing that, for him, there was some prior knowledge check. Nigel was also the only one who checked several sites to ensure that they gave similar information. He talked about his father teaching him how to find information online; he had not learnt these prior knowledge and authentication strategies at school.

The strategy students had for using the information was to cut and paste it into an MS Word document and work with it from there. This did not entail interpretation, analysis or synthesis. Their approach was simpler. All agreed that they copied those sentences needed for their research or copied and pasted the whole page and then, as Irene said, "I choose, like, what I need for my research and the rest I just delete." The students also lacked confidence in their own writing ability. Steve said, "You always paste it in first, then get rid of the stuff you don't want and then you can kind of write in your own words … but sometimes it's really hard to like make it in your own words when it's written so nicely," and Leon noted that he did not want to "dumb it down" by making too many changes.

When writing up findings, rather than using their own report structure, students stayed with the order in which information was reported in the source text. If any information did not seemed to 'fit' after their initial deletions (which they called "editing"), then that was also deleted. All students knew the need to write references for their work, but with so many only using one site for research (75%), I was

interested to see how this was achieved. Strategies ranged from listing the sources that their chosen site listed, putting in sites that they had not used but which had come up on their initial Google search, and making them up. As Leon said, "You go to Wikipedia and you look up all the references and sources and you write them down from there" and, as Steve noted, "It's not like they're going to check everyone's assignment and go onto the sites and see if there's any information there." The students did suggest that if teachers gave them "several URLs" and a couple of articles or chapters in books from which to choose information, and which also built their prior knowledge, then they would be unable to plagiarise because teachers would know their information sources and also it would stop them from adding false references. They suggested that the prior knowledge work would enable them to judge information more accurately.

I asked each focus group to describe a time a teacher had helped them with research skills. It became apparent that there was little help given, although this varied somewhat from school to school. Students from school 4 (eight of the 16 students) noted, "They kind of expect you to know because you're already at high school." One stated that she could not remember a time when she had had some help. Those from school 4 reported that their teachers gave minimal help and they reiterated that there seemed to be an assumption that research skills had been taught before students reached secondary school. Students from school 10 discussed how their teachers sometimes gave them a list of helpful sites but, when asked if their teachers had taught them how to conduct Internet research, their responses were similar to students from the other schools. No students reported receiving any help at secondary school when using books for research, apart from teachers taking them to the library. Again, students noted that teachers tended to assume that they had learned how to research

when at primary school, which is worrying, given the poor Year 4 and Year 8 NEMP information processing results reported above (Flockton et al., 2002; Flockton et al., 2006).

According to these 16 students, the most teachers were doing to help them with online research was sometimes to recommend sites. They believed that they had not been taught how to search the Internet using a variety of search engines and Boolean terms, how to check a site's currency, relevance and the credibility of its information, how to close read and critique that information and then to synthesise information responsibly from multiple sources into a structured research report. The comments about the lack of teacher help when researching and using Internet resources were often connected to their discussions that their teachers seem to assume that many of the necessary skills had been covered at lower curriculum levels.

The students mostly saw themselves as adept in accessing and using information. However, their reliance on Google and Wikipedia suggests that there is a need for further learning about the initial phase of the research process. They could increase research efficiency if aware of a variety of search engines and the use of Boolean search symbols. Add to this the use of class time to build background topic knowledge and students' decision-making processes for deciding which sites to visit, and students might increase not only their researching efficiency, but also its effectiveness. Critiquing and cross checking findings, employing strategies for assessing the reliability and currency of sites and developing skills in how to make notes and synthesise information, would enable students to report findings in a more responsible way than their popular cut and paste strategy. Furthermore, class work on the structure and language of the type of report required by a curriculum area would improve student ability to present findings. Currently, there is no evidence that

students are communicating new knowledge or using their findings in new or creative ways; student research, at its best, does not seem to go beyond a fact-finding approach. Arguably, the academic performance of these students will be hindered if they do not have critical information literacy skills and do not know how to carry out and report research investigations in an adept, critical and responsible manner. As Hague and Payton (2010) suggest, "they need help making sense of a rapidly changing world of technology which gives them access to vast amounts of information, which is infused with commercial agendas and which for many reasons can be difficult to interpret"(p. 10). In a knowledge-based world, these critical skills will also impact positively on their work and leisure lives. The concept of information literacy is "central to all successful learning and, by extension, to all successful living" (C. Doyle, 1994, p. 44), and Bruce (2002) refers to information literacy as the "catalyst" needed to transform "the information society of today into the learning society of tomorrow … bringing information practices that are effective in professional, civic and personal life into curriculum" (p. 4). These focus group students spent a lot of their out-of-school time carrying out research for personal or school purposes and, if given the opportunity to improve their information literacy skills, might find this an even more rewarding and engaging enterprise.

The focus group students' high use of social networking, evidenced in their diaries, is another reason for in-school recognition of their activities. Alongside the social and communication affordances of Web 2.0 come risks associated with privacy, bullying, spamming and other exploitation, and an increasingly permanent digital footprint. Livingstone and Brake (2010) argue that "two adolescent practices are likely to exacerbate online risk – the disclosure of personal information and the experimental nature of peer communication" (p. 78). In the social networking

environment, key factors for safety are managing the privacy settings of profiles and vigilence when accepting 'friends'. Knowledge of how to manage settings as well as being aware of the open nature and permanency of much Internet activity are part of being digitally literate. It has been posited that "addressing risk cannot be left solely to parents and children, as neither fully understands how to manage this online nor has sufficient resources to do so" (Livingstone & Brake, 2010, p. 80). Yet, in the student survey, it was out-of-school contacts who were teaching students about the Internet. I was, therefore, interested in the students' views of online safety and from where this knowledge came.

All of the students had had a teacher talk to them about being safe online. In school 4, the ICT teacher had taken on this role and shown them a video that demonstrated how easy it was to find personal information on Facebook. However, the eight students did not see this as affecting them. Mark said, "But how many millions of people are on Facebook and everything. Why would they just want to go for you?" Catherine followed this up with, "I don't understand how the Internet is dangerous." She did, nonetheless, know that, "You can make your page private and stuff." The Health classes in Year 9 had covered some aspects of safety at school 7 and the students knew to keep their passwords confidential. At school 10 the ICT teacher "sometimes talks to classes about it." These students knew to have privacy settings and not to post photos on Facebook that they would not want a stranger to see. Out of all of the 16 students, only two had the home computer in a communal area where everyone could see what was happening. Two other students had parents who would occasionally check on them to see what they were doing on the computer, and Steve said that sometimes his parents would check the search history. But, on the whole, there was limited home surveillance of what the students were doing online.

When I asked them why this was, their comments mainly centred on being trusted by their parents and having their privacy respected. There seemed to be little acknowledgement that the safety threat comes from without and is not necessarily a matter of trust. None of the students said that Internet safety had been discussed at home. They were aware that there were dangers and they had some strategies to keep themselves safe online, but the students in school 4 seemed to sum up the attitude of all of the focus group participants:

Kale: I don't really see how one person is going to target you out of the
             millions. It's kind of like swine flu.
Catherine: Mmm (nodding in agreement).
Dominic: You're not really aware until you catch it.
Mark: Most of the people are in America, so what are they going to do?

The issue of online safety is a new area for research and policy, and for families and schools. Internet predatory and bullying behaviour has increased. In 2013 a New Zealand government cabinet paper considered policy and legislative changes to address "harmful digital communications" (Cabinet Social Policy Committee, 2013) and to add to the National Administration Guidelines for schools. The focus group students' comments demonstrate that this area of digital literacy needs addressing in schools. However, it is not just safety from predatory behaviour that needs addressing. As Livingstone and Brake (2010) point out, students' "knowledge will lag behind the industry's fast-changing practices of embedded marketing, use of personal data, user tracking and so forth, most of which is opaque to young people as they navigate the options before them" (p. 80).

4.7 *Conclusion*

The 20 returned student diaries revealed that these students were reading and writing online material. Their activities particularly centred on writing and researching

material for school work and researching information pertinent to their personal lives and anxieties. In addition, they read and composed material online via social networking sites, supporting the contention that adolescents use social networking to forge friendships through reading and writing (Thomas, 2007). This is hardly surprising, given that the students had been chosen for the diary activity because they were the self-reported high computer and Internet users in the student survey. Nonetheless, the diaries did not reveal that they were involved in the wide range of computer activities in which overseas studies suggest adolescents immerse themselves (e.g., Ito et al., 2008; Lenhart et al., 2008).

Focus group discussions revealed that these high computer users were also readers of paper-based material, especially novels and magazines. They were, on the whole, intrinsically motivated to read, but were also extrinsically motivated by recognition; they wanted teachers and peers to acknowledge their reading, similar to the motivational picture of all survey participants. This, and other findings above, are echoed in a reading study in the United States where secondary student survey data on the qualities of motivational teachers and classrooms, indicated that 100% of respondents wanted "teachers who ask me what I like to read," 90% wanted "teachers who allow selection in reading material," and 80% wanted "time to read at school" (Lesesne & Buckman, 2001, p. 106).

There were several opportunities for students' out-of-school reading to be encouraged and recognized in school by both peers and teachers. Each school had an SSR programme in some form and students also participated in a reading log for out-of-school reading. The student discussions indicated, however, that these two avenues for recognition, sharing and encouragement of students' reading choices, were not meeting these aims. This was particularly poignant for students who read in their

home language and whose experiences were either invisible or undervalued. It has been suggested recently that there may be a link between the lack of encouragement in school for leisure reading and the decline in adolescents' out-of-school book reading (Merga, 2015). Sullivan and Brown (2013) argue for schools to be determined in supporting students' out-of-school reading, suggesting that:

> The positive link between leisure reading and cognitive outcomes is not purely due to more able children being more likely to read a lot, but that reading is actually linked to increased cognitive progress over time. From a policy perspective, this strongly supports the need to support and encourage children's reading in their leisure time. (p. 37)

My focus group findings strongly support a revision of SSR and reading log processes, so that they meet students' needs for encouragement in their out-of-school reading and optimise the outcomes of this considerable investment of classroom time.

When discussing the texts chosen for study in the English classroom, students said that they would seldom choose these teacher selected texts for their out-of-school reading, that they would like to choose texts for study from a selection and that one text did not suit all readers. Very recent data have shown 62.5% of girls and 78% of boys, from a sample of 2117 Australian adolescents, had experienced their "worst" book as one selected by their teacher for class study (Manuel & Carter, 2015). My findings show that teacher text choices did not seem to be drawing on students' repertoire of capabilities and interests – many of which are determined by their out-of-school literacy practices.

The out-of-school digital text use and digital literacy discussions in the focus groups demonstrated that these high users of digital text were not the effective and efficient users of such text, as might be assumed. They were not immersed in a variety of online activities, supporting the PISA 2009 finding about their digital confidence (Kirkham, 2011). Their information literacy skills did not include the critiquing or

synthesizing of information and at times consisted of the fact-finding and "copy and paste" strategy recent research has revealed. In addition, their social networking conversations demonstrated an unerring faith in their online safety through the sheer force of the number of users – they did not think they would be selected as targets for malevolent attacks. Nonetheless, they indicated that there was little work in their classrooms designed to increase their critical information literacy skills and any attempts to increase their cyber safety did not appear to be effective.

Many researchers indicate a mismatch between school practice and out-of-school literacy experiences of students and have made calls to reconceptualise adolescent literacy (Cairney & Ruge, 1998; Labbo, 2006; Unsworth, 2006). Some posit that this will increase classroom reading engagement (Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000; Labbo, 2006) and, by transferring the literacy skills students have out-of-school to school literacy learning, lead to improved student outcomes (Guthrie, 2002; Lankshear & Knobel, 2003; Love & Hamston, 2003). Others go so far as suggesting that to not do this increases the risk of disengaging students (Mallord, 2003), and that "structures and curricula in schools that are not responsive to students may foster both negative attitudes and school failure" (G. Ivey & Broaddus, 2001, p. 353).

Not only did the focus group discussions demonstrate that subject English needs more effectively to acknowledge and enhance students' out-of-school literacy activities, but also that to not do so is a missed opportunity to increase student engagement and efficacy in classroom reading, reading related activities and online activity. To ignore students' out-of-school text preferences and to not utilize and build on these in our classrooms in effective ways, has implications for the development of students' twenty-first century literacy skills, their text engagement and, if other studies are correct, their future lives.

This chapter has contributed findings to address my research questions by examining students' out-of-school digital reading and frequency. I have also examined student perspectives on the opportunities they have for their out-of-school reading to enter the school gates and whether these opportunities are successful. This has included findings on teachers' roles in motivating and encouraging student reading choices. Furthermore, students' critical information literacy skills have been considered, alongside student in-school experiences for expanding these. In the next chapter I move to the teacher view by presenting the findings of a teacher survey.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE BROAD VIEW: EXAMINING TEACHERS' TEXT PERCEPTIONS, TEXT CHOICES AND KNOWLEDGE OF STUDENTS' OUT-OF-SCHOOL READING USING A SURVEY
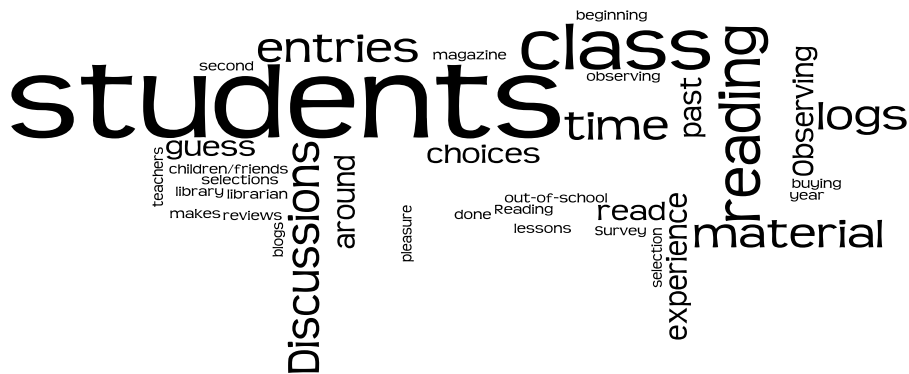
In this chapter I present the broad picture of the Year 10 teachers' text perceptions, which texts they value for extending Year 10 students' literacy skills and their classroom text choices. I also explore their knowledge of their students' out-of-school reading choices and digital literacy. I begin by explaining the survey and its pilotting. I then outline the participant recruitment process and the survey response rate. Next, I describe the teacher survey participants, how analysis was conducted and the reliability and validity of the survey process. I present the results of the teacher survey in the second part of the chapter. These relate to my study's main research inquiry examining whether students' out-of-school reading choices are recognised, supported and used for engaging students in learning within the English classroom. I also present related findings concerning teacher knowledge and perceptions of their students' out-of-school reading and critical information literacy.

5.1 *The Teacher Survey Instrument*

5.1.1 *The Teacher Survey*

The survey (Appendix F) contained both open and closed questions. Open questions

mainly elicited teacher definitions of terminology and understanding of concepts,

reasons to support perceptions of students' text selections and the purposes for which

classroom text is selected. I also provided space for respondents' optional comments,

in the hope it would reduce, among other things, any respondent frustrations with the

restrictive nature of closed options. Some posit that using open questions in surveys is

a common mistake made by beginning researchers (J. Doyle, n.d.; Robson, 2002), and

that they "should be avoided wherever possible" (Bethlehem, 2009, p. 51). I was also

aware that "open-ended questions are best used when people can answer verbally

rather than in writing" (de Vaus, 2002, p. 129), that they can "produce responses that

may be ambiguous, wide ranging and difficult to categorise" (Simmons, 2008, p.

193), and that "processing the answers to open questions is cumbersome" (Bethlehem,

2009, p. 51). However, open question responses can be "standardised to some extent

and can be precoded" (Jolliffe, 1986, p. 25) and, because my survey respondents were

English teachers and arguably well informed with opinions on the topic of the survey

and comfortable with writing, I was keen not to escalate any frustration they might

feel with having their responses shortened and limited by only having closed response

opportunities. I wanted depth to the closed questions, opportunities to check responses

to give more rigour to the self-report nature of the survey, (for instance, by asking for

examples of practice), and I was conscious of Cargan's (2007) warning that, "The

ease of simply checking of a response may lead to a lack of thinking through the issue

or conditioning the response. Pre-categorised answers may also reflect the bias of the

researcher" (p. 93). There were other obvious disadvantages to only using closed

question formats. For instance, they "force the respondent to choose between the answers provided" (Simmons, 2008, p. 192), and the "structuring of responses may overlook some important responses" (Babbie, 2007, p. 246). Open questions can alleviate this by avoiding the effect of the researcher on the result (Krosnick & Fabrigar, 1997). When making the initial decision to use open questions, I knew that the pilot would give me feedback on whether they were problematic. Adding space for elaboration made the survey longer, but the piloting would also show if this was a problem or demotivating. By using this mix of open and closed questions I also overcame Doyle's (n.d.) warning that beginning researchers "simply don't ask enough questions" (p. 8) and followed Cargan's (2007) advice that, "to allow for complexity and depth of the respondent's attitudes and feelings on the subject, open-ended questions *must* be used" (p. 94, my italics).

Closed questions were in the form of *yes/no* responses and 6-point positively packed frequency and ranking scales. I chose 6-point scales based on the literature on variations in rating scale format. While the issue of the number of points on a rating scale seems to be unresolved, several studies informed my decision. Using a self-administered questionnaire trialling two to 11 response categories, Preston and Colman (2000) found that, "On several indices of reliability, validity, and discriminating power, the 2-point, 3-point, and 4-point scales performed relatively poorly, and indices were significantly higher for scales with more response categories, up to about 7" (p. 1). These researchers acknowledge that time pressure and the necessity to avoid respondent frustration and demotivation may mean a shorter scale needs to be used. However, I decided that English teachers might find short scales frustrating when trying to express ideas adequately. Preston and Colman (2000) also found that "the most valid and discriminating [scales] were from those with six or

more response categories" (p. 10). Therefore, in the interests of validity, reliability and discrimination, I chose 6-point scales, but no more. A study by Brown (2004) using positively packed scales led to his conclusion that such scales "generated items with good variance in both the frequency and agreement response formats" (p. 1023) and that the "use of agreement anchors with a positively packed rating scale appears justified" (p. 1015). Moreover, research by Hancock and Klockars (1991) demonstrated a higher validity of ratings over a 5-point packed scale than over a 5-point balanced scale. Therefore, I positively packed the 6-point scales with four points at the positive end of the continuum and all points labelled. I also avoided the "don't know" or "other" options of some surveys, bypassing what Krosnick (1991) calls "satisficing," that is, an option that can reduce the need for thought on a respondent's part. I knew the intervals between points on the scales could not be presumed equal (Jamieson, 2004), and that this would have implications for analysis. The main ways I would need to describe findings would be via frequencies and percentages .

Section A of the survey sought teacher demographic information, years of experience teaching English, the country in which preservice teacher education had been completed, highest academic qualification in English and seniority in the school. Section B attempted to capture teacher conceptualisations of "text," aims when choosing classroom text, teacher perceptions of different text for enhancing Year 10 literacy practices, frequency of text choices for the Year 10 classroom, and what teachers thought students read out-of-school and how they knew this. The question on teacher aims for choosing text gave 10 aims for teachers to rank on a scale of importance. The 10 aims included two derived from the key competencies in *The New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2007) and referred to critical thinking and information processing skills. An aim connected with exploring language within

text was included to connect further with the English curriculum. Two other aims, closely connected with the topic of my research, sought to elicit whether texts were chosen with the aim of engaging students and connecting with their out-of-school interests. I included aims related to examination performance and department policy to ascertain whether there were perceived institutional constraints to text choices. The pilot study teachers recommended adding three other aims: to share good literature, to foster positive attitudes to reading, and to expose students to other cultures and experiences. Also, teachers could add any other aims they may have.

I listed 21 types of text for rating "usefulness as text for enhancing Year 10 literacy practices." That nine items (nearly 50%) were digital was deliberate, so teachers could opinion-rate digital text. Additionally, I selected hyperfiction for attention because it was the digital text form mentioned in the notes of two of the three Level 1 English Achievement Standards for the in-class study of texts. Questions on hyperfiction sought, via a nine-item list for rating, attitudes to the text form and constraints in selection of hyperfiction for the classroom. A question followed asking whether the teacher had selected any hyperfiction for class work, what had been selected and how students had reacted. This was irrelevant to those who had not chosen the text form, so I inserted a "skip" instruction to guide respondents past the irrelevant questions (Fink, 2009; Simmons, 2008). Teachers were asked to define other forms of digital text and list what they knew about students' digital literacy and reading motivation from research or experience. Questions in the survey are discussed in more detail in section 5.4 alongside the analysis of them.

5.1.2 *The Teacher Survey Pilot*

The teacher survey underwent three iterations. I initially piloted it with nine English teachers in a private girls' school (the same school as the student survey pilot). I chose this school because it was well resourced with books and ICTs, and had a vigorous teacher professional learning programme. The school's English teachers were active in their regional subject association and several had roles as markers in national examinations. I assumed that they would be able to give valuable feedback on the instrumentation, particularly clarity of instructions, ambiguity in questions, missing options and overall ease of use, as recommended by Bell (1999). As individuals, they initially completed the survey so that they could identify any difficulties. We then went through each question identifying any problems with wording, adding options if we thought they were not yet exhaustive, discussing the order of the questions and importantly, from my point of view, any aspects that might lead to respondent resistance to completing the survey. I sought advice on how they would like to be approached if they were potential respondents, because I wanted a high survey response rate. From this meeting, I made some changes to wording and layout for increased clarity, and added further choice options to one question so that the range became more varied and exhaustive (Cargan, 2007). The next piloting step was to administer the survey to teachers in four schools of deciles ten, six, four and three. Forty-one English teachers (that is, not just Year 10 teachers) completed the survey. This pilot allowed me practice in approaching teachers to get co-operation and in survey administration. I was able to check the time required to complete the survey, and to conduct an analysis. This analysis allowed me to check the clarity of instructions, the advanced coding of the closed questions, the route through the survey and whether this presented respondents with any problems (such as missing some

questions), and to check the scales I was using. The analysis and findings from this preliminary research were peer reviewed and published (Ladbrook, 2009). This pilot contributed to changes in the final survey. I had discovered there were aspects that I wanted more information about, particularly in terms of "how" and "why" questions. The survey was thus further refined. Although time consuming, I piloted extensively to obtain the optimum design validity possible, given time and budget constraints. I avoided one of the main criticisms of pilot studies, that of "contamination" (van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001, p. 3), by ensuring that none of the teachers who participated in the pilot phases (nor their surveys) was involved in the main study or analysis.

In addition to taking care with the wording, language, options provided, and scales used, I spent time on the order and layout because a badly laid out survey can result in a loss of data (K..F Punch, 2003). The question order was important because of the "learning effect" (Bethlehem, 2009, p. 55), that is, that an early question can raise an issue that jogs a respondent's memory while answering a later question. For instance, I placed the list of texts for teachers to rate after the question on what texts they actually chose for classroom work (so that it did not influence their response), but before teacher comments on "how" and "why" teachers utilised texts, so that it might aid their memory. Another example was the positioning of a list of aims for choosing texts, (which included student engagement), before the question on teacher knowledge about student motivation, so that respondents were not alerted to the importance of this option to the research (and thus avoiding researcher bias). I formatted one page in landscape because it had many options for checking and I did not want respondents to stop reading the options by making the list appear long. In the trialling, this proved a good decision. I checked the survey flow so that questions

would not be overlooked, put page-turn reminders at the bottom of each page, made sure there was "pattern recognition" (Fanning, 2005, p. 3) by having similar response categories throughout, grouped questions on similar aspects of the topic together and avoided printing on both sides of the sheet (Dillman, 2000).

5.2 *The Teacher Survey Procedure*

5.2.1 *Recruiting Teacher Participants*

After initial email conversations and a face-to-face meeting with each HOD, I attended an English department meeting after school in the three schools. I explained the purpose of the research, the value of the information to the department and the commitment it involved from the participants. This included that one teacher from each school would be invited to participate in an interview and that this formed part of the consent procedure. I also explained the ethical issues and protections surrounding this, that there was no compulsion to participate, and I answered any questions. The Year 10 teachers were given information sheets and consent forms. After consent procedures, I administered the survey and was available for any questions of clarification. For survey data gathering, Punch (2003) suggests that "a professional and ethical access and approach to respondents, leads to better quality data ... [and] researcher control in data collection means better quality of data" (p. 41), so I was keen to set up a professional, positive and cooperative atmosphere. I did not intend to follow up the non-respondents, so ensuring I employed procedures that would positively impact teacher interest in my study, was important for the response rate.

5.2.2 *The Teacher Survey Response Rate*

Out of a possible 31 Year 10 English teachers, 24 consented to be part of the research (some participants taught more than one Year 10 English class). Of the seven non-

participants, (five from school 4, two from school 7), three were absent from the meetings, one left the meeting early, and three abstained. Numbers from each school are shown in Appendix G.

Defining the response rate as the number of eligible sample members who complete a questionnaire divided by the total number of eligible sample members (Czaja & Blair, 2005), there was a response rate of 77.4%. There is diverse opinion on what are acceptable response rates for research. For instance, Bailey (1991) asserts a 30% survey response rate is reasonable, Malaney (2002) recommends a 60% response rate as acceptable, while Babbie (1979) suggests at least 50% as adequate for an analysis report, 60% as good, and 70% as very good. Response rate is important because "overall response rate is one guide to the representativeness of the sample respondents. If a high rate is achieved, there is less chance of significant non-response bias than with a low rate" (Babbie, 2010, p. 272). With a 77.4% response rate for my survey, I decided to make no adjustments for non-response. In fact, there appears to be a move in the research literature away from work on how to adjust for non-response, or how to avert refusal of participation, to research on the relationship between non-response and whether this is a good indicator of bias. Work by Groves (2006) shows that there is not necessarily a connection between non-response rates and non-response bias. Furthermore, a comparison of two survey administrations, with different response rates, has shown that few variables showed a significant change (Keeter et al., 2000). Therefore, I assumed that there was no non-response bias, and worked on the assumption that there was no reason for the non-respondents to differ from the respondents on any dimensions relevant to the study. In addition, I interpreted a 77.4% response rate as very good and that it reflected the salience of the topic to the participants and, taking into account that "response rates are an important

measure of survey quality" (Czaja & Blair, 2005, p. 38), the quality of the survey itself.

5.3 *The Teacher Survey Participants*

Year 10 English teachers in the three schools were invited to participate and I administered the survey during English Department meetings. From a possible 33 teachers, 24 participated. Of these, 17 (70.8%) were female and 7 (29.2%) males. Most teachers were under the age of 46 (75%), with those in the youngest age range having been adolescents at the advent of the Internet; that is, at least 37.5% of the teachers were under the age of 16 when the World Wide Web began. Twenty-two teachers (91.7%) had majored in English at university, with 25% having a postgraduate qualification in English. The majority (91.7%) completed their teacher training in New Zealand and over 70% of them had 10 years' or less experience teaching English, with 45.8% having five years or less (see Appendix G).

A comparison with the 2004 census of New Zealand secondary teachers and the 2001 census of secondary English teachers (Ministry of Education, 2005) shows that my research cohort was less experienced but higher qualified than these 2001 and 2004 census data (Figures 9 and 10). No more recent national data were available. The 2004 datum shows a bulge at about 25 years of experience but, by the time of my survey, some of these teachers may have retired or changed careers and younger teachers entered the profession. I was, therefore, unable to ascertain the representativeness of my sample to national trends in terms of teaching experience. Nonetheless, Ministry of Education data on teacher supply (Ng, 2007, 2008; Ng & Lee, 2009) indicated that English featured in 2007, 2008 and 2009 as one of the subject areas with the highest number of vacancies. It is realistic to assume, then, that

the early career teachers – those in their first five years (Wolters & Daugherty, 2007) - in my study (45.8% of the teacher participants) might be representative of nearly 50% of the English teaching population. Of the 11 early career teachers in this study, eight were in the 21 – 35 age range, with three being in the 36 – 45 age range.
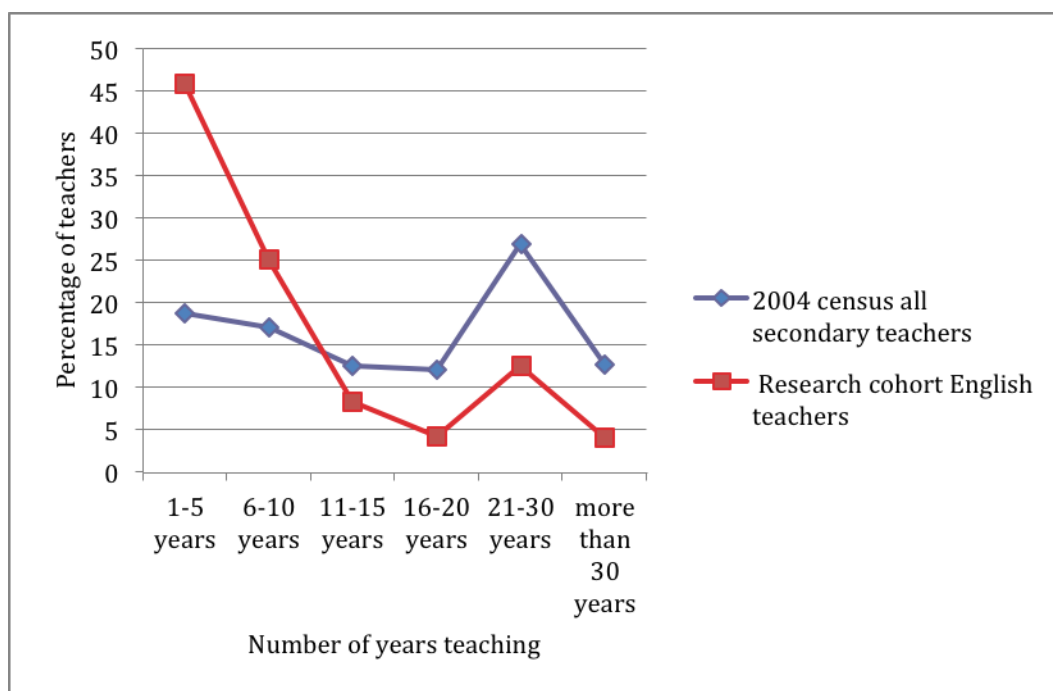
Figure 9. Teacher participants' number of years in the teaching force

Counter to claims that "students in high decile schools appear to be taught by the highest qualified teachers" (Ministry of Education, 2004) and that students in poor urban schools are "disproportionately taught by less qualified teachers" (Delors, 1996, p. 38), the decile four school in my study had the most qualified teacher, with the decile ten having the two least qualified (with stage 2 English). Sixteen of the 24 teachers (66.7%) had a bachelor's degree in English. Qualification comparisons are in Figure 11.
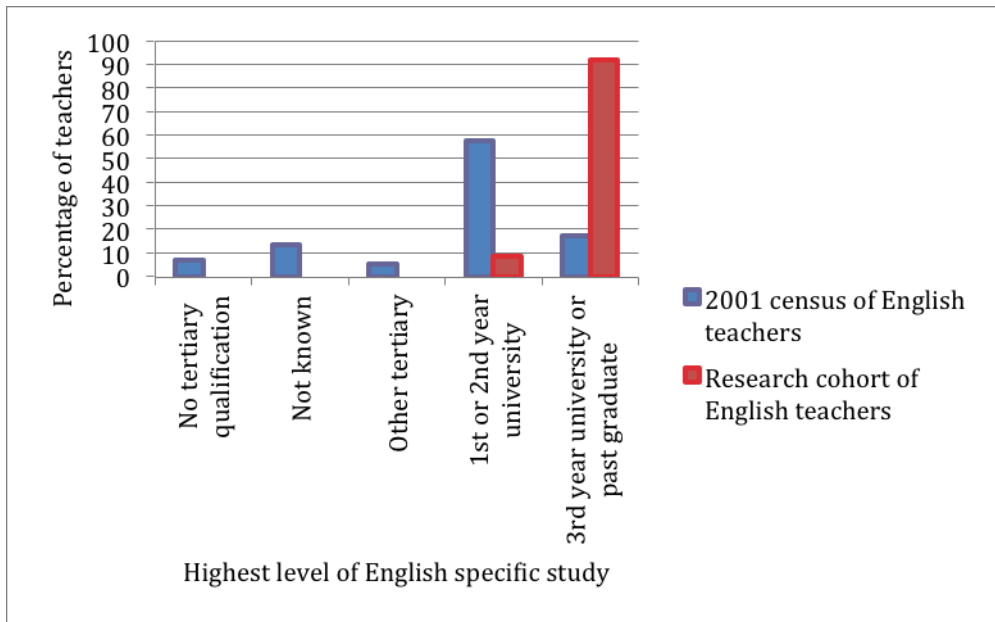
Figure 10. Teacher participants' highest level of English-specific study
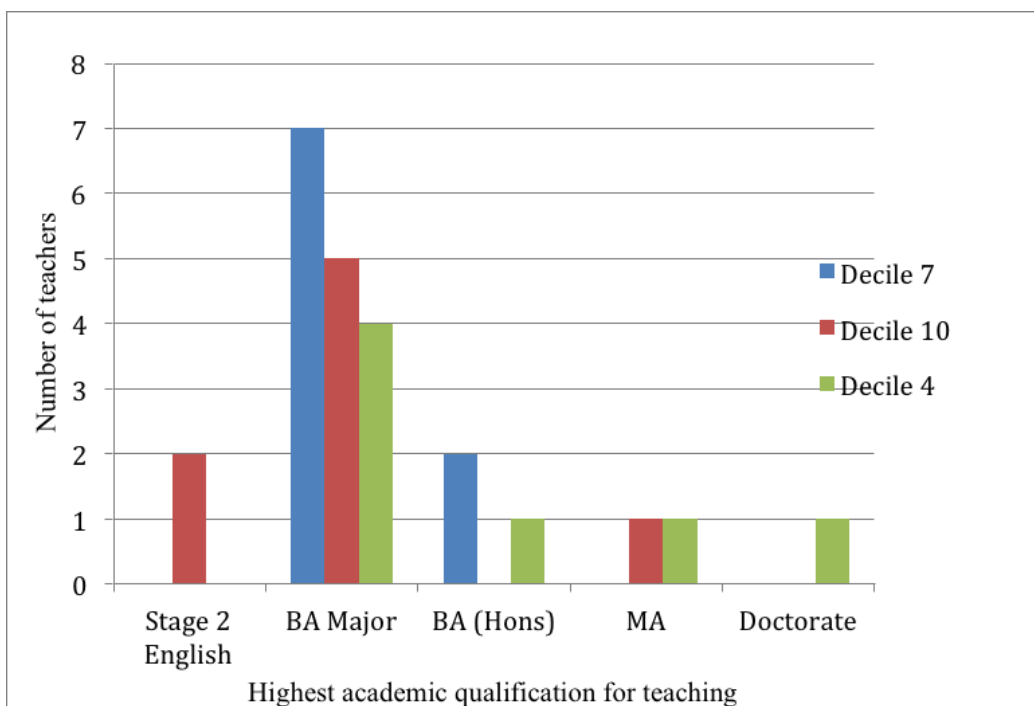
Figure 11. Comparison of participant teachers' qualifications by school decile

The collated teacher participant demographic information shows they were

mainly female (71%), academically well qualified in their teaching subject with 25%

having post Bachelor degree qualifications (Figure 12), trained in the New Zealand curriculum and school qualifications, young (Figure 13) and in the early stages of their careers, with 46% in their first five years of teaching (Figure 14). This latter characteristic may explain why so few (29%) were in departmental positions of responsibility. Nearly half of the participants were early career teachers which afforded an opportunity to make comparisons between them and the other participants. These comparisons might show differences between the young (and, arguably, recent preservice teacher education graduates) and those who are not only experienced, but also who have not grown up with new text forms.
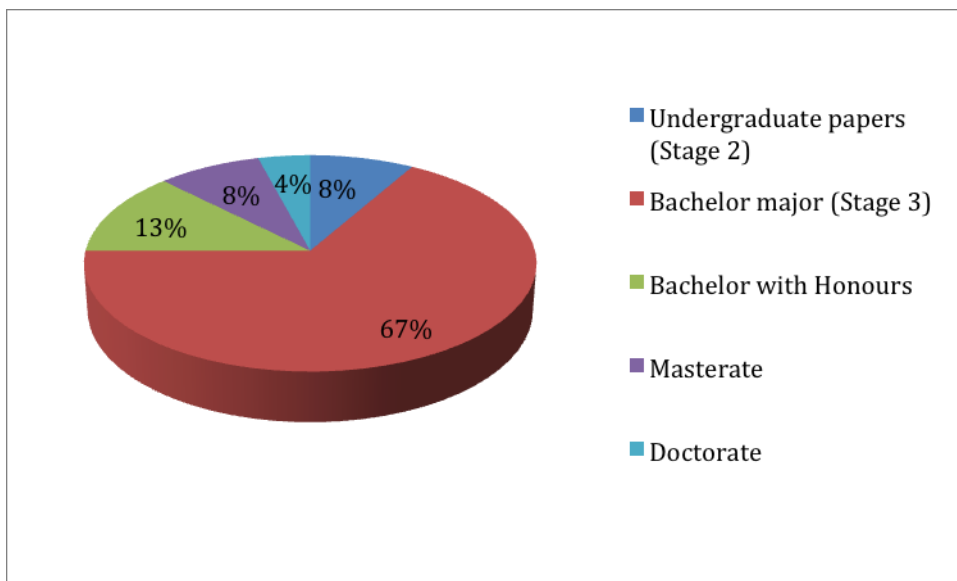
Figure 12. Academic qualifications in English of teacher participants
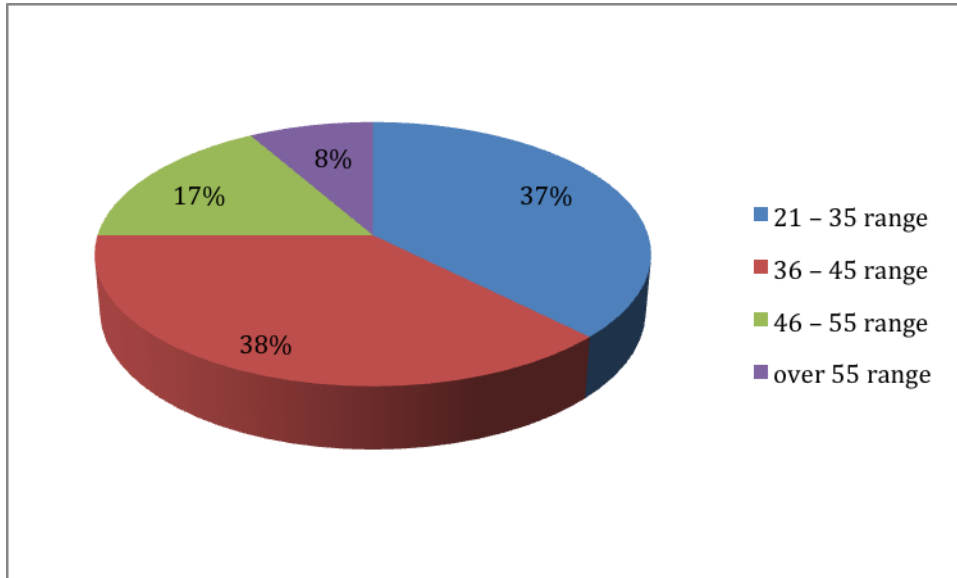
Figure 13. Age ranges of teacher participants
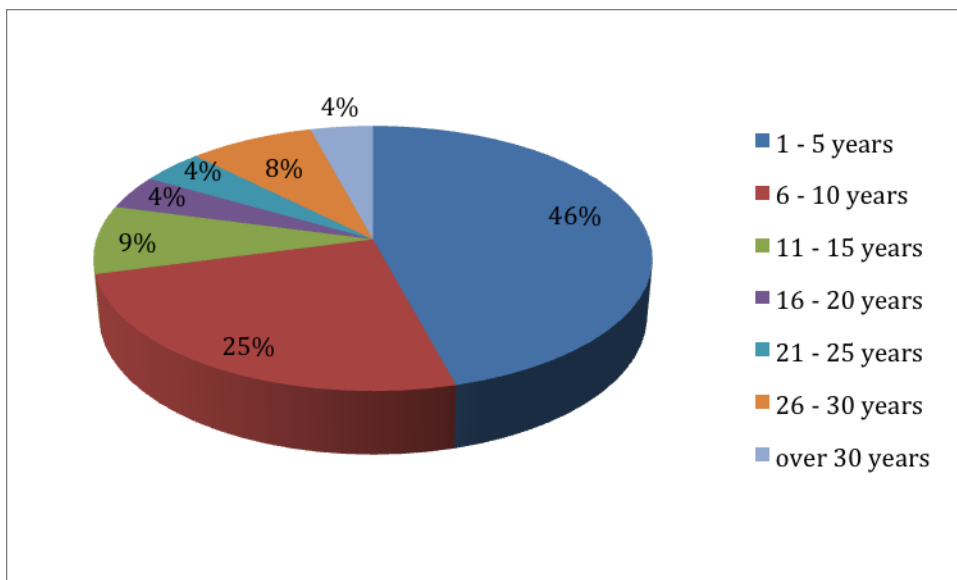
Figure 14. Number of years teaching English of participant teachers

5.4 *Analysis of Teacher Surveys*

I coded and entered answers to the closed *yes/no* questions and those using frequency or ranking scales, into SPSS. I gave participants and their schools a code so that decile, teacher years of experience and gender trends might emerge. Open questions were analysed manually using key words and looking for similarities and contrasts in

responses. As I entered data, I looked for any errors in responses. This included looking for "domain errors," "consistency errors," and "completeness errors" as advocated by Bethlehem (2009, p. 182). There were no instances of domain errors (teachers choosing more than one answer, for instance in the *yes/no* options), and there were no consistency or completeness errors. These teachers had followed the survey instructions correctly, including the skip question, and I put this down to the thoroughness of the piloting regime.

The first question asked for a definition of text. The English curriculum definition, contained in the *English in the New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 1994) states that text is "A piece of spoken, written, or visual communication that constitutes a coherent, identifiable unit" (p. 142). I analysed teacher responses by searching for key words "spoken," "written," or "visual" (or synonyms such as "oral," which is used as a language strand in the document). I attached no importance to the "identifiable unit" aspect of the definition because it was the breadth of text within teachers' definitions that was at the heart of the question. Definitions were then labelled into three categories, one that included written, visual and spoken text and mentioned digital text, a second without digital text and a third labelled "narrow."

Teachers listed, in popularity order, up to10 types of texts they thought students read out-of-school. For analysis, each text type listed became a variable and, for each respondent, was given a value out of 10 for where it came in their ordered list (with "999" for any non-responses). Because of the range of texts mentioned, I further categorised, collapsing some of the variables into other categories. For this, variables of "romance," "fantasy" and "vampire novels" were attached to "popular fiction." "Fiction/non-fiction adventure" remained a variable on its own, as did "young adult

fiction," because these did not necessarily fit into popular fiction. "Magazines," specific titles of magazines and magazine types, were categorised as magazines. The category of Internet text was made up of variables of "Internet sites," "social networking sites" and "email." Teachers were then asked, "What has led you to think this?" I initially analysed these responses by school, collating similar responses. An example of this collation is in Table 13. Then I collated the responses over all three schools.

Table 13

Example of Collation of Ways Teachers Know What Students Read Out-of-School

School decile 4: How do teachers know what students read for out-of-school? (*n*=7)		
Reason	Teacher code	Total
By the books students carrying around	1002; 1004; 1013	3
Past experience; guess	1002	1
Observing SSR choices	1004; 1013	2
Reading logs; 8808 material	1005; 1009	2
Discussions with with students	1009; 1011; 1014	3
Class book reviews	1009; 1013	2

Teachers listed types of text they used in the Year 10 English class over a year and how often, using a 6-point frequency scale. Each text type listed became a variable and was given a frequency for each respondent. I used similar procedures for questions on the rating of aims for choosing text, the "usefulness" of different forms of text for enhancing literacy practices, and reasons to describe why hyperfiction was not accessed.

Brief teacher comments on why and how they had used texts in the last 12 months (question 7) that they had rated as *useful*, *very useful* or *extremely useful* for literacy teaching (question 5), and which they had indicated they used in the classroom (question 6), were used to cross check whether these texts were actually

used to the extent that teachers could remember titles, and how and why they used them. This allowed for a check of the text forms teachers were actually using and to what extent. Initially these were analysed by listing the types of text and all the ways they were used. This showed the frequency and type of different text use. I then ranked the different activities for each text type to see which texts were given the most exposure.

To analyse the definition of hyperfiction, I looked for whether it was defined, not defined, partially defined or incorrectly defined and used these as my SPSS labels. "Defined" was interpreted broadly and included reference to anything that may have meant hyperlinks or some kind of interactivity or animated in some way. "Partially defined" included any reference to online text. I used the same labels for the teacher-supplied definitions of digital text terminology. No teacher had used hyperfiction text, so the question on students' reactions and the benefits, had no response.

The survey ended with two requests to list anything teachers knew, from experience or research, about students' digital literacy and reading motivation. I analysed teacher beliefs about students' digital literacy by clumping together similar comments and looking for key words and reiterating the process several times. A typology of five themes emerged:

- Students prefer communicating and information seeking via the Internet over other means.
- Students are more adept with online technology than their teachers.
- Students lack information literacy skills.
- Students lack critical literacy skills.
- Students have a low level of cyber safety knowledge.

Starting with the typology, I then allocated individual comments to a theme as a check. An example for one of this is in Table 14.

Table 14

Example of Thematic Allocation of Teacher Beliefs About Students' Digital Literacy Skills Allocated to Themes

Theme	Teacher comment
Students lack critical literacy skills (7 comments)	Students tend to believe everything they read on line (3 comments)
	Students struggle to determine the veracity of Internet resources
	Students don't discriminate between the valuable and the rubbish
	Students can't distinguish between good and unreliable information
	Students need guidance on authenticity

Using more than one analyst increases the consistency and reliability of open-ended survey response analysis (Pope et al., 2000), so coding reliability (theme allocation) was cross-checked by an independent coder. This showed a high level of interrater reliability (see Table 15). Out of the total 47 responses there was agreement on the allocation of 46, with the response "Students don't always read the web content that they use" being allocated differently.

Table 15

Level of Interrater Reliability for Teacher Beliefs about Students' Digital Literacy Skills

Theme	Researcher	Independent coder	Agreement level
Students prefer communicating and information seeking via the Internet over other means.	11 comments	11 comments	Same
Students are more adept with online technology than their teachers.	14 comments	14 comments	Same
Students lack information literacy skills.	13 comments	12 comments	-1
Students lack critical literacy skills.	7 comments	8 comments	+1
Students have a low level of cyber safety knowledge.	2 comments	2 comments	Same
			95.7% agreement level

Although there was a high percentage level of agreement, a further statistical analysis, using Cohen's kappa (k) indice, checked reliability. The interrater reliability was kappa = .972 (p < 0.001). Any measure of significance over 0.80 is considered outstanding (Landis & Koch, 1977).

I followed similar procedures for teacher beliefs about student reading motivation. This led to a typology of eight themes:

- It is hard to motivate Year 10 reluctant (unmotivated) and struggling readers

- Student reading motivation depends on ability

- Text choice, topic and level of text affects students' reading motivation

- School systems and teacher practice can impact on students' reading motivation

- Home practices can impact on students' reading motivation

- Peers can affect students' reading motivation

- Ability to choose, and the access to and availability of texts, can affect students' reading motivation

- Boys can have more difficulty than girls, with reading motivation

An example of this is in Table 16. The allocation of comments to themes was again crosschecked with a high level of interrater reliability. Out of 67 responses there was agreement on 64 allocations. The Cohen's kappa (k) indice was kappa = .943 (p < 0.001).

Table 16

Example of Thematic Allocation of Teacher Beliefs About Students' Reading Motivation Allocated to Themes

Theme	Teacher comment
Peers can affect students' reading motivation (6 comments)	• Influenced by peer perceptions • They are influenced by what their peers read • Can be encouraged by peers and advertising to read popular books • They are motivated by friends • Word of mouth the best advert for books e.g. *Twilight* • Read for pleasure. Will read if recommended by other students
Ability to choose, access to and availability of texts can affect students' reading motivation (4 comments)	• Students often need/want suggestions for what they can read • Keen readers at earlier ages often lose interest at 13/14- can't find books that interest them • Students generally enjoy reading books if they find ones they like • Most motivation comes from the students to find books they like – they generally don't trust their parents

5.5 *Reliability and Validity of the Teacher Survey Processes*

Many aspects of the reliability and validity of the teacher survey have already been discussed in sections 5.1.2 and 5.4. Firstly, the initial decisions on the survey format contribute to its reliability. The use of both open and closed questions not only allowed for verification of responses to closed questions but avoided researcher bias in the closed options by enabling respondents to expand on their answers. There was also consistency in the use of 6-point positively packed scales.

Secondly, rigorous piloting and the analysis and publication of findings for the piloting phase, gave the survey added reliability. Feedback on and working with the question formats, alternatives offered, wording, order, and the coding and analysis all contributed to the survey's "content validity" (Fink, 2009, p. 44), and reliability. As Rasinski (2008) states, piloting "should be used whenever possible to establish the reliability and validity of survey questions" (p. 370).

The third aspect of the survey's reliability and validity is associated with response rates. There was no item non-response and, additionally, a very good 77.4% survey response rate. It is asserted, "The first quality for survey items is to have as

little item nonresponse as possible" (Saris & Gallhofer, 2007, p. 186) and "unit response rate is the main, and most widely accepted indicator of survey quality" (Czaja & Blair, 2005, p. 197). Also, there was no reason to think that non-respondents were different from respondents, so there was no reason for survey estimates to be biased (Czaja & Blair, 2005).

Additionally, there was standardisation in the survey administration over the sites, and there were no changes in the survey format. There was no opportunity for differences between respondents being due to differences in application.

Coding reliability was assured having only one coder, so consistency in interpreting codes was maintained. Sixthly, using an independent coder to check the coding of open question responses added to the validity of findings and the interrater reliability was high each time.

Lastly, survey results show a consistency over the three survey sites (for instance in teachers' text choices), and this is important for reliability and validity. Sapsford (2007) maintains, "An aspect of validation and reliability is the stability of the measures – the extent to which repeated measurement yields constant results" (p. 15), and Cargan (2007) posits, "The reliability of an instrument is confirmed when it is able to deliver consistent results time after time" (p. 233).

These seven aspects, which are discussed fully in previous sections, contributed to the reliability and validity of the total teacher survey process.

5.6 *Teacher Survey Findings*

5.6.1 *The Types of Text Teachers Think Students Read for Pleasure Out-of-School and How they Know*

Teachers listed and ranked in order of popularity, 10 text forms that they thought students read out-of-school. Five text forms emerged as the top rated texts: Internet text (12 responses, *N*=24), popular fiction (five responses), magazines (four responses), graphic novels (two responses) and fiction/non-fiction adventure (one response). When I added the second most popular texts, a slightly different hierarchy arose (Figure 15), which was maintained as I added more rankings (Figure 16).
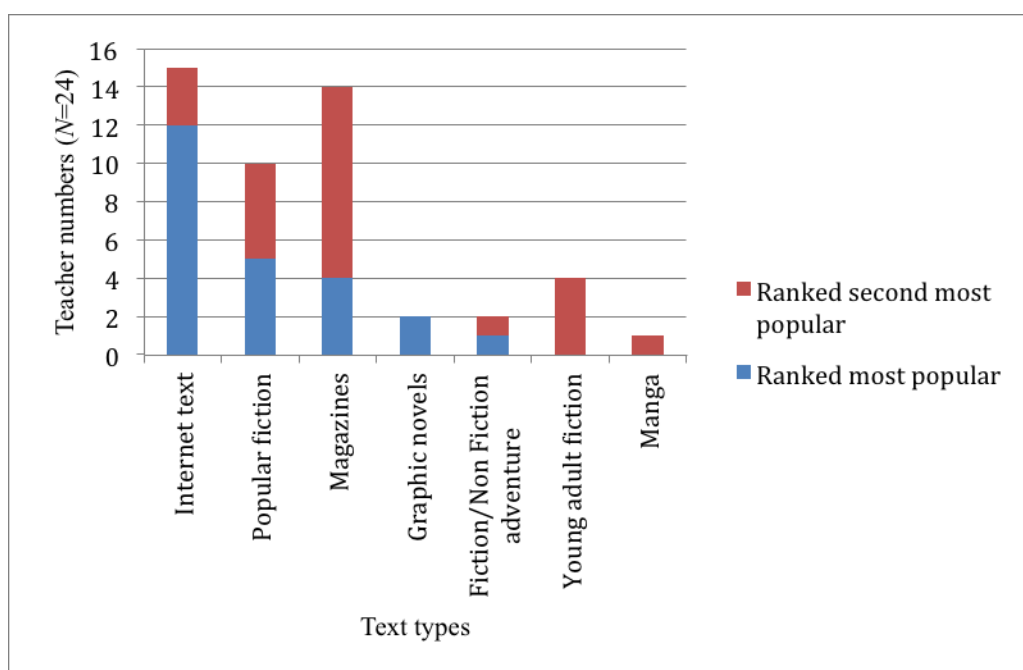
Figure 15. First and second popularity-ranked texts teachers thought students read out-of-school

There were few differences between the rankings made by the males (*n*=7) and females (*n*=17) and between those of the early career teachers (*n*=11) and teachers with more than five years' experience (*n*=13). However, there were interesting differences between the schools. These may relate to the ethnic background of the students, decile and even professional development (see Table 17). For instance, school 4 has a school population that is 55% Asian, compared to the 16% in school 7 and 12% in school 10 (Ministry of Education, 2009b). This might be

a reason for the inclusion of manga in the school 4 list. The local English teachers'
association held a workshop on graphic novels close to school 4's survey
administration and this might explain why this text appears in one list and, it could be
argued, teachers of students in school 10 might assume that there is more student
ability to purchase magazines within this school's population.
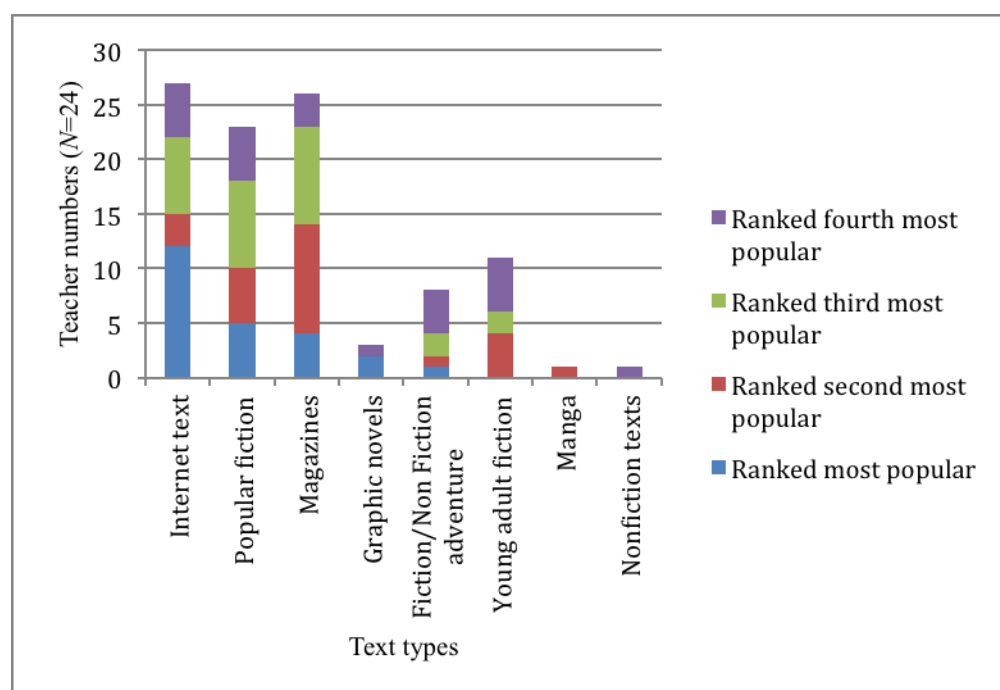
Figure 16. First to fourth popularity-ranked texts teachers thought students read out-
of-school

Table 17

*School Differences in the First and Second Popularity-Ranked Texts Teachers
Thought Students Read Out-of-School*

Text form	Decile 4 (*n*=7)	Decile 7 (*n*=9)	Decile 10 (*n*=8)
Internet text	5 ratings (71.4%)	5 ratings (55.5%)	6 ratings (75%)
Popular fiction	4 ratings (57.1%)	4 ratings (44.4%)	2 ratings (25%)
Magazines	3 ratings (42.9%)	4 ratings (44.4%)	7 ratings (87.5%)
Young adult fiction	1 rating (14.3%)	2 ratings (22.2%)	1 rating (12.5%)
Manga	1 rating (14.3%)	Not rated	Not rated
Graphic novels	Not rated	2 ratings (22.2%)	Not rated
Fiction/non-fiction adventure	Not rated	1 rating (11.1%)	1 rating (12.5%)

Teachers indicated they had many ways to find out what their students read out-of-school (Figure 17). There was, however, no consistent method across any of the departments, indicating that neither departmental schemes nor the SSR programmes methodically addressed this. This lack of consistency within each school and the haphazard processes teachers had to find out this information, could also explain the differences between schools. The lack of a clear process is also an indication of the value teachers gave to this information.
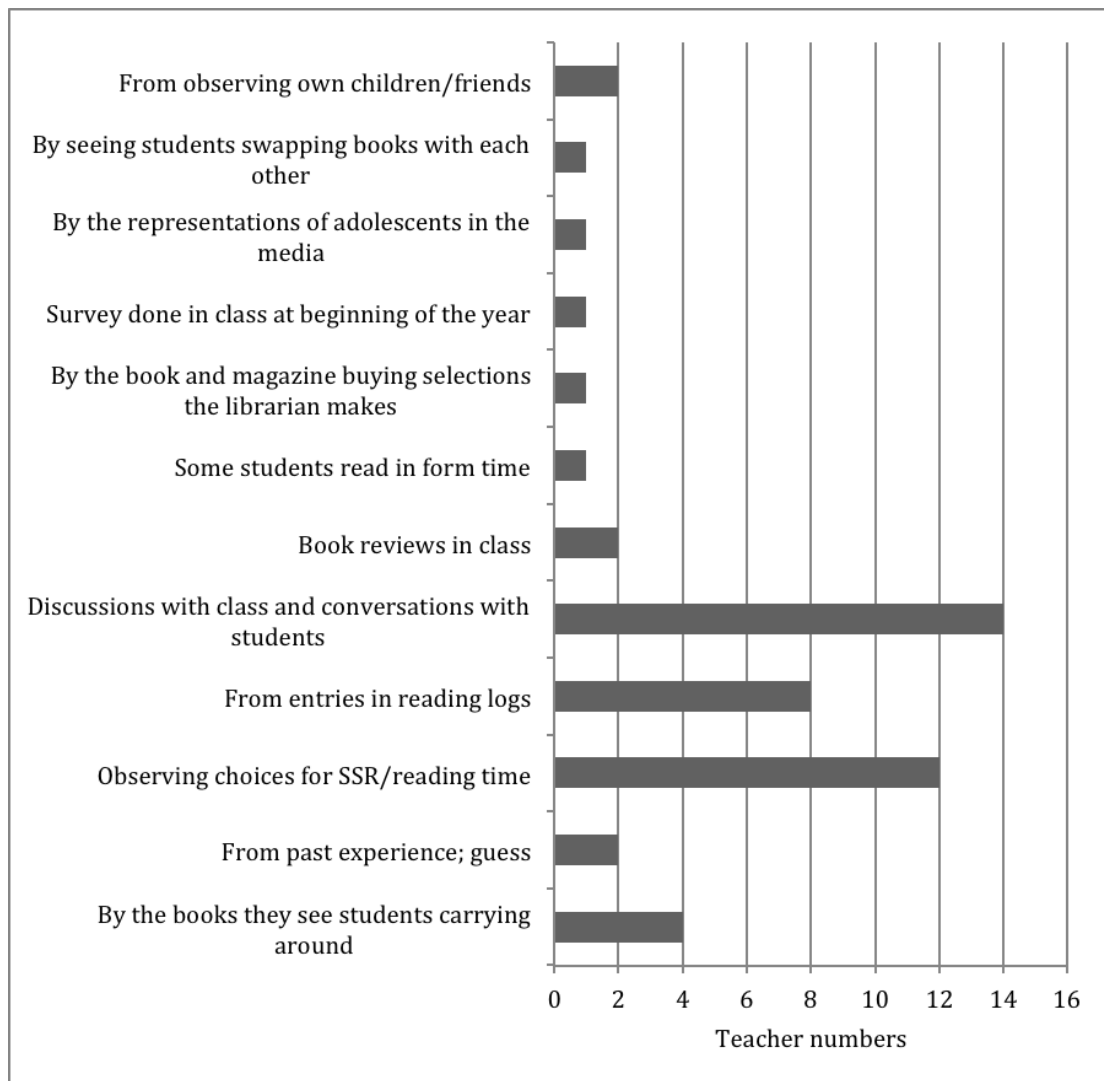
Figure 17. Ways teachers know what students read for pleasure (*N*=24)

Considering the link between reading motivation and interests (e.g., Guthrie, 2002; Verhoeven & Snow, 2001), I was interested in what teachers said about student reading motivation and whether their aims when choosing classroom texts included motivational and student interest factors.

5.6.2 *Teacher Knowledge About Student Reading Motivation*

Although teachers were asked to write anything they knew about students' reading motivation, based on experience or research, it was obvious from the comments that most were based on experience and it was clear which aspects of students' reading motivation preoccupied teachers. Of the 67 comments offered, 58.2% fell into two themes: 22.4% were about the difficulties of motivating reluctant and struggling readers and 35.8% were connected to the impact text choice, topic and reading level have on student motivation. Eight of the 24 comments (one-third) in this latter theme related to the positive impact on reading motivation of texts that related to students' own lives and interests. Over half of the comments on the trials of motivating reluctant and struggling readers were cries of frustration, for instance "some have switched off reading well before Year 10," "[it's] hard to force students to read," "[they] often see no point in reading at all," and "just because we are studying a novel in class, this is not enough to motivate some students." However, there were also comments in this category that related to the comments made in the theme about the importance of text, topic and level on positive motivation. Comments such as "[they] often find the jump to more adult reading too far," "teenage fiction [is] often regarded as trite," "many ... struggle to find books they like," "[they] need enticing into reading [with] sports magazines, car magazines ..." and "[it] is hard for students with no prior knowledge to take to texts," relate to the importance of teachers choosing texts for the

classroom related to student interests, background, reading level, and, arguably, to the need to extend the variety of texts students have access to for classroom study.

While there were no great differences among comments based on teacher gender or years of experience, there were decile differences (Table 18). Seven teachers (*N*=24) made the 15 comments related to the difficulties of motivating students, and 13 teachers made the 24 comments related to the importance of text choice, topic and level.

Table 18

Teacher Numbers by Decile Commenting on the Two Main Motivation Themes

Theme	Decile 4 (*n*=7)	Decile 7 (*n*=9)	Decile 10 (*n*=8)
The difficulties of motivating reluctant and struggling readers	1 teacher (14.3%)	2 teachers (22.2%)	4 teachers (50%)
The effect of text choice, topic and level on motivation	4 teachers (57.1%)	5 teachers (55.5%)	4 teachers (50%)

Within each school at least half of the teachers thought text choice, topic and text level were important factors affecting student reading motivation. It was only the school 10 teachers who gave the same importance to the difficulties of motivating reluctant and struggling readers. It is possible that the teachers in the other two schools saw text choice, topic and level as the solution to motivating these students. After analysing teacher ideas on student motivation, I was interested in whether these ideas impacted teacher aims when choosing texts for the classroom.

5.6.3 *Teacher Definitions of Text and Aims When Choosing Text for the Year 10 English Classroom*

On the whole, teachers saw the relationship between students' out-of-school interests and text choice and topic as important for motivating students, however, few had consistent ways to find out what texts interested students. I thought it was important

to find out what teachers defined as "text" and what aims they had when choosing text for the classroom.

Seventeen teachers (70.8%, N=24) defined text in the broad manner of the English curriculum. Of these, three (12.5%) included digital text in their definitions. Notably, seven teachers (29.2%, N=24) who gave narrow definitions of text were female, represented 41.1% of female respondents (n=17) and 44.4% of teachers in school 7 (n=9); that is, school 7 had 57.1% of the teachers who defined text narrowly. I was curious whether this impacted the range of types of text teachers chose for the classroom and whether there were any marked differences among the schools in this regard. I explore this in section 5.6.4.

When teachers rated aims for selecting text, the importance they gave to the relationship between text choice and student engagement was again apparent (Figure 18), but there seemed to be no connection for the teachers between engagement and linking with students' out-of-school interests. Over half of the teachers (54.2%) thought that engagement was *extremely important* but none saw linking to students' interests as *extremely important*. Engagement was *important*, *very important* or *extremely important* for 100% of the teachers but only 54.2% (13 of the 24) saw the aim of linking to students' interests as, at least, *important*.

The second most important aim for the teachers was "fostering positive attitudes to reading," but again it appears that both engaging students in reading and fostering positive attitudes to it, are seen by teachers as unconnected with students' interests.

Three other notable ratings are those for the aims of exploring facets of language use, increasing critical thinking and increasing information processing skills. These aims are also the three processes used throughout the 1994 English curriculum

(Ministry of Education, 1994). However, only 41.7% (10 of 24 teachers) saw the

critical thinking aim as *extremely important*, 29.2% (7 teachers) saw exploring
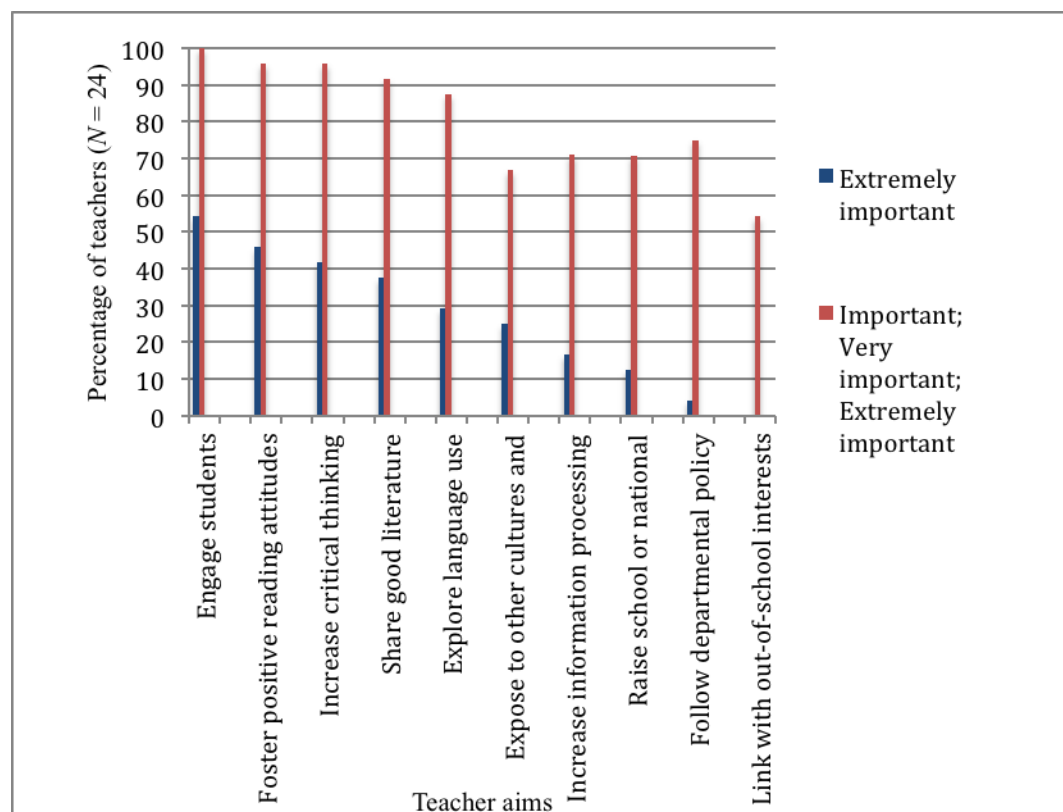
Figure 18. Teacher aims when choosing text

language as *extremely important* and 16.7% (4 teachers) saw information processing

as *extremely important*. This finding has implications for two of the five key

competencies in *The New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2007),

Thinking, and *Using Language, Symbols and Texts*. It also has implications for the

Vision of the curriculum, which is for life long learners who will be "critical and

creative thinkers" and "active seekers, users, and creators of knowledge" (Ministry of

Education, 2007, p. 8).

When I compared responses of *important*, *very important* and *extremely*

important across the schools, in school 10, 100% of the teachers (*n*=8) supported the

aims connected with student engagement, critical thinking and following departmental policy. In school 7, 100% supported student engagement, fostering positive attitudes to reading and sharing good literature. In school 4, 100% supported student engagement, fostering positive attitudes to reading, increasing critical thinking and exploring facets of language. The least supported aim in each school was linking with students' out-of-school interests (decile four, 28.6%, two of seven teachers), following departmental policy (decile seven, 55.5%, five of nine teachers) and exposing students to other cultures and experiences (decile ten, 50%, four of eight teachers). Some of these differences may be because of different departmental cultures and priorities, for instance the different response between school 10 and school 7 on the aim of following departmental policy, with one having it very well supported and the other having it as its least popular aim. Further comparisons based on school deciles can be seen in Figure 19.

When I explored the relationship between the aim of linking with students' out-of-school interests and the decile of the teachers' schools, teacher gender and years of teaching experience, there were interesting differences. This link was seen as at least important by two teachers in school 4 (28.6%, n=7), six in school 7 (66.7%, n=9) and five in school 10 (62.5%, n=8). Six early career teachers (54.5%, n=11) saw it as important, compared with eleven of the later career teachers (84.6%, n=13). These early career teachers were not necessarily in the youngest age group (21 – 35 years old). In the youngest teacher group, 66.7% (n=9) saw linking text choice to students' interests as *important* or better, whereas only 46.7% (n=15) of teachers over the age of 35 ranked this aim as at least important. Of the seven male teachers, four saw the link to students' interests as important or better (57.1%), compared with nine of the 17 (53%) females, showing little difference in gender responses. So, overall, it

was teachers in the lowest decile school, and teachers who were in their early career stage who saw the link with students' out-of-school as less important than other aims.
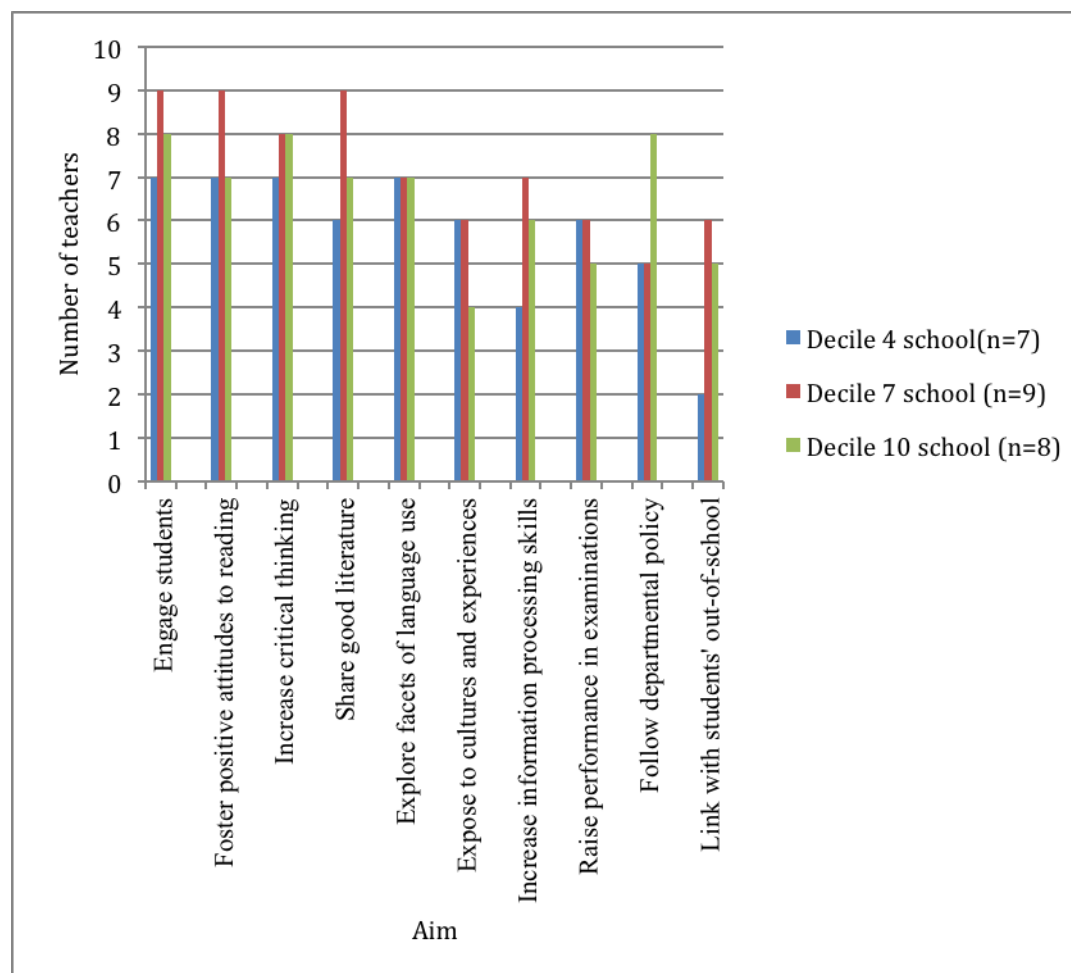
Figure 19. Comparison by decile of teacher aims for choosing texts (*important*, *very important* and *extremely important*)

5.6.4 *Teacher Text Choices and Perceptions of Texts as Useful for Extending Year 10 Literacy Practices*

When teachers rated texts that they saw as useful for enhancing Year 10 literacy practices, only novels were rated by more than 50% of the teachers as *extremely useful*. The top six types of text rated as *extremely useful* were the time-honoured texts that feature in examples for study in the Achievement Standards for Year 11 and

which were popular for study as evidenced in examiners' reports over many years. These are novels, play scripts, short stories, poetry, non-fiction books and film. After collating responses of *useful*, *very useful* and *extremely useful*, the same six types of text emerged, along with newspapers equaling poetry and play scripts. The ratings of texts are in Table 19. However, the number of different types of text rated by

more than 50% of the teachers as *useful* or better was broader and included texts that were not rated as *extremely useful*. Only seven types of text were rated by less than 50% of the teachers. These texts were Webquests, Internet forums or bulletins, email, blogs, text messages, ezines, and games on screen. It is interesting that most of these texts are Internet based and rely on technology. Yet, informational and interactive web pages were both scored by over 50% of the teachers as *useful* or better, and texts relating to popular culture (comics, teen magazines and graphic novels) and nonfiction based texts were also rated positively.

When I compared ratings within each school there were differences. For instance, no text was seen as *extremely useful* by more than 43% of the teachers in school 4. The texts that were rated by at least 25% of the teachers in each school as *extremely useful* are in Figure 20. Only four types of text rated as *extremely useful* by 25% of the teachers in each school, are common across the schools: novels, short stories, play scripts and non-fiction books. Again, these represent time-honoured choices. Also, teachers in school 7 (those noted in section 5.6.3 as having the most teachers defining text narrowly) were the most in favour of these "traditional" choices, showing at least a consistency between their text definition and practices.

Table 19

Ratings of 21 Types of Text for "Usefulness for Enhancing Year 10 Literacy Practices" (Four highest ratings highlighted)

Type of Text	Number of teachers rating as *extremely useful* (*N*=24)	Number of teachers rating as *useful*, *very useful* or *extremely useful* (*N*=24)
Novels	14 (58.3%)	24 (100%)
Play scripts	10 (41.7%)	20 (83.3%)
Short stories	10 (41.7%)	21 (87.5%)
Poetry	8 (33.3)	20 (83.3%)
Non-fiction books	7 (29.2%)	23 (95.8%)
Film	7 (29.2%)	22 (91.6)
Biographies	5 (20.8%)	18 (75%)
Newspapers	5 (20.8%)	20 (83.3%)
Informational web pages	3 (12.5%)	17 (70.8%)
Graphic novels	2 (8.3%)	14 (66.6%)
Webquests	2 (8.3%)	9 (37.5%)
Teen magazines	1 (4.2%)	16 (66.6%)
Internet forums/bulletins	1 (4.2%)	4 (16.6%)
Manuals "how to" books	1 (4.2%)	12 (50%)
Email	1 (4.2%)	7 (29.2%)
Interactive web pages	1 (4.2%)	13 (54.2%)
Comics		13 (54.2%)
Blogs		10 (41.6%)
Text messages		4 (16.6%)
Games on screen		3 (12.5%)
ezines		3 (12.5%)
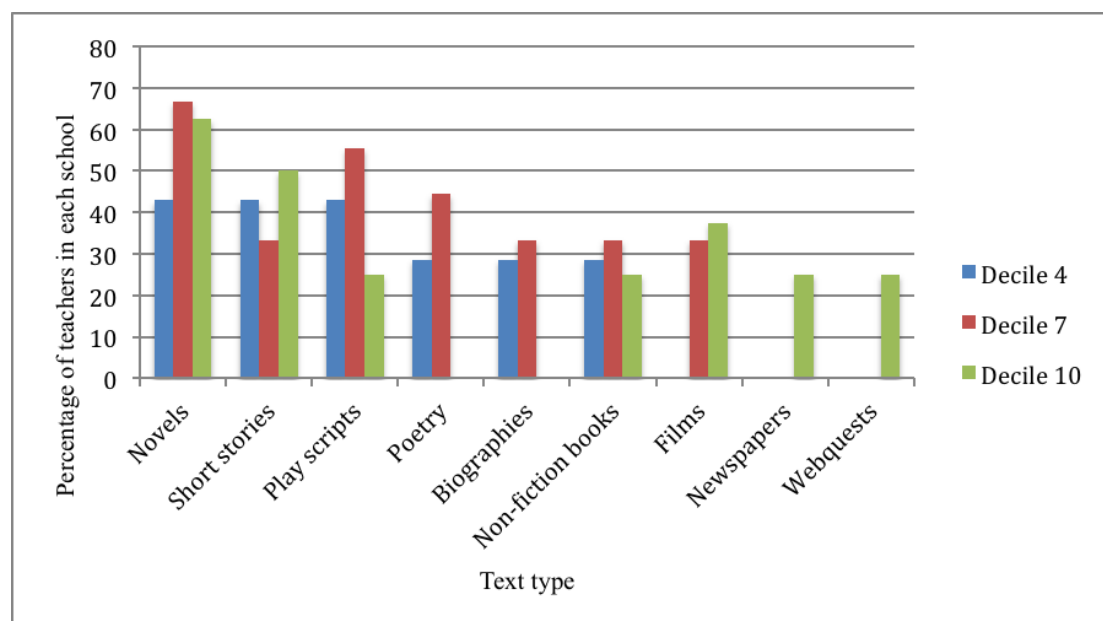
Figure 20. Texts rated as *extremely useful* by at least 25% of the teachers in each school

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When early career teachers' rating of *extremely useful* texts were compared with those of the other teachers (Figure 21), both groups favoured the time-honoured texts, with the more experienced teachers favouring a broader range of text than the early career teachers. This difference may be because of the "survival" preoccupation of the early career teacher (Huberman, 1989), which is discussed in Chapter Six. However, the early career teachers rated texts that the more experienced teachers did not rate at all, most of which related to the Internet and could be a reflection of their age, but these numbers were low.
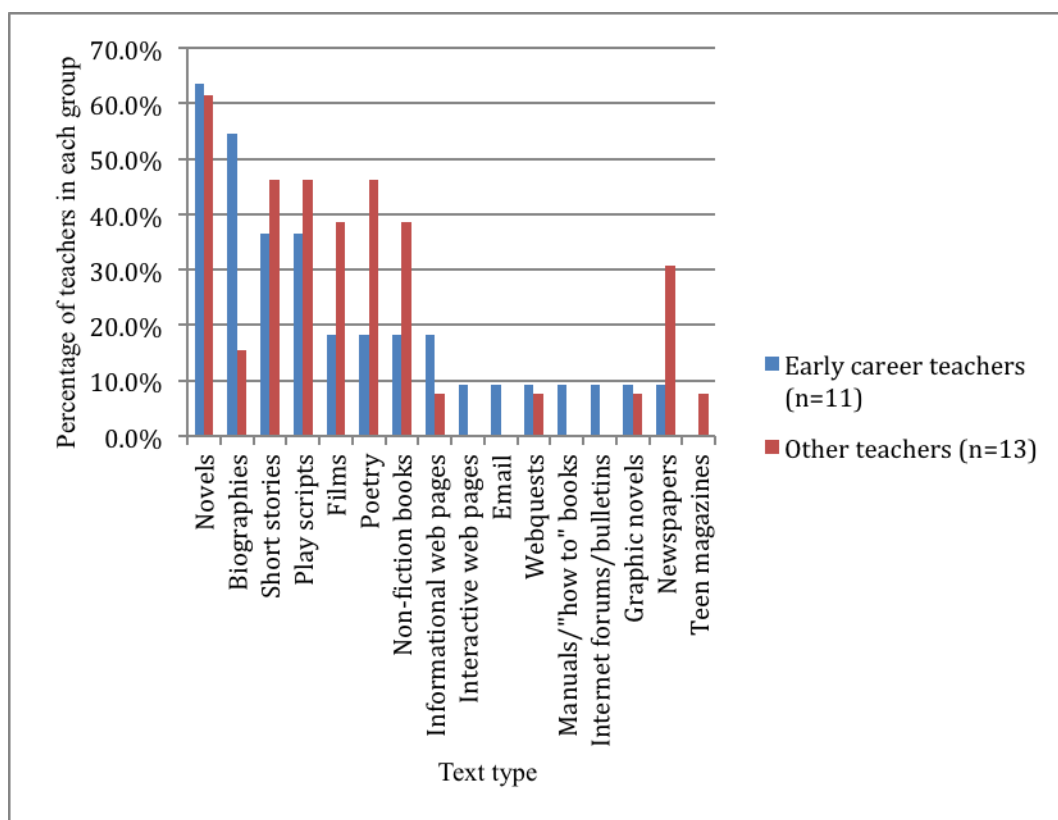
Figure 21. Comparison of early career teachers and other teachers' *extremely useful* ratings of texts for enhancing Year 10 literacy

The male teachers in the study were more constrained in their perceptions of useful text than the females. They favoured the traditional texts and rated fewer visual texts, fewer nonfiction texts, and no texts reliant on technology, as *extremely useful*

for enhancing literacy practices. This was surprising considering two of the three teachers who gave definitions of text that included digital text, were males. It appears that the males may have a broad definition philosophically, but in practice valued more traditional text for literacy development.

Although 14 texts were rated by at least 50% of the teachers as at least *useful* for enhancing literacy practices, only five of these text forms were chosen for classroom use by 50% of them. These were novels, film, short stories, poetry and newspapers and again favoured the more traditional texts, with many non-fiction, Internet and popular texts not well represented in classroom practice (Table 20). With the exception of two teachers who had only used two different types of text over a 12 month period, all had chosen at least four types of text, with the majority choosing six or seven (*M*=6) and one teacher chose as many as 13, so students were being exposed to some variety of text, but not a wide range. However, those texts that the teachers had thought their students read out-of-school (section 5.6.1) were under-represented, even though all teachers had indicated student engagement was their main aim when choosing text (section 5.6.3).

Of the 21 texts rated, there was more than a 30% difference for 12 text forms in the numbers of teachers rating them as, at least, *useful* and choosing them for the classroom in the preceeding 12 months. There was more than a 50% difference for non-fiction books and biographies and over a 40% difference for graphic novels, interactive web pages and comics. Although the teachers saw these texts as, at least, *useful* for enhancing literacy practices, they were not evident in their classroom practice. I noted to investigate this further in the teacher interviews.

Table 20

Teacher Ratings of Text as "Useful," "Very Useful" and "Extremely Useful" for Enhancing Literacy Practices Compared with Texts Chosen for the Year 10 Classroom in the Last 12 Months

Type of Text	Number of teachers rating as *useful*, *very useful* or *extremely useful* (*N*=24)	Number of teachers who had chosen these types of text for the Year 10 classroom in the last 12 months	Percentage difference
Novels	24 (100%)	22 (91.6%)	-8.4%
Non-fiction books	23 (95.8%)	6 (25%)	-70.8%
Film	22 (91.6%)	21 (87.5%)	-4.1%
Short stories	21 (87.5%)	20 (83.3%)	-4.2%
Poetry	20 (83.3%)	18 (75%)	-8.3%
Play scripts	20 (83.3%)	11 (45.9%)	-37.4%
Newspapers	20 (83.3%)	14 (58.3%)	-25.0%
Biographies	18 (75%)	4 (16.7%)	-58.3%
Informational web pages	17 (70.8%)	9 (37.5%)	-33.3%
Teen magazines	16 (66.6%)	7 (29.2%)	-37.4%
Graphic novels	14 (66.6%)	5 (20.8%)	-45.8%
Interactive web pages	13 (54.2%)	3 (12.5%)	-41.7%
Comics	13 (54.2%)	2 (8.3%)	-45.9%
Manuals "how to" books	12 (50%)	3 (12.5%)	-37.5%
Blogs	10 (41.6%)	2 (8.3%)	-33.3%
Webquests	9 (37.5%)	1 (4.2%)	-33.3%
Email	7 (29.2%)	1 (4.2%)	-25.0%
Internet forums/bulletins	4 (16.6%)	2 (8.3%)	-8.3%
Text messages	4 (16.6%)	1 (4.2%)	-12.4%
ezines	3 (12.5%)	2 (8.3%)	-4.2%
Games on screen	3 (12.5%)	0	-12.5%

The most popular texts chosen for the classroom were those studied as "literature" (novels, short stories, poetry, and film), so it was interesting to see how teachers were employing the less traditional texts in their classrooms and also how this compared with their espoused aims when selecting text (see section 5.6.3). One teacher referred to her choice of teen magazines and newspapers as "study as text" but other references to teen magazines, ezines and newspapers were usually as writing examples of style and structure for students' own writing. Three teachers used newspaper articles for comprehension and close reading activities, another used teen magazines within a study of the language of advertising, while another showed teen magazines so that students would know that they were inappropriate reading for the

wide reading Achievement Standard. Web pages and Webquests were usually resources to support other work, for instance, researching information for speech content, background for a film study, help with designing a pamphlet and researching writers. Four teachers used Web pages in class to help students with research projects, but only one of these referred to "how to locate information" being part of this. This coincides with the focus group students' comments on Internet research skills not being taught and I wanted to follow this up in the teacher interviews. One teacher had used text messages once, but to get students to sum up the theme of a film study, rather than as a study of the text form. Comics and graphic novels were also used to support other textual study, particularly film study where the graphic novel or comic versions were used to help students understand a film based on a Shakespearian play. This was a particularly popular strategy in the decile ten school where a Shakespearian study formed part of the Year 10 annual plan.

Less traditional text forms were mainly used to support the teaching of writing (as examples of writing style) or to cast light on other texts chosen for literature study. They were seldom chosen for study in their own right and therefore not accorded the time or importance of the more traditional texts. Again, the texts teachers thought students read out-of-school (section 5.6.1) were under-represented in the texts teachers had chosen for the classroom in the last 12 months and were not accorded the same prestige in terms of the time allocated them. This was despite the teachers indicating that student engagement was their main aim when choosing text.

5.6.5 *Teacher Perceptions of Students' Digital Literacy*

Thirteen of the 24 teachers responded to the survey prompt "list anything you know from research or experience about students' digital literacy." Responses were analysed

using the key words in every response. From this process a typology of five themes emerged:

- Students prefer communicating and information seeking via the Internet over other means.

- Students are more adept with online technology than their teachers.

- Students lack information literacy skills.

- Students lack critical literacy skills.

- Students have a low level of cyber safety knowledge.

For a summary of the percentage of teachers (n=13) commenting on each theme see Figure 22.
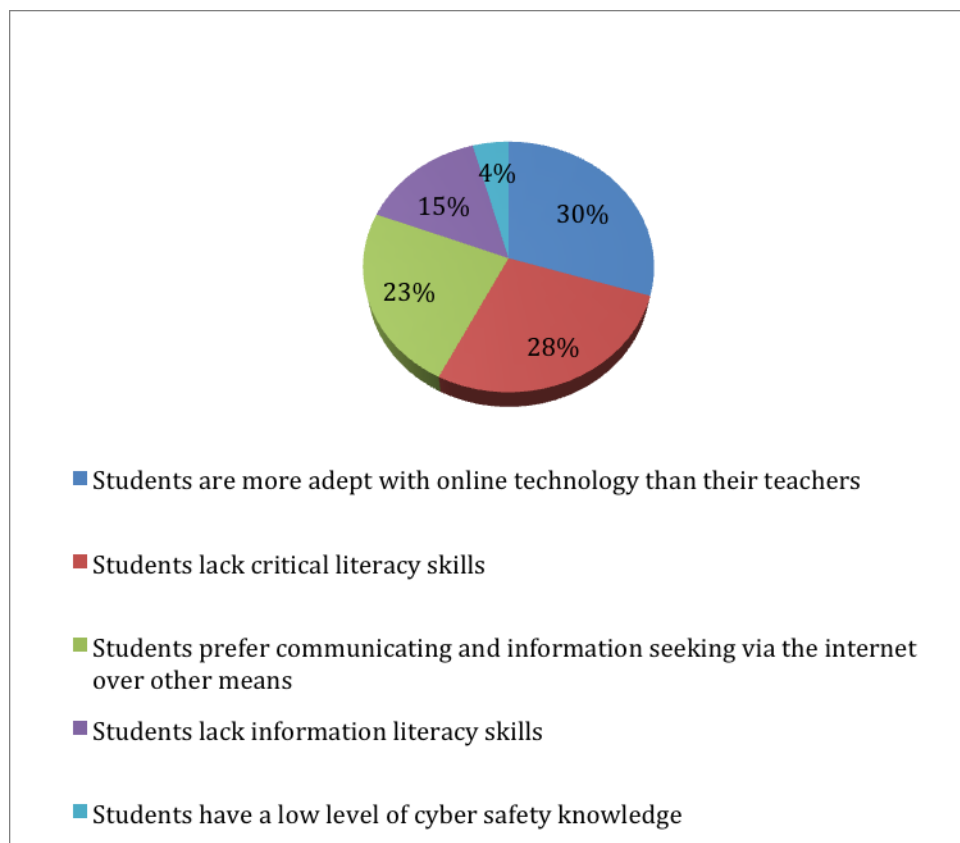
Figure 22. Teacher beliefs about students' digital literacy skills

There were 10 comments from eight different teachers (61.5% of the 13 responding about students' digital literacy) about student preference for operating in a digital environment. All believed that students preferred to do research activities on the Internet rather than any other way and that any search was initially done using Google. They said that students enjoyed working with the Internet and found it an "easy option." They also believed that students frequently communicated digitally, especially via social networking sites.

Twelve of the 13 teachers (92.3%) commented on student skill level on the Internet and comments centred around students being well informed and confident, able to access information and navigate between pages and sites, and that in these things, they knew more than their teachers. At the *technical skill* level, most teachers believed a significant number of their students were faster and more competent in using social networking pages, games, downloading music and film, and navigating within and across multiple sites simultaneously, than they were themselves. This belief supports Prensky's (2001) much referred to divide between digital "natives" and "immigrants." However, when it came to students' information literacy and critical literacy, teachers were critical of student skill levels. Twenty comments from 11 of the 13 teachers (84.6%) centred around students not being able to discriminate between information, their inability to see what was important to their research questions and their lack of skill in determining the authority of what they read. An inability to extract, analyse and synthesise information, a lack of close reading skills and not using skimming and scanning strategies were at the core of teacher comments. There were also recurring comments (92.3% of respondents) about students using "cut and paste" as their main research strategy rather than critical information skills. Research asserts that, despite the "digital natives" title given to our

secondary school students and evidence of their computer operational skills, their critical online information literacy skills are limited, as the teachers in my study claim (Combes, 2009; Hipkins, 2005a; Honan, 2008). Yet, there is scant evidence from teacher survey comments, from their perceptions of text useful for literacy development and from their selection of text for the classroom, that they are addressing students' critical information literacy skills in an online environment. This notwithstanding "increasing critical thinking" was the second most important aim when choosing text, with 95.8% of the teachers seeing this as *important*, *very important* or *extremely important*. Again, studies demonstrate that this is not a situation confined to these teachers (Oblinger & Oblinger, 2005; Walraven et al., 2008).

5.6.6 *Teacher Knowledge Of Digital Text and Factors Perceived as Constraining Choice in Classroom Practice*

Teachers were asked to define 10 "terms used when discussing digital texts." These were mainly terms used for Internet text forms. When I collated "fully defined" and "partially defined" responses, over 75% of the teachers could define seven of these. Less known were *wiki* (70.8% successful definitions, *N*=24), *Webquest* (58.3% successful) and *hypertext* (54.2% successful). There were no great differences between age groups, gender or number of years teaching experience but, overall, teachers in school 10 displayed more terminology familiarity, though there was no evidence that they were using these with students any more than the other teachers.

The survey question on reasons why teachers have not accessed hyperfiction (and a previous question indicated that none of the teachers had), gave insight not only into particular attitudes to hyperfiction, but also into constraints around the use of computer technology. I divided responses into two sections for analysis, one that

dealt with the technology in general (knowledge of the technology; classroom online access; moving location for access; liking screen reading) and one that dealt with hyperfiction itself (interest in; pertinence of; time constraints; personal reading of; knowledge of the text form).

For over half of the teachers (54.2%), lack of classroom access was an *extremely important* constraint. Couple this with the need to move a class of teenagers to another location (the second most *extremely important* constraint) and access becomes a major constraint. When responses of *extremely important*, *very important* and *important* were collated, (Figure 23), moving rooms for access (87.5%) and the lack of classroom Internet access (83.3%) were still the main constraints, demonstrating the importance of school infrastructure as an element for successful teacher use of technology with students. In fact, access is one of the "first order" barriers described by Ertmer (1999) and other early researchers on barriers to teacher adoption of ICT (British Educational Communications and Technology Agency (Becta), 2004; Hennessy et al., 2005; Pelgrum, 2001) and is also evident in later studies (Hew & Brush, 2007; Hurd, 2009), despite significant resourcing for schools in this area this century. When I used school decile as a unit of analysis, though a pressing issue for the teachers at the decile ten school (75% of whom cited this as an *extremely important* constraint), classroom access and moving to another location was not as pressing for teachers in the decile four (43%) or the decile seven schools (44.4%). Other decile differences also emerged, with the teachers from the decile ten school citing knowledge of the technology and lack of affinity for on-screen reading as *extremely important* constraints (50%) compared to 14.2% in the decile four school and 22.2% in the decile seven. Confident use of the technology and an affinity for on-screen reading were issues for over half of the teachers.
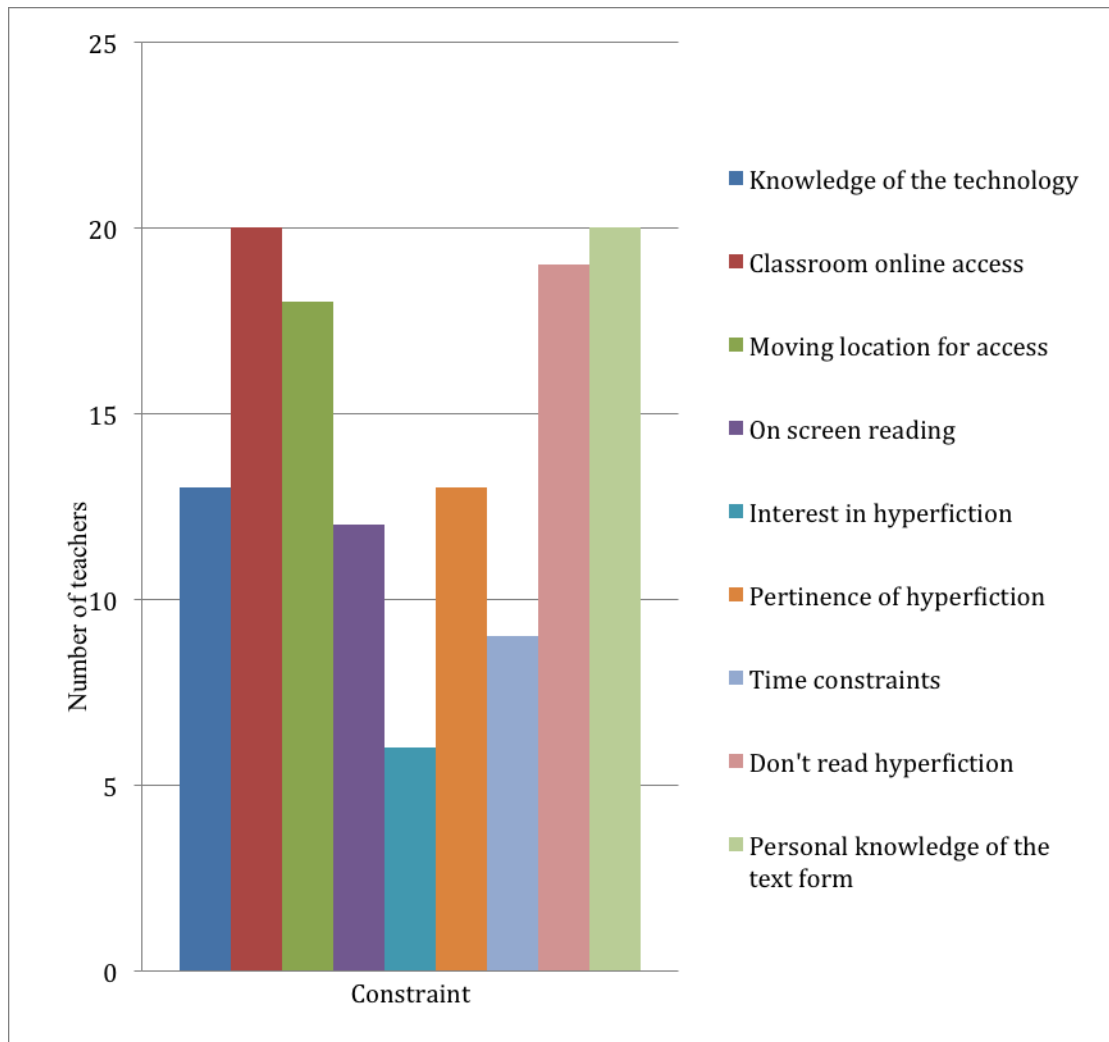
Figure 23. Teacher perceived constraints for technology use: responses of *extremely important, very important* and *important*

The decile ten classrooms were no better resourced for computer access than the other schools in this study. Teachers in this school also felt more insecure in their technological knowledge. Whether this was because of a lack of professional learning or a more acute awareness of a need to up-skill, was not apparent at this stage of analysis. However, when I analysed teacher definitions of "terms used when discussing digital texts," it was this very group who were the most knowledgeable about different digital text forms. A tentative conclusion might be that the teachers from school 10 were more informed about these texts and it was this awareness that

had, ironically, increased their feelings of a lack of knowledge. I would explore these constraints in the teacher interviews.

The second part of this section of analysis was to look at teacher responses concerning hyperfiction in particular. The collation of extremely *important*, *very important* and *important* revealed two major constraints for using hyperfiction: teacher knowledge of the text form (83.3%) and that teachers did not read this text form (79.1%). This finding suggests the importance of formal teacher professional learning when introducing new aspects of a subject area. Interestingly, over half of the teachers (54.1%) indicated that there were more pertinent texts for their students to read, which, given their professed lack of knowledge of this text form, begs the question "how do they know?" Other researchers have posited that time constraints for sustained teacher learning (Cowie, Jones, & Harlow, 2011; Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010; Hennessy et al., 2005), assessment regimes that do not recognise ICT resources and pedagogical affordances (Hennessy et al., 2005; Lim & Chai, 2008), and teachers' beliefs about learning, teaching and their curriculum subject (Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010; Hew & Brush, 2007), impact their pedagogical integration of ICT. These constraints of time and teacher beliefs may well be impacting on these teachers' ability to learn about and utilise this text resource in the classroom. However, unlike in the overseas literature, there is no assessment constraint related to the use of hyperfiction in the New Zealand classroom – in fact, there was an assessment Standard encouraging its use. Teacher perceived constraints needed following up in the teacher interviews.

When I used gender as the unit of analysis there was little difference between the responses. I also did an analysis by the number of years teaching. The only difference to emerge was in "I need more knowledge of the text form." Ten of the 11

teachers (90.9%) who had one to five years experience saw this as an *extremely important* or *very important* reason, compared with 70.8% of all teachers. None in this one to five years' experience range saw "I am not interested" as *extremely important*, with five of the 11 signalling this as *not important*, compared with a total of two in all the other experience groups. This group, who were generally younger, although lacking knowledge of the text form, were more positive about the pertinence of hyperfiction for their students. Seventeen of all the teachers either fully defined or partially defined hyperfiction (analysed looking for key words or synonyms for *animated, interactive* and *hyperlinked*), so a large number knew what hyperfiction was in a general way, but lacked in-depth knowledge of, and experience with, the text form.

Overall, these teachers had a good working knowledge of names for Internet text forms, but little knowledge of the one text form singled out for attention in high-stakes assessment. None had chosen hyperfiction as a text for study and the teacher perceived barriers to this encompassed Ertmer's (1999) "first order" (such as access and moving students between locations) and "second order" (such as confident use of the technology, text form knowledge, and beliefs about learning, teaching and subject English) constraints.

5.7 *Conclusion*

The knowledge these teachers had of student motivation was based on experience rather than research and they saw text and topic choices as important factors in reading motivation. They recognised the motivational importance of choosing texts that engaged students. However, they had no consistent method for finding out what texts engaged their students out-of-school. The teachers had two main aims when

choosing texts for the classroom: student engagement and fostering positive attitudes to reading, but no teacher ranked the aim of linking with students' out-of-school interests, as *extremely important*.

While thinking Internet text was their students' most popular reading choice, only 12.5% of teachers explored digital text in the classroom. They saw students as being 'tech savvy' but recognised the dearth of students' critical digital information literacy skills. Nonetheless, teacher choices of text forms useful for enhancing Year 10 literacy, and those chosen for classroom practices, gave scant evidence that this was being addressed. The surveyed teachers, no matter from which school, indicated that classroom online access and moving to specialist rooms were major constraints on using digital text with students. Confident use of technology and lack of affinity with screen reading were also constraints for over half of the teachers and there was little gender difference in these responses.

These findings contrast with statements in *The New Zealand Curriculum* (2007) that effective pedagogy builds on students' experiences and home practices and that inclusion means recognising students' identities. Only 16.7% of the teachers saw information processing skills as an important aim when choosing texts, yet, New Zealand research and my student focus group findings show this as an area of need. These skills are also embedded in the vision statement in the curriculum, which aims for students to be "effective users of communication tools," "critical and creative thinkers," and "active seekers, users, and creators of knowledge" (Ministry of Education, 2007, p. 8).

On the whole, the teachers' perceptions of types of text useful for enhancing Year 10 literacy practices were time-honoured choices. When they indicated which texts they had used in classrooms in the preceding 12 months it was, again, these

time-honoured choices. The majority chose six or seven different texts over the time, showing students were experiencing variety but not a wide range and the types of text teachers thought students read out-of-school were under-represented.

The explorations in this chapter have added to an under-researched aspect of English teaching in New Zealand, that is, teacher knowledge of students' out-of-school literacy practices and text choices, and whether subject English teachers embrace these choices, both philosophically and in practice. What emerged from the analysis of the teacher surveys were teachers' beliefs about appropriate text for study in an English classroom, their conceptualisations of their subject and also their perceived barriers to using digital text with students. The next chapter examines these issues in greater detail, through an analysis of three teacher interviews, to explain the complex interplay of factors that influence teachers' text choices.

CHAPTER SIX

GETTING UP CLOSE AND PERSONAL: TEACHERS' PRACTICES, INSIGHTS

AND IDENTITIES.

The more I know, the less I understand,
All the things I thought I figured out, I have to learn again,
I've been tryin' to get down to the heart of the matter,
But everything changes.

Henley, D. (1989). The heart of the matter. [Recorded by M. W. Campbell, D. Henley & J. D. Souther]. *The end of the innocence*. [CD], Los Angeles: Geffen Records.

Teacher voices heard in interviews expand on the teacher survey and give personal perspectives on topics raised in the teacher survey, in this chapter. I describe the teacher interview participants, the interview process and the analysis procedures. I then outline the reliability and validity of these. This is followed by the findings of the three teacher interviews. The findings in this chapter give depth to my study's investigation of teacher knowledge of what their students read out-of-school, the value the teachers place on students' text choices and the opportunities available in English programmes for these choices to gain visibility. The teachers expand on their choice of classroom texts, their views on students' critical information literacy and the place of digital text in English programmes. Alongside this, they discuss the constraints they encounter for choosing texts and reveal how their personal and professional identities impact on their attitudes towards different text forms.

6.1 *The Interview Participants*

The three teachers selected to participate in the teacher interviews were those who taught the most students completing diaries and attending the focus group at each school.

Carol was a second year teacher who taught in the decile four school. Carol taught English to four of the eight female students who completed diaries and participated in the focus group. Carol was 26, had a Bachelor of Journalism, and came to New Zealand from Canada for her one year preservice secondary teacher education. She then secured her teaching position at her school and was teaching English and English for Speakers of Other Languages.

Phil, who was in his first year teaching, taught both English and Media Studies at the decile seven school. Phil taught an all male Year 10 English class and two of the five school 7 focus group students. Phil was 33 and completed his preservice secondary teacher education and his BA(Hons) degree majoring in English, in New Zealand.

Nick was 31 years old and a Year 10 Dean at the decile ten school who taught English. He was in his fourth year teaching. Nick taught three of the females who completed the diary activity and one of these participated in the focus group. Nick had a BA degree in English and Film completed in New Zealand, as was his preservice secondary teacher education.

All three teachers had work histories out of teaching and, therefore, had made conscious career changes to become secondary teachers. They were early career teachers holding permanent positions and were aged between 26 and 33 years old, putting them in the youngest age range of the teacher survey. Age and career length gave them commonalities in terms of life stages and career development.

Many theorists have defined career stages in terms of years teaching. Many also use a six-stage continuum with similarities in the cut off points delineating the stages. For instance, Huberman (1989) labels the first three years of teaching as characterised by survival and discovery, leading into a stabilisation phase in the fourth to sixth years. This first stage is early career which leads to the second stage of commitment which he calls early/midcareer (Huberman, 1993). Bandura (1997) and Drake (2002) theorise the first stage as being the first three years of teaching, whereas Wolters and Daugherty (2007) maintain a longer first stage, extending into the fifth year.

Phil, Carol and Nick were in their first, second and fourth years, respectively, making them early career teachers and, according to theorists, at a similar career stage characterised by similar attitudes, beliefs and behaviours. Beijaard (1995) and Sikes (1992) claim that teachers at the same career stage share "similar experiences, perceptions, attitudes, satisfactions, frustrations, and concerns, and the nature of their motivation and commitment alters in a predictable pattern as they get older" (Sikes, 1992, p. 40 cited in Beijaard, 1995, p. 284).

Based on a two decade study, Nias (1989a) asserts early stage teachers, after their first year, have overcome a survival preoccupation, feel technically confident, are beginning to plan ahead, yet do not have the same feelings of satisfaction derived from feeling autonomous and in control of their professional lives as colleagues in their second decade of teaching. She maintains that early career teachers have little impact on the contexts within which they work and feel little agency in their professional identities. Wolters and Daugherty (2007) agree, maintaining that teacher self-efficacy only increases with experience. Others explain this as the construction of teacher identity: "Identities are constructed, deconstructed and reconstructed in the early years of teaching" (Day, Kington, Stobart, & Sammons, 2006, p. 608).

Despite choosing teachers for interview based on student focus group participants, I had selected an homogenous group of teachers in terms of career stage.

6.2 *The Interview Procedure: Arranging, Planning and Conducting the Interviews*

Consent to be interviewed was part of the consenting process with the teacher survey. I contacted the three teachers by email to confirm they were still available for interview and, if so, when it suited them. The interviews took place at each school. I interviewed Carol and Nick in non-contact times during the school day, Carol in a

comfortable school-designated meeting room and Nick in his office. Phil opted for his classroom after school. This meant all three had control over the where and when of the interviews. Each interview was an hour, so length was one element of common structure to all three (Gillham, 2005).

I had left the final interview guide decisions until I knew which teachers were participating. Interviews were after the student focus groups and both surveys, so these could inform the interview protocol. I took a semi-structured approach and all three interviews had the same question protocol.

I wanted to explore the teachers' insider experiences, feelings, emotions and insights in the interviews, which is a strong reason for choosing a semi-structured approach (Wisker, 2001). The main interview purpose was to deepen the teacher survey responses and get teacher perspectives on the issues raised in the student focus groups. Furthermore, I wanted to compare responses among the three teachers, which necessitated a semi-structured conversation. Gillham (2005) has asserted, "One of the strengths of the semi-structured interview is that it facilitates a strong element of discovery, while its structured focus allows an analysis in terms of commonalities" (p. 72).

Next to each main question (which was linked to my research questions), I listed possible probes and prompts. These included particulars from each teacher's survey responses, responses from the student surveys and the focus group from each teacher's school, and contextual probes localised to the teacher's school. During analysis, therefore, I could look not only for comparable responses across the three interviews, but also be sensitive to the circumstances and experiences of each teacher. Secondly, I wanted the teachers to understand that I was interested in *them* as individuals, and that I had taken care to read their surveys carefully. I hoped referring

to their previous responses would give them an opportunity to expand them and act as a conversation stimulant. Further unplanned questions would seek elaboration and clarification of teacher responses. Each main question acted as a "funnel" (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 357) down to the more exacting probes that would give the richness and depth to the interviews which many scholars advocate (e.g., Cohen et al., 2007; Patton, 2002).

Questions were phrased to elicit open responses while still keeping to the purpose of the interview. I checked that any terminology used was common to teachers of English and not, as warned in the literature (Cohen et al., 2007), open to individual interpretation. Eleven main questions were constructed, which seemed appropriate considering the recommendation for 10 to 20 questions in a 90 minute interview (Stewart et al., 2009). The teacher interview key questions are in Appendix H.

Although I had the interview protocol, I would probe in the moment, particularly if unthought-of, but relevant, topics arose. To some extent the interview would be "developed by the conversation between interviewer and interviewee" (Wisker, 2001, p. 168) and have conversational spontaneity (Schostak, 2006).

At each interview's commencement I described the taping and transcription process. I explained I would take some notes during the interview to help with my analysis. I showed the transcriber's confidentiality agreement and told interviewees that transcripts would be sent to them for verification. I also assured them that in any write up resulting from the interview, they would have pseudonyms and that I would try to preserve their anonymity as far as was possible. This included explaining that anyone in their department might identify them, because of their responses. I shared the warning, "The cloak of anonymity for characters may not work with insiders who

can easily locate the individuals concerned or, what is even worse, claim that they can recognize them when they are in fact wrong" (M. Punch, 1994, p. 92). The teachers could ask for the recorders to be switched off at any time and anything that they said at this time would not be used in the final analysis. This did not eventuate.

I took field notes during interviews, recognising that the resulting transcript would not represent the interview in its totality (Schostak, 2006). Sometimes I noted things to follow up with other interviewees or with further reading, questions for my professional reflection (for instance, as Carol and Nick's preservice English curriculum lecturer, I noted their verbalised insecurity with some ICTs and their management difficulties when using a multi-text approach to novel study), notes on nonverbal aspects (such as Phil's animated enthusiasm for his *Huckleberry Finn* novel study and Carol's frustration with her SSR colleague), and times when I was the 'outsider' (Carol's explanation of the time constraints imposed by her school's internal examination placement). The notes enabled me to expand my practice of the "inter-view" (Cohen et al., 2007; Schostak, 2006), where both the teachers and I valued "the different experiences, the feelings, the ideas of the other" (Schostak, 2006, p. 64). That this was achieved for the teachers in some measure was evident when, meeting Carol five months later, she commented that she was spending more time on Internet literacy during the research process with her students "after talking with you."

After each interview I was heartened by responses from each about enjoying the process and two mentioned getting in touch if I had further questions. I sent transcripts to the teachers within a week of each interview (while it was still fresh in their minds), for changing, removing and verifying contents. My concern about the connection between correction and censorship and my urge to get as close to the

reality of these teachers as I could, did not eventuate as none made any transcript changes.

6.3 *Analysis of Teacher Interviews*

I analysed the interviews by a constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This inductive and comparative process was used to consolidate, reduce and interpret (Merriam, 2009) the interview data through iterative coding (Willis, 2006). I began with intensive reading and employed a "cut and sort" technique (Stewart et al., 2009, p. 603).

Each transcript was colour coded so when comments were cut up they could be traced to the interviewee. Initially, every different comment (data segment) in transcript one was highlighted and cut from its transcript. This started category construction with each comment being given a code and note as to a possible category name with key words that would help define the category and establish rules for the allocation of further comments. It was important to "devise rules that describe category properties and that can, ultimately, be used to justify the inclusion of each data bit that remains assigned to the category as well as to provide a basis for later tests of replicability" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 347). This approach was similar to Glaser's (1998) "theoretical memoing" as the notes were used in the final analysis stage. As analysis progressed I continually added to and refined these notes to give meaning to the categories, because the meaning of each category is "bound up on the one hand with the bits of data to which it is assigned, and on the other hand with the ideas it expresses" (Dey, 1993, p. 102). This approach to coding meant it became part of the analysis process, not something that occurred before analysis. This contrasted

with the coding approach for the quantitative data from the student and teacher surveys.

I gave similar comments the same code and my initial note was refined or added to as necessary. The second and third interview transcripts were treated similarly, using the same codes and refining notes. When a new category emerged, this was given a code and note.

The allocation of segments from the subsequent transcripts was less time consuming because many categories arose from transcript one. I categorised repetitions of similar ideas over the three transcripts to give weight to the ideas and to saturate the categories. An example of data consolidation into the initial codes (open coding) and their notes is in Table 21.

Table 21

Teacher Interviews: Example of Open Coding and Notes

Code	Notes	Transcript Quotes (school, transcript page)
English department scheme and the policy or advice for the integration of ICT	• English department formal ICT goals • English department scheme and ICT priorities • English department formal advice on ICT integration	• I think it's in there but we have one or two goals every year and I think it's a department goal for next year. (4, 25) • It's a goal but … talking with the actual how to do it is difficult (4, 24) • I wouldn't say so [priority].I just think everyone's fatigued, everyone's a bit cynical. (7, 22) • There used to be an ICT assessment … but it was very, very vague and I think a lot … were very resistant to even doing it because what I talked about before, the access time and the reliability. There was definitely a feeling of why are we teaching them stuff that they already know, that they can probably teach us about. (10, 22)

The process of category construction is described as "open coding" by Merriam (2009) who advocates a second process of "axial coding". Axial coding was completed by grouping the first coding round into categories that became themes. This reflects the two necessary parts of analysis Dey calls fragmenting and connecting (Dey, 1993). I checked that themes were able to "hold over more than one transcript" (Merriam, 2009, p. 213) so that comments were not given more significance than they warranted. When a theme was not evidenced in more than one transcript I attached an explanatory note (for instance, some themes attached to SSR were from one school). The next step was returning to the initial open coding and the definitions and notes, to check that no more categories needed formulating. This ensured the generated themes were exhaustive and that every data segment was allocated to a theme. I rechecked themes to ensure for mutual exclusivity, exactness and that they related to my research purpose. So, some of the initial themes generated were extended, refined or discarded (Dey, 1993). I reduced notes accompanying themes, cut out repetitions and refined thematic properties. This constant comparison reduced the open coding stage data. An example of data reduction and theme construction is in Table 22.

Table 22

Teacher Interviews: Example of Axial Coding and Theme Construction

Constructed theme	Axial coding
Affordances for the use of ICT	• English department appraisal processes • department ICT goals • getting English department computer laboratory next year/good access for some teachers • help is available • librarian's forum • ability to track student activities while online • rise in student engagement • encouragement from management • teacher's/colleagues' attitudes/colleagues/Teacher's skill • national assessment • school Internet policy • using social networking sites/blogs/wikis

An independent coder cross-checked coding reliability. Six randomly chosen consecutive pages of each interview transcript, (18 pages of 93, representing approximately 20% of transcript data), were used. Using the themes and notes from the axial coding process, the independent coder chunked the interviewee comments into themes by annotating the transcripts. Sixty-four chunks of comments were allocated, 54 of which coincided with my thematic allocations. This was an 84.3% agreement level. The interrater reliability was kappa = .821 ($p < 0.001$). Nine themes were thus constructed in the second analysis stage (see Figure 24).

I performed a third stage of analysis using teacher identity as an analytic lens. Teacher identity, agency, power and resistance in relation to text choices then became a tenth theme. During the second stage of analysis several themes revolving around constraints and affordances had arisen. When I looked at teacher statements, particularly when referring to constraints, many centred on notions of power and agency and with teacher perceptions based on prior experiences. Further examination showed resistance statements often accompanied these. The verbs teachers used were particularly poignant, so I examined their emotion-laden statements. Scholars have worked with the complex interplay of power and resistance, and the emotions in the formulation of teacher identity. There is also a significant body of research connecting teacher identity to classroom practice decisions.

In her research Nias (1989a, 1989b) found that the foundation of teachers' conceptions of their jobs was their identity and that "the attitudes and actions of every teacher are rooted in his/her own ways of perceiving the world" (Nias, 1989b, p. 156). Moreover, there is research connecting teacher emotions to their actions, and identity to emotions (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Day et al., 2006; Zembylas, 2005), supporting the assertion that "without the emotions category, accounts of situated

actions would be fragmentary and incomplete" (Barbalet, 2002, p. 4). Many of these researchers also make connections between identity, the emotions and resistance, (often a result of negative feelings surrounding power and agency), because "power, agency and resistance are at the centre of exploring the role of emotion and identity in teaching" (Zembylas, 2005, p. 936).

I used these connections, as well as the early career teacher descriptions discussed earlier, to make decisions on furthering this stage of analysis. I highlighted occurrences of transcript comments that included references to emotion (such as frustration, guilt, enthusiasm and delight), personal and professional identity (for instance self image, beliefs and comments related to career stage), and sense of agency, power or resistance. I mainly identified emotions by looking particularly at verbs chosen to describe feelings, reactions and opinions in relation to the contexts in which the teachers found themselves. Examples of teacher comment collation for this third analytic stage are in Table 23.

Table 23

Examples of Collation of Teacher Comments for Third Stage of Analysis

Self image; personal identity; professional identity	Emotion	Sense of agency, power, success	Resistance
I'm of a generation that grew up with using it [PowerPoint and the Internet] it's also being a beginning teacher … I've got priorities that I need to sort out before I've got time to get to that [using ICT	I've been begging for ages I get very nervous about using them I'm just worried about but it's a struggle to fit in two he doesn't see the point I've been fighting about it lately	I don't think I'd be able to get the parents on the side I've been begging a success that I have. the basic facilities of the school don't allow that easily. there's nothing new I can show them	so why would I bother [using PowerPoint] It [using laptops] would be a disaster, I don't want to touch it [using laptops] with a ten foot pole I'm never doing it [using computers for class writing] again.

The fourth stage of analysis was to look for such things as causes, contingencies, consequences and conditions within each theme. I compared comments within a single interview and from different interviewees, looking for similarities, inconsistencies and differences within each theme, and to gauge intensity as well as frequency. At times an interviewee was the unit of analysis and at others, the constructed themes. The interview findings below show the attention given to whether comments arose over the themes or whether they arose within a particular interview. I used the tables in the first and second stages of analysis, which included quotes and attention as to where the quotes arose (see Tables 21 and 22), when looking for similarities and differences within themes and over the three interviewees. I took care with this part of the analysis as it is "fundamentally an interpretive issue requiring judgement and choice" (Kirk & Miller, 1986, p. 5).

Although a time consuming process, it contributed to the reliability and validity of interview analysis.

6.4 *Reliability, Validity and Trustworthiness of the Teacher Interview Processes*

Charles Bosk poses the question "All field work done by a single field-worker invites the question, Why should we believe it?" (2008, p. 167). The measures I put in place give objectivity to the interview method. I concentrated on issues of validity and reliability, because "The success of a research effort at achieving objectivity is measured in terms of its validity and reliability" (Kirk & Miller, 1986, p. 71).

I have documented the interview process, analysis and decision-making to show the reliability of the findings. Kirk and Miller (1986) repeatedly emphasise that explicitly describing procedures and documenting decision-making, guides reliability. They acknowledge, "Qualitative work is blatantly interpretive" (p. 5) and "The field

observations of qualitative research intrinsically involve the observer" (p. 51), and

that detailing all procedures and adhering to certain processes contributes to reliability

and validity, constitutes objectivity. This idea of supplying detail is reinforced by

Boeije (2002) when discussing the method of analysis:

> The step by step approach to the constant comparative method (CCM) …
> systematizes this method for analysing data. Going about CCM in a purposeful
> way … when implementing the step by step approach, increases both the
> traceability and credibility of researchers' analysis in their qualitative studies. (p.
> 406)

Interviewing the teachers at a place of their choice, ethical considerations

surrounding confidentiality, using the same interview questions and publishing these,

opting for word for word transcription, sending transcripts to teachers for checking

accuracy prior to the coding process, keeping field notes, conducting the three

interviews as closely together as possible, keeping notes capturing definitions of

coding categories as a constant referral mechanism and using an independent rater to

check the inductive thematic process, further contribute to the reliability of my

interview method and analysis.

The thematic process had a high level of interrater agreement and ensured that

the variables (the allocated codes and subsequent emerging themes) had appropriate

names. This checking of "whether phenomena are properly labelled" (Kirk & Miller,

1986, p. 20) is another factor contributing to reliability. Further, that the teachers

chose the venue for their interviews and that interviews were recorded and transcribed

verbatim, that is "on their own turf" and in "their own language" (p. 12) is important,

and "less important is whether or not, or at what level of sophistication, numbers are

employed to reveal patterns" (p. 12). Coupled with this, using the same interview

protocol over the three sites was particularly important given the number of

similarities over the respondents and "recording questions, and to some degree

standardizing them, is not only a necessary step, but a sufficient one" (p. 55). All of

the above contribute to what Kirk and Miller refer to as "the contemporary search for

validity" (p. 52).

The findings reported below contain many quotes from the teachers, not just to

give "faithfulness to the account" (Warren & Karner, 2005, p. 244), but as a "strategy

for legitimation" (Emerson et al., 1995, pp. 179-180). Berg (2004) asserts that

integrating excerpts of interview data gives support to the analysis. Using the

verbatim transcripts to provide quotes gives "rich data" which is a further validity test

(J. A Maxwell, 2005).

Having explained the interview process to demonstrate reliability, one issue

needs detailing in terms of validity. Two of the three interviewees had previously

attended my preservice teacher education English curriculum courses. The teacher

selection process was decided early in my study, so this validity threat was

unavoidable. Having worked in secondary English teacher preservice education for 20

years in the city where the research was conducted, it was unavoidable that some

teachers would have had contact with me. Ethical issues around this have been

discussed in Chapter Two. But, *any* interviewer is going to influence the interview

process and "trying to 'minimize' your effect is not a meaningful goal for qualitative

research … what is important is to understand *how* you are influencing what the

informant says" (J. A Maxwell, 2005, p. 109, italics in original). It is impossible to

eliminate a researcher's influence. Despite this, I made it clear, when inviting the two

teachers to participate, that they should not feel compelled to do so. Findings also

show that the teachers were not trying to *please* me by making what could be

perceived as *correct* responses or by positively referring to their preservice year – it

was the third teacher with whom I had had no prior contact, who made the most

references to his preservice experiences. I was also careful in my field notes to memo anything that may have been impacted by this previous relationship and I tried to avoid leading questions during the interviews so that I was not putting "words into their mouths" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 151).

That there had been a previous professional relationship with two of the teachers may, in fact, have been a positive influence on the interview process. As argued, "relationships that are complex, fluid, symmetric and reciprocal – that are shaped by both researcher and actors – reflect a more responsible ethical stance *and* are likely to yield deeper data and better social science" (Lawrence-Lightfoot & Davis, 1997, pp. 137-138, italics in original).

While the interview findings may not be generalisable to a larger population, there are enough commonalities over the interviews to show patterns that could be common to other early career teachers who are in a similar age range as the three teachers in this study. Also, using a definition of internal generalisability, that is, generalisability within the group studied (J. A Maxwell, 2005), there is evidence of findings that are common to all three teachers.

6.5 *Teacher Interview Findings*

Ten constructed themes emerged from the teacher interviews' analysis. The thematic analysis highlighted teacher perceptions of the value of knowing what students read out-of-school, the avenues available for them to use and make connections with these texts in their classroom practices, their perceptions of the value of doing this, and the affordances and constraints around text choices, including their own sense of identity and agency. These themes and their relationship to the sub-research questions of my research are demonstrated in Figure 24.

Constructed themes

Do teachers know or value knowing what students read out-of-school?

Teacher perceptions of the value of knowing what students are reading out-of-school

English department or teacher selected opportunities to find out what students read out-of-school

How do teachers know what students read out-of-school?

The basis on which teachers choose text for class study

Teacher perceived constraints on choice of text for class work

Do teachers use the information about what students read out-of-school to inform text selection?

Teacher perceived value of and constraints for using manga, graphic novels and popular fiction

Using a multi-text approach to a class novel study: processes, successes and limitations

Teacher perceived value of and constraints for choosing Internet text for class work

What opportunities do students have to read out-of-school texts in school?

What affords or constrains the utilisation of students' out-of-school texts in school?

Teacher perceptions of students' Internet reading skills and the teaching of Internet research skills

Teacher perceptions of strengths, weaknesses and procedures of sustained silent reading

Teacher identity, agency, power and resistance in relation to text choices

Figure 24. Constructed themes from teacher interviews and their relationship to the research questions

6.5.1 *Teacher Perceptions of the Value of Knowing What Students Read Out-of-school*

All three teachers saw value in knowing what students read out-of-school, but their comments centred on the value of knowing the topics read about and students' novel choices. None mentioned the value of knowing the variety of reading materials students accessed, so that this variety could be brought into the classroom.

Like Nick, Carol was interested in what students read and their interests, because this gave her "a better chance of finding something in those shelves [in the English department] that they'll be interested in." Phil said, "it probably influenced the text choice I chose for extended text, 'cause you immediately realise that they are starting to read more literary texts" (extended text refers to the longer texts taught for some Achievement Standards before their latest revisions (implemented in 2011), such as novels and play scripts). Carol and Phil were interested in the topics and themes students chose to read about, to help classroom choices that might interest students. Phil saw value in this information because it allowed him to "build units around the particular themes that are coming up in their reading." He also thought knowledge of his students' choices would be useful for recommending to the school librarian and for bringing students' interests into the classroom. However, the tentative nature of his language suggests that these were possibilities he had not followed up: "*I guess* it would be useful for the librarian" and "try and bring that [students' interests] more into the classroom, *I guess*" (my italics).

When discussing the value of knowing students' reading interests out-of-school, these teachers' preoccupations were with how this knowledge could help them choose novels for study in the classroom (rather than a variety of text forms) and this was reinforced when I investigated how teachers chose texts for class study (see

section 6.5.3.2). Considering that the teachers saw value in knowing what their students read out-of-school, it was interesting to see what opportunities there were and what they had put in place, that enabled them to get this information.

6.5.2 *Planned Opportunities to Find Out What Students Read Out-of-school*

There were no formal planned opportunities for finding out students' reading interests across the Year 10 level in any of the schools. There were, however, aspects of the English programme that afforded these opportunities if individual teachers followed them up.

As explained in Chapter 4 section 4.6.3.1, each school had a reading programme (SSR) that, theoretically, allowed students to read self-chosen texts. It was this reading time that the three teachers thought gave them insight into what their students read. However, the teachers (and focus group students) pointed out the shortcomings of this dedicated reading time and teacher perceptions of this are discussed more fully in section 6.5.3.1.

Student reading logs were another planned opportunity, mentioned by Phil and Nick, for students to make evident their own text choices. Phil's students were doing the wide reading level one Standard (while other Standards are usually attempted at Year 11, this is one many English departments encourage students to do in Year 10). The Standard, however, does set parameters. For instance, there must be a text of critical reputation, a gender balance and more than one cultural perspective, so it is not just anything students might choose to read. Phil got some feedback about his students' out-of-school reading from this, but, along with the Standard's parameters, he also guided the reading when he "put a reading list up on a wiki site I had made, of classic texts that I think they should be reading" and "I'm a reader myself and I just made a fantasy list of what I thought boys of that age should read." Phil had made

huge efforts to recommend texts for students' reading logs, but in doing so skewed the students' reading to texts that he himself had enjoyed. The student survey had shown also, that fantasy titles were not as popular as Phil assumed. Year 10 students in Nick's school could also keep reading logs for an in-school assessment. Students "recorded everything they read or a selection of what they read outside of school." However, he commented, "the reading log handout at the beginning of the year is in the department scheme but it does seem to be … overlooked despite our best intentions." Both teachers thought that student logs gave them feedback on what their students liked to read out-of-school, although Phil's were constrained by the wide reading Standard itself as well as his recommendations, and Nick's students submitted their logs for assessment at the end of the year.

Phil was the only teacher to devise a class questionnaire at the beginning of the year to find out what his students enjoyed reading. This asked students about books and did not delve into other text forms. He also checked on what his students were discussing on the school librarian's book chat on the school intranet. He thought this gave him an idea about extracurricular reading habits, which it did in terms of books, but not in terms of other text forms.

None of the English departments had formalised ways in which to find out what students read out-of-school. If teachers did not take it upon themselves to discuss reading with students during the regularised reading time or in class, or to implement some kind of reading log that allowed for a wide range of student chosen texts and regular discussion, then there was no department wide mechanism to access this information. The three teachers in this study thought that there was value in knowing what students' were reading out-of-school and that they knew what their students were reading, but there were obvious difficulties with all of the avenues.

6.5.3 *Avenues Available to Teachers for Making Connections with Students' Out-of-school Reading Choices*

There were several opportunities for teachers to bring students' own text choices into the English programme. Investigated in this study are the sustained silent reading (SSR) opportunities that the schools ran, the choices of text for class study that teachers made and the choices they gave students within class text studies by using a multi-text approach.

6.5.3.1 *Sustained reading opportunities*

As discussed in section 6.5.1, all three schools had a dedicated reading time for students at Year 10 in which they could read texts of their own choosing. Carol, Phil and Nick all articulated a similar philosophy behind these reading times. It was a time to give students "an opportunity to read" (Carol), it was seen as "a period of quiet reading" (Phil) and "the theory behind it is to partly ensure that kids who don't read a lot have one hour out of seven days where they are encouraged to read for pleasure without any assessment of it, to follow their own interest and for there not to be the pressure of 'you have to read this'" (Nick). However, there were pitfalls in each of the programmes, and common to all three was a lack of monitoring of student reading from session to session and clear guidance to teachers about what should be happening in these sessions.

School 4 had 25 minutes of SSR in vertical forms after lunch, across the whole school and overseen by teachers from a variety of curriculum areas. However, Carol said "I don't actually think that there's been any effort from management to explain the point or explain the actual rules or the reasoning behind it, so I think that's a big problem." There was no monitoring of what individual teachers did with students during SSR and no clear guidance given, according to Carol. That SSR did not always

happen was apparent to her when "at the end of the year the English rooms are used for exams so my class is mixed with another class [for SSR] who I now know watches movies once a week and is allowed to do homework as well." She saw this as being, in part, because of a lack of clear guidance and that SSR "needs a teacher who understands and agrees" with the philosophy and procedure. The teacher with whom she was currently sharing SSR "doesn't see the point." Not only had "the point" not been made clear to staff by the school management team, but also she saw management as sometimes undermining it. She thought that some of management had "the idea that SSR is free time so if there needs to be an assembly [when year groups of students are gathered together in one place for a particular reason] it will be during SSR" and that when a week of study skills was taught, this was also done during SSR and "taking time away from literacy and getting it back to literacy after that is really difficult." She summed this up when she said, "There's always kids being taken out and put back in [for other activities] during SSR, so yeah, I don't think it's having a lot of effect."

If students were not encouraged to bring their own reading matter for SSR, or if they forgot, there were boxes of books that teachers could have in their classrooms. Carol felt that students were not always encouraged to make thoughtful choices though, and that many chose randomly so that they were seen to have some kind of reading material: "They're not choosing a book, they're just picking one up out of the box because the teacher has made them." She also saw the 25-minute length as a difficulty. With SSR occurring after lunch, time was wasted getting students into class and then for motivated readers it was "not necessarily enough time to get into a book and I think the good kids, who are reading, get frustrated because they get into it then the bell rings and they've got to go do something else," and for unmotivated readers,

"it's a long time to stare at a book or stare out the window." Another drawback she saw was that there was little, if any, "carrying on from one day to the next" and any texts used were paper-based. For Carol, who encouraged her students to make use of this time for reading and was passionate about the philosophy of SSR, the management of it across the whole school and the support (or lack of) from the range of staff involved in it, was a source of frustration. Carol's view was that school 4's SSR was not a successful programme for bringing the range of students' out-of-school texts into school.

In schools 7 and 10, Year 10 students had an hour of reading texts of their own choice. This occurred once a fortnight in school 7 and every seven days for school 10 and was timetabled into the English programme and, therefore, was usually overseen by the students' English teachers. This overcame many of the difficulties Carol described with SSR. There were not the interruptions to the schedule as described in school 4, the length did not give the same frustrations to keen readers, materials for those who forgot their own could be accessed in the library, so there was no reliance on a teacher remembering a box of books (and students returning them at session's end and thus having no reading continuity), and there was a greater chance of consistency and support for the programme with a small group of English teachers involved. There were still drawbacks, however, as described by the two teachers from these schools.

Nick and Phil both acknowledged the wide range of reading materials available to students during their library hour. These included graphic novels, comic books and magazines, as well as the more traditional reading material of novels and short stories (neither mentioned Internet reading material). However, student selection often depended on what teachers allowed their students to read. Nick said, for

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instance, "some teachers make sure they read novels. It just depends on the teacher," and Phil said, "often they'll read comic books to be honest … I try and emphasise that they bring their Standard book" (by Standard, he refers to the NCEA Standard). It is interesting to note Phil's "to be honest," indicating that there might be some disapproval of this, and that when speaking of the Standard he talks about a "book."

In both schools there were English department handbook suggestions on utilising this library time, but both teachers said that they were "suggestions" rather than policy and there was no monitoring of what teachers actually did. Phil said that there were two main things that happened in his period, "helping them choose a *book,* or they just sit quietly and read a *book* that they've chose" (my italics). This was in contrast to what the school 7 focus group had said about this time (see Chapter Four section 4.6.3.1). He said that the suggestion was that a teacher could "have 10 minutes where you'd get a boy, talks, recommends a book to the other guys, things like that, or I talk about a particular book, but it never, you know, it never happened."

As with Carol's description of SSR, there was no monitoring of what students read from one session to the next and therefore no monitoring of the engagement in any particular text over time or whether, in fact, the texts students started in reading time were ever finished. Nick, who also had responsibility as a form level Dean in school 10, had another teacher taking his class for reading time. He saw this as why he had little knowledge of what his students read and that this was a drawback for his class because "they never get to know the teacher, the teacher never really gets to know the student … there's no relationship between teacher and student and therefore there's no monitoring in that way."

Although the philosophy behind the reading time in all three schools was to enable students to bring their own text choices into school and have a dedicated time

for engaging with them, it appeared that all three programmes were missing the mark. Explicit instructions to all staff about procedures and monitoring these, sustained school management support, the variety of materials that teachers allowed or encouraged students to read, access to these, discussion and encouragement of student choices, reading session length and continuity between sessions, meant that in each school students were not engaging in the variety of text that they said in their survey they were reading out-of-school. It also meant that these three teachers, who thought this reading time gave them the opportunity to see student reading preferences, were not being given a true picture.

6.5.3.2   *Choice of text for class study*

All three teachers said that they chose classroom texts for study that they thought would interest their students. While Carol and Phil linked some of their comments to efforts to find out what students were reading out-of-school (their interests), like Nick, they gave other reasons for the text choices they made. Carol had chosen novels for class study because she thought they were high interest and that her students would want to "know what's going to happen next." For this reason she also liked to choose novels which were part of a series and thought that these choices had motivated her students to read further: "A good chunk of them went on and got the rest from the library … I really like those ones because they are good books anyway and they start the kids on the rest of the series."

This notion of "good" books peppered teacher comments. For Carol it was important to read "good" books and that her students did a "serious" book. For Phil, it was important that his students read "a classic literary text." Nick, while not mentioning "good," "classic," "serious," or "literary" text, emphasised the need to introduce students to poetry because to not do so would be "doing them [the students]

a disservice." Nick was also the only teacher who expressed views on the place of

New Zealand literature in his text choices for classroom study:

> I always think the tastes in the class are all going to be so diverse that I want to. There's a commonality of living in New Zealand so that's quite a good commonality to choose … I do tend to gravitate into New Zealand fiction. Well, this year I did *The whale rider* with both of my classes and then also some New Zealand poets and short stories by Witi Ihimaera and Roderick Finlayson. So yeah, the reading, I tend to do New Zealand … it's in the curriculum, the NEGS [National Education Guidelines] and the NAGS [National Assessment Guidelines].

Unlike Carol and Phil, he mentioned the influence of the curriculum and national

policy documents in his text choices and also the impact of high-stakes assessment in

the senior school on the choices he made for Year 10 class study. He referred to his

choices as allowing him to "talk about similes and structure and stanzas and all those

different things that will actually benefit their 1.6, 2.6 and 3.5 in the future" (referring

to particular Standards). Nick also spoke about the 'traditional' approach to text

choices in subject English and the impact of a teacher's own experiences of subject

English:

> I think because I and all teachers came up through a different system, I think our underlying idea of school, and English classes in particular, is that you study, at some point you do a novel, you do some poetry and you do short stories, you do a film and you do some Shakespeare and you do some other stuff like research, all that stuff. So I think that is just inherent in how we think of an English class.

Although Nick thinks this is a reflection of teachers coming "up through a

different system," these text choices also reflect the Achievement Standards.

These three teachers valued knowing what students read out-of-school so it

could influence their choices of text for classroom study, but when they spoke of how

they did choose text, none said that this was to reflect the texts that students were

reading for leisure. They said that they chose text based on students' interests, but

further conversation showed that this was more based on what the teachers thought

would be high interest to students. They all spoke about what might be called the time-honoured text choices in subject English, those that were "good," "serious," "classics" (usually when referring to novels), or which reflected traditional types of text. Nick was the only teacher to mention the impact of assessment, curriculum and policy on his text choices for Year 10 but, with the exception of the importance of New Zealand literature, the choices of the other teachers also reflected these requirements. Texts chosen for class study did not encompass the wide range of text students were accessing out-of-school nor did it encompass text that required twenty-first century literacies or new literacies.

6.5.3.3   *Text choices given to students within class text study*

Nick and Carol had both used a multi-text approach to a class novel study so students had some choice within the study. Carol had followed a reading circles approach using six different novels, while Nick had used three different novels with student work based on generic activities. Both had only done this once and both reported limited success.

Carol's selection of books for her students was "based on interest not level," though she felt constrained within these choices because she did not "like limiting what the next year's teacher has to teach." To help students choose, she "made a choice sheet with the front covers and a little synopsis so they didn't get to choose based on how big the book was." However, the management of six groups operating with different texts and different tasks was a challenge: "It was hard for me to keep track of it all to be quite honest. When you've got six different groups of four or five kids all over the place."

Nick's approach had involved three texts differentiated for interest but he thought, "I wasn't successful … I just think my choice of books wasn't spot on." He

thought that he would try a multi-text approach again, but with senior students and that "for a junior class I would be more tempted to do … just the one text for the whole class."

A multi-text approach meant that more texts were coming into the classroom for study, but teacher text choices were constrained. Although two teachers had attempted to use a multi-text approach to a novel study, they both reported limited success and did not have plans to try again with a Year 10 class.

6.5.4 *Teacher Perceived Value of and the Affordances and Constraints in Choice of Page and Internet Text for the Classroom*

The student survey and focus groups revealed students accessing some texts out-of-school that were under-represented, or not represented, in the text choices introduced in English classrooms. Discussion of these arose in the teacher interviews and particularly encompassed popular fiction, graphic novels, manga and Internet text.

The teachers recognised positive outcomes for choosing these texts that ranged from increasing student engagement, enhancing critical thinking, facilitating communication with students and increasing literacy outcomes for students who struggled with time-honoured texts. However, teacher conversations identified personal, institutional and national level constraints to their use of this variety of text in the classroom. These constraints included curriculum and assessment, school policy decisions, professional knowledge, timetables and access, teacher identity and personal conceptualisation of their subject.

There were distinct differences between the conversations about the paper-based texts and Internet text and therefore these two categories will be reported separately.

6.5.4.1   *Popular fiction, graphic novels and manga*

Popular fiction in this study is defined as what is sometimes referred to as genre fiction. It appeals to a mass audience, its primary objective is entertainment, it is plot driven, often formulaic, commercial and is in contrast to the fiction that the interview teachers referred to as "good," "serious," and "classic." An example is the "vampire" genre that arose in student survey responses which was exemplified by the focus group students as the Twilight series by Stephenie Meyer.

The term "graphic novel" is evolving and for this study describes a medium rather than a genre. Graphic novels can be fiction or nonfiction and are a complete work told in sequential pictures and words. Sometimes they are referred to as a literary long form of the comic. Developed in North America, they have a recent history but are on library shelves.

Sometimes manga is included in the term graphic novel. However manga has a longer history and was developed in Japan. For this study the term encompasses the Japanese manga, the Taiwanese manhua, the South Korean manhwa and the English versions called world manga. Students from a variety of Asian countries indicated that they were reading manga out-of-school.

All three teachers saw value in students reading popular fiction, particularly in SSR, because it gave students an opportunity to "have a positive experience with a book," develop a reading "habit" and that "if you see a kid reading for an hour it's kind of like a success in itself." Nonetheless, it was only Carol who thought that there was a place for studying popular fiction in the classroom. She had read the Stephenie Meyer books and "would like to teach something like that" and had noticed that her female students in particular, "wouldn't stop reading them." Despite this, she had not included them in her class programme. Her reasoning was that "there is a lot of

parental concern about the subject matter of books like that" and "I don't think I'd be able to get the parents onside." She thought that with the advent of the movie versions parents "know too much about it" and that "I'd have an uproar because there's so much media attention to it." Her attitude was based on one mother who "is terrified of the movies … the whole idea that this girl is so in love with this boy that she's throwing herself off a cliff so she can be with him." She did not mention the time-honoured "classics" with similar themes used in school (for instance *Romeo and Juliet* or *Wuthering Heights*) nor the awards, such as the 2008 British Book Award for Children's Book of the Year, the Meyer's books had won. Although she would like to teach these books, acknowledged the high level of student engagement with them, her fear of parental criticism, whether founded or not, was preventing her from doing so. Her concern could be based on the survival stage of her career (Huberman, 1989; Nias, 1989a, 1989b).

Graphic novels were appreciated by all three teachers as texts for SSR and as text for the English classroom for some of the student population. During static image work Carol had used graphic novels as examples of how a novel could be converted into a visual medium. She had not used them as texts for class study because of unavailability in her department. She had seen graphic novels used with a Year 10 class in her preservice year and noted that the students were "really excited" by them. She had asked for a set for the English department but had been told by her HOD that "they are very expensive and they are things the kids would want to steal." All three teachers cited expense as a main reason for not having access to these texts. Underlying this for Phil was the perceptions of other teachers about the worthiness of these texts. He said that he would have to persuade his department to buy them and counter the argument "why would we spend money on a graphic novel when we

could get a class set of something seen to be more worthy?" His perception was that "I don't think graphic novels count as legit text" in NCEA, (while Nick correctly mentioned that "you do have the opportunity to teach and study and write on graphic novels" in NCEA). Phil also said that the graphic novel was not mentioned in department meetings and that he thought of graphic novels as something you might use with "the lower streams."

Nick saw value in the graphic novel as an alternative read for students who "learn more visually" and those "who struggle with getting through a whole novel." He also saw value in some graphic novels when they were versions of written text being studied in class, but he said: "I don't think it should replace the novel." He did recognise them as text worthy of study in their own right but would not use them this way because, "I don't really have that visual literacy" and he would need "a department thing about what aspects of a graphic novel you would focus on and then just some general PD [professional development] about the terminology you would use."

Access to the texts because of expense constrained all three teachers. Lack of legitimation from colleagues and of overt mention in the national assessment regime discouraged one (an incorrect interpretation), and a need for more professional knowledge about the text form hindered another. None were using the graphic novel in their classroom programmes.

The only teacher who had used manga was Phil, but he had done this in his Media Studies class rather than in subject English. He thought that there was "a lot of literacy involved" in them but "no, not in English I don't think." He thought that he might use them in the future "with a lower stream" but that he got "more satisfaction out of giving … a classic literary text." Nick thought that manga might be appropriate

for students who "have English as a second language." Carol said she knew very little about them, although she had seen art students and Asian students reading them. These teachers saw little value in introducing manga into the English classroom.

Although popular fiction, graphic novels and manga played a significant part in students' out-of-school reading, student engagement with these text forms was not being captured, and the critical and visual literacy opportunities these texts presented were not being exploited.

6.5.4.2   *Internet text*

Given the amount of time students indicated that they investigated a variety of Internet text out-of-school, not just for leisure but also for school based research activities, there was very little Internet text in the teachers' programmes. There was a complexity surrounding the reading and studying of Internet text with students in subject English that encompassed curriculum requirements, national assessment demands, school level decisions affecting access, teacher knowledge, and the impact of teacher identity, emotions and conceptualisations of their subject. These factors meant that currently these three early career teachers were taking a cautious approach with Internet text and the pedagogical changes that ICTs could afford.

Each school operated an intranet that teachers could use for uploading materials, had at least one computer laboratory that could be booked for class use and in school 10 some classrooms were equipped with a computer and data show. The teachers in school 4 and school 7 indicated that there were plans in the next year to have a dedicated subject English computer room.

Each teacher had a computer, so access to the school intranet was not an issue, but they were seldom using it for communicating with students. Carol did not use the school intranet for posting information to her classes, Nick had sent his students

revision notes but had used email for this and "I didn't do a lot of it." However, he had used the intranet to pose questions to his Year 9 class as part of an intranet trial, but "the comments were only available to me," were not interactive, and he realised that students "were writing into a void." Phil had had very positive experiences in his preservice year while on practicum using a wiki with one of his classes. He currently used the school intranet to advertise screenings for the film club he ran and was keen to follow this up in the future with wiki film discussions. He also posted class handouts on the intranet and had embedded film clips that were used for class discussion. Each teacher's confidence with using the intranet for communicating with students seemed to parallel their confidence with the technology, but feeling technologically confident did not necessarily mean that Internet text was being accessed in classrooms.

The New Zealand curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007) gives clear direction on the importance of the use of ICTs and Internet text in school (explained in Chapter 4 section 4.6.4). This is reinforced by the two key competencies of *thinking* and *using language, symbols and text* and, for subject English, the level five processes and strategies (from which most Year 10 English planning is derived). In addition, statements on *E learning* suggest "schools should explore not only how ICT can supplement traditional ways of teaching but also how it can open up new and different ways of learning," including learning communities "beyond the classroom" and "offering students virtual experiences and tools" (p. 36). National assessments at level one in English also support the study of Internet text, with hyperfiction as an option for the study of extended text in the first Standard versions, and the research Standard encouraging research over a range of resources. Although these Standards

are commonly assessed in Year 11, some considerable background learning for Year 11 can be done in Year 10.

Despite these curriculum requirements and national assessment opportunities, none of the teachers mentioned the curriculum vision, competencies, pedagogy statements or English processes and strategies. The new curriculum, although available from 2008, did not appear as part of the teachers' discourse. The replaced curriculum (Ministry of Education, 1994) had achievement objectives for all levels, in all of its strands, relating to processing information. For level five of this curriculum (that mostly used for Year 10) the objective for reading and writing was "using appropriate technologies, retrieve, select, and interpret information from a variety of sources, and present accurate and coherent information for a range of purposes, analysing the processes used" (p. 36). None of the teachers mentioned this in conversations around Internet text. The Achievement Standards, however, were mentioned. None of the teachers chose hyperfiction for class study and seemed confused as to what it was, but they did discuss the research Standards.

At Carol's school the level one research Standard was done in Year 10 by "advanced" students, so "the 10B and C bands never get a chance to do it [Internet research] so we only do it with the advanced Year 10." However, when asked about what she taught about digital literacy, she responded, "I didn't think about it until right now." Her approach to Internet research was "talking about the sites they could use," but this did not include any website or information evaluation, although she did think, "We should definitely do it, but definitely don't do it." In terms of developing students' information literacy skills and Internet research skills she commented, "in terms of the curriculum I find that those [the level one and two research Standards]

are the only two areas that it fits in." For Carol, the assessment regime had become the curriculum.

Phil did not teach Internet research skills with his Year 10 students, saying, "It's not something I have thought about really," and he felt that the research Standards did not need Internet research. With his Year 12 class his approach was to "encourage them to write specific questions … that is all the input I had." Phil's interpretation of the curriculum was via an assessment lens (like Carol's) and he thought, "Most of the curriculum is response to text. There isn't any kind of research." Carol and Phil's curriculum interpretations, as well as the constraints described below, were reasons for seldom accessing Internet text with their students. Nick described his approach to research but found the Internet "very counter productive to teaching kids how to research." He elaborated that:

> The temptation for copying and pasting stuff is just so immense … it's really frustrating when you set up a research project and you teach them how to research, you teach them how to express their findings in their own words and referencing stuff and then you get ... copied and pasted stuff, the same information repeated in the same way through all of their different reports, it's just a bit depressing.

But plagiarism was only one reason for Nick's reluctance to access Internet text for research with his students.

The main reason the teachers gave for the minimal use of Internet text was access. All three teachers had to take their classes to a computer lab if they wanted Internet access for students. This moving from an English classroom to a computer room meant that class time was lost, but more important were issues surrounding the booking of these rooms, having sustained and continuous Internet access over a number of class periods and the long term planning involved to get access. Nick summed the mutual concerns when he said that:

> We've got 2,400 students, we really only have one suite of 30 computers so it seems to me that mainly the more senior teachers are aware of that and are very quick at booking the suite, and often it's for NCEA assessments, the senior NCEA classes have priority, so realistically, it's almost impossible, it seems to me, for a junior English class to be able to get into the ICT in an ongoing way, … I know it's going to be nightmarish trying to scramble and get them in there and plan so far ahead. I can't do it spontaneously unless you happen to just get lucky. Being someone who doesn't really plan very far ahead, obviously I find it really difficult.

The three teachers also saw timetabling hampering access, particularly if there was a subject such as computing, which used the computer room as its classroom, in the same timetable line as an English class. Two of the teachers thought there were plans for a dedicated English computer suite in their schools, but even then Carol foresaw access difficulties, which she described using a Year 12 example: "We timetable so that all Year 12 classes are doing the same Standard at the same time … so if there was one classroom that was solely for English teacher use, that would still be about eight English teachers fighting for it at the same time." She also said that if classes were doing work for different Standards, this would then impact on what could go into school examinations in the middle of the year, because different classes would have completed different work. So, not only the school level timetabling of classes but also English department level timetabling of units of work, contributed to access difficulties. Other access difficulties mentioned by all three were those concerned with intermittent Internet access, technological breakdowns and students forgetting their access passwords.

Phil had experienced easy access in his preservice year while on practicum and as a result had a very positive view of using Internet text with students, however both Carol and Nick had not had easy experiences and it was these that they said prevented them from introducing digital text in class. Carol's response was that she

got "very nervous about using them" and Nick's was "I don't rely very much myself on that stuff."

Nonetheless, when asked about whether having laptops in their classrooms would be a solution, because access seemed to be their major issue, a lack of confidence in the technology and issues related to managing students' attention emerged. Carol thought that having laptops "would be a disaster. People running out of power and things going down and networks going down and printers not having the right hook ups. I just would find that so much more difficult." Both she and Nick articulated an anxiety about students not giving them teacher attention if they worked with laptops. Nick thought that "I am the teacher and they give me their undivided attention, I just think it would be a distraction to those who aren't really wanting to be there in the first place." Both had limited experience in the computer rooms and none of laptops in the classroom, and were therefore less confident with the technology and the management of students it might require. Phil's positive practicum experiences and espoused enjoyment and familiarity with technology, meant he did not express these same issues.

6.5.5 *The Impact of Teacher Identity and Agency on Text Choices for the Classroom*
Teacher identity and sense of agency impacted the three teachers' choices of text for their classrooms. Their prior experiences, perceptions of subject English, and their ability to make choices (whether in terms of access to or knowledge about texts), were often expressed in emotional terms (particularly evidenced in verb choices) and sometimes accompanied by statements of resistance. As with other early career teachers, they experienced some feelings of a lack of agency (Nias, 1989a) and self-efficacy (Wolters & Daugherty, 2007).

Carol's feelings of a lack of agency, as a second year teacher, were evidenced in some of her statements around trying to introduce students' out-of-school reading into the classroom. She had been "begging" for some graphic novels to be added to the English department book stock, she felt frustrations with a colleague's approach to SSR and had been "fighting about it," and she wanted to teach some popular fiction but said, "I don't think I'd be able to get the parents on side." When trying to use computers with students she got "very nervous about using them" and was "just worried about the technology breaking down." She said, "I grew up with computers" and that "I definitely use computers to create resources," but her confidence with using digital text with students, "as part of my teaching," was low. When it came to helping students with Web searching she thought "there's nothing new I can show them," but that they needed help to verify sources, yet "I don't even know how I would do it." She had attempted to use PowerPoint in class but "I don't understand how to use it to its advantage" and had found she was putting notes on it as she had done with older technology, and "so why would I bother." She thought that using laptops in class would be a "disaster" although she did not see herself as "a media phobic" and said, "I don't want to touch it with a ten foot barge pole." She had tried using the computers for a writing activity with students but "had a terrible problem," and had decided, "I'm never doing it again." Her frustration was apparent when she said, "I don't think, actually, anything is getting my full attention any more because I'm being asked to multitask." Her use of vocabulary like *begging*, *fighting*; phrases such as *I don't understand*, *I don't even know how*, *I don't think I'd be able to*; her descriptions of herself as *nervous*, *worried*; and of some activities as being *a struggle* and *really difficult*; show her frustration and anxiety. Such emotions are well

documented in research literature on beginning professionals and are connected to the complexity of learning to teach (Hargreaves, 2005; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003).

Carol saw herself as capable with technology when using it on her own, but had had limited success when trying to use it with students. At this early stage of her career, often referred to as the years of "survival" and "discovery" (Huberman, 1989), the management of the technology coupled with the anxiety of managing students with the technology, reflected the management and discipline concerns of many beginning teachers (Nias, 1989a; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003).

Although a first year teacher, Phil seemed less anxious than Carol in his responses about his text choices and never said that he was worried, nervous or did not understand how he would do things. He seemed confident about his ability to work with a variety of texts that students were reading out-of-school. At 33 years of age, he was older than Carol's 26 years and therefore at a different stage in his life. As Hargreaves (2005) points out, gender and life stage, as well as career stage, can influence teachers' responses to their situations, and of life stage he says that each stage carries "a distinct and distinctive orientation to the world and the place of their self within it" (p. 967). Nonetheless, Phil experienced frustrations and made resistance statements that were mainly with the infrastructure of the school (for instance access to ICT and therefore his ability to choose to introduce Internet text into his programme) and with his colleagues. He had started a Year 10 class blog before the school year started but "just lost interest in it … I just realised it's incredibly difficult to get Internet access, so I just lost my motivation." He had recently attended a professional development (PD) session on blogs and wikis that he saw as pointless because "by the time it's materially feasible to actually incorporate it ... they'll all be out-dated. So there's no point giving PD on ICT." He said that if he

had a data show and easy, regular computer access ("so as it becomes a habit"), "I would change my teaching drastically." He enjoyed using the functions Web 2.0 offered and was keen to use the associated texts with students (such as wikis and blogs), but he noted that with access difficulties, "You wouldn't do it, no one's going to fire you because you're not." He thought it "insane" not to be making good use of ICTs and said that his colleagues were "a bit cynical" about using them. He was confident in his own ability with using digital text, though he did not see teaching students Internet research skills an English teacher's domain. When asked about the appropriateness of using digital text for literacy in the classroom, his response was that he got "more satisfaction out of giving them something … like a classic literary text." His personal conceptualisation of his role as an English teacher when it came to choosing texts for study, centred around the book. He recommended "all my favourite books" to his Year 10 class because "I am a reader myself." Yet he did have positive views on using comics and graphic novels as class texts. Like Carol, his statements of agency became apparent when discussing these texts. He thought he would need to "persuade" his department to purchase graphic novels because of expense and counter arguments that "we could get a class set of something seen to be more worthy," and he thought they were regarded as "something you give to the lower streams," or did not "count as legit text," views he himself had articulated earlier. He also thought that he would have difficulties over purchases of comics for class study because "some teachers around here are a bit, I don't know, bigoted towards comics … comics are often still referred to in a derogatory way."

Similarly, Nick "would love for the school to buy a class set" of graphic novels. He had read "quite a few" and one of his favourite novels was a graphic novel. However, he thought that he lacked the visual expertise and the "real interest"

to teach a graphic novel. A large part of Nick's conceptualisation of his subject and text choices was based on his own school experiences. He said:

> I think because I and all teachers came through a different system, I think our underlying idea of school and English classes in particular, is that you study, at some point, you do a novel, you do some poetry and you do short stories, you do a film and you do some Shakespeare and you do some other stuff like research.

Nick thought, "We are quite idealistic in a lot of ways and go 'oh, there's nothing more pleasurable than falling into a book'." Although he had used ICTs occasionally, as with the other teachers, access was a difficulty for him. However, he also said that, "I don't really rely too much on that stuff. It's just more work." He acknowledged that he was not "tech savvy," but at the same time said he was not resistant. He thought that "we have a lot of adapting to do," and that he did "realise the reality that we live in." Nick's opinion was that the Internet had been "counter productive to teaching kids how to research … we are doing them a disservice by encouraging them to research on the Internet" because "when I was at school … we had to go to the library and look it up." When asked about whether critical literacy with digital text was important, he thought his students were not old enough to be critical of text and said that it was "something that I never really had to do in high school." Access was not the only reason Nick gave for not introducing digital text into his classroom. He thought that the study of digital text was:

> Gravitating so far away from what I, what I conceive of as the English curriculum and so far away from what I wanted to be doing when I decided to be an English teacher and I'm not sure, like on the one hand I want to move with the times and I don't want to get old and fusty and dinosaur like and I recognise that they're living in a very different world to the world I grew up in and so I do have to adjust some of my teaching to that. On the other hand, there's still that bedrock idea of what English is.

Nick's background and conceptualisation of his subject contributed to his attitude to the texts he chose for classroom study, but his discourse, like Carol's, also revealed

frustration and anxiety with digital text. He used words and phrases such as *I know it's going to be nightmarish, trying to scramble to get in there* [the computer room], *I find it really difficult, I had a really terrible experience, I'm very wary, I struggle* and *I worry*. His statement that "I don't want to look a fool. It happens enough without getting ICT involved," seemed to sum up his frustration.

The professional and personal identities of these three teachers impacted their attitudes towards different types of text. Their own schooling, conceptualisations of their subject, their own aptitudes, the frustrations and anxieties they expressed about their own agency, the structures within which they worked and their own abilities, meant that they were, on the whole, choosing time-honoured texts for the classroom. The twenty-first century text forms that some students read out-of-school and the critical literacy skills associated with "new literacies," were largely ignored.

6.6 *Conclusion*

These three teachers saw the main value of knowing what their students read out-of-school as lying in helping them choose topics, themes and novels for classroom study, rather than in bringing a variety of text into classroom programmes or enabling SSR programmes to be more productive. None of their departments had a formalised process for finding out what students' leisure reading encompassed, but they thought observing students in their SSR helped. However, in school 4 students were not in their English groupings and all three teachers found shortcomings in the SSR approaches.

Student reading logs were another way teachers could note students' reading choices, but these choices either had teacher input or were conforming to the demands of a Standard's assessment restrictions. One teacher surveyed his students and

checked the school library bookchat, but both of these avenues were restricted to book reading.

Dedicated reading time was allocated by SSR programmes in each school, but these had no monitoring of the students' reading and there was no obligatory guidance on how these sessions should run. SSR was more problematic in school 4, with its supervision by teachers from all curriculum areas and the time often devoted to non-reading activities. Both school 7 and school 10 had attempted formalising SSR with book conversations and book choosing assistance, but neither seemed sustained. There was no ongoing monitoring of students' SSR reading and the teachers did not get a true picture of their students' out-of-school reading choices in this time.

The teachers' text choices for study centred around "good" books, classics, poetry and New Zealand texts, as sanctioned in curriculum documents. NCEA also impacted their text choices. One teacher tried to choose books that were part of a series, as she knew these were popular. Indeed, some research supports this (Manuel, 2012; Worthy et al., 1999), and the focus group students mentioned liking books in a series. On the whole, it was time-honoured texts that were chosen and that these had been part of their own schooling had an influence. While two had tried multi-text approaches to novel studies, this had been only once and had limited success in their view.

The teachers spoke of personal, institutional and national constraints on their text choices. One saw "popular fiction" as worthy of study, because her students liked these, but fear of parental concerns stopped her from choosing these for class work. All three had positive views about graphic novels (although, reservedly), but expense, colleagues' opinions, knowledge of their linguistic and structural features, an

incorrect assumption that they were "not legit" for study, and a view that they were good for struggling readers, meant that this had not occurred.

Teachers' choices did not encompass texts demanding "new literacies" and they took a cautious approach to digital text. They seldom used the Internet for communication with students and each teacher's confidence with ICTs paralleled his or her technological confidence. While curriculum and assessment were mentioned as constraints to page text choices, none mentioned the support both of these gave to exploring ICTs and digital text in classrooms. Their curriculum and assessment interpretations did not require them to think about students' online critical information literacy. While acknowledging students' "cut and paste" approaches, these put one teacher off teaching research strategies. Internet access, technology reliability and students' forgetting their passwords, were cited as reasons constraining the use of digital text. However, their anxieties about student inattentiveness if they had laptops, a view that laptops could be a "distraction, " and issues around classroom management, showed that access was masking other issues – issues that research has shown as preoccupations of early career teachers (Huberman, 1989; Nias, 1989a).

These three early career teachers were yet to realise the implications of the 2007 curriculum for their classroom practice, in terms of its vision statement, key competencies and statements around effective pedagogy and E-learning. They were intent on choosing high interest texts for the classroom that would engage students, but were not choosing the variety of texts with which students engaged out-of-school, and had no structured process for finding out what this variety was. A complex interplay of factors, which included the teachers' own identities and prior experiences, conceptualisations of their subject and the preoccupations they had as early career teachers, influenced their text choices and had led to resistance in some instances. In

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addition, these teachers experienced anxiety and frustration with school-based factors, including access to paper and digital text, collegial attitudes and budget restraints, which were constraining their text choices.

This chapter has contributed findings to my research questions by examining teachers' knowledge of students' out-of-school reading preferences and how they learn about these. I have also examined the recognition opportunities students have for their out-of school reading, the teachers' perspectives on texts suitable for English learning contexts, the place of digital text, the development of students' information literacy, and the constraints surrounding these early career teachers' text choices. In the next chapter I bring together findings from all teacher and student information-gathering instruments to form the complex answer to this research's main research question and its sub-questions.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION: CONTRIBUTION, KEY INTEGRATED FINDINGS,

LIMITATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

> *Only connect! That was the whole of her sermon. Only connect the prose and the passion … Live in fragments no longer.*
>
> (Forster, E. M. (1910). *Howards End.* London: Edward Arnold. Chapter 22).

In this concluding chapter I outline the study's contribution to knowledge and the research gaps it traverses. I then synthesise the key findings from the different groups of participants to give an integrated picture that addresses the study's research questions. Next, I address the study's limitations and follow this with recommendations for English programmes, teacher professional learning and schools. I end with suggestions for future research.

7.1. *Contribution to Knowledge*

This thesis argues that, despite the decline in adolescent book reading, our Year 10 adolescents *are* reading. However, there is little successful recognition of, support for, or visibility of, their reading in English classrooms. By exploring Year 10 students' out-of-school reading of page, multi-modal, non-linear, and digital texts, this thesis traverses a research gap. Investigating reading motivation utilising a broad definition of "text" encompassing new literacies, is under-researched. Students' reading motivations and the gender and socio-economic differences in their out-of-school reading practices, reveal important findings for the role teachers might have in increasing Year 10 reading motivation and subsequent literacy successes. The impact on teachers' text selections of their conceptualisation of subject English, their personal histories, and their philosophical and pedagogical commitment to a variety

of text for secondary students' literacy development, is also a research gap. This study is valuable, perhaps unique, in its mix of both student and English teacher perspectives on Year 10 out-of-school reading and its visibility in English programmes, encompassing a broad definition of reading. The major contributions of this study rest on its pedagogical implications for subject English classrooms in the secondary school and the theoretical affordances of legitimising students' existing out of school literate practices for in-school reading motivation, subsequent literacy outcomes, and the increased effect this could have on out-of-school reading engagement.

When looking for the connections being made within the school gates to students' out-of-school literate practices, what emerged was a complex interplay between students' out-of-school literacy practices and in-school constraints. These in-school constraints included teacher perceptions of both what constitutes text for developing literacy ability and national assessments; the current in-school leisure reading programmes; school processes and infrastructure that support access to digital and print resources; time constraints and teacher professional learning needs; the educational experiences and reading histories of teachers; and teachers' personal constructions of subject English and their career stage.

7.2 *Key Integrated Findings*

The MRQ had 50 question items divided into eight constructs that either related to IM or EM (see Figure 1 and Appendix A). Half of the items in the Social construct did not resonate with my Year 10 students. These items related to reading activities with people at home (visiting the library, reading to siblings or younger children, working on the computer together, reading found things out to the adults). It has been

conjectured that adolescence in the western world is often characterised by a move away from spending time with family (Larson et al., 1996) and this may be why these Year 10's lacked social motivation overall – however, other studies that have included non-western adolescents have found some Social items receiving low scores with secondary students (e.g., Lau, 2009) and, relative to the other motivation constructs, nine-year-olds did not seem to be motivated for social reasons (Guthrie et al., 2007). This might indicate flaws in the items within the construct, because, as discussed in Chapter Three section 3.6.4.1, some Social items did motivate female readers. Also, my students were not motivated by Marks. Still to enter high-stakes assessments, they were more motivated by Recognition construct items. There is research suggesting that performance rewards, such as marks, can sometimes undermine IM (Oldfather & Wigfield, 1996) and adolescents' interest (Hidi, 2000). This may be what the students' responses signal.

In general, the Year 10 students were intrinsically motivated to read, and it has been shown that IM predicts pleasure reading frequency (Wang & Guthrie, 2004) and reading comprehension (e.g., Schaffner & Schiefele, 2013). My students' responses showed Curiosity (IM) and Recognition (EM) were strong motivational constructs. Over 75% of the students responded positively to four items concerning positive feedback about their reading. These items related to teachers saying they read well, getting reading compliments and being happy when someone (including peers) recognised they were good at reading and finding information. While liking positive reading feedback, they did not see good marks as the same as compliments. One conclusion is that they liked compliments not on their *writing* about their reading, or via other reading assessments, but rather on their *actual* reading. Two powerful messages in these data are that building unassessed reading occasions into class

programmes, where students can get compliments and encouragement for reading, and allowing students to choose texts that interest them and arouse their curiosity, could have positive affects on reading engagement. When the motivation data were split along gender lines, only slight differences emerged. Boys liked "matey" competition more than being the "best" readers and girls liked the sharing aspects of reading, with these particularly obvious for the frequent readers. The frequent readers were also inclined to follow up interesting teacher suggestions. Student feedback on the SSR opportunities in the schools showed that this recognition, discussion with peers and reading suggestions were lacking in the programmes. There were no marked decile differences in the students' reading choices and motivation responses. In the focus group discussions and self-efficacy data, some interesting findings emerged around those students whose home language was not English. They perceived mother-tongue reading as undervalued and their poor views of themselves as readers seemed based on the texts legitimised by their teachers. This, too, has implications for SSR programmes.

Nearly 60% of the students read books at least once a week for leisure, a higher figure than those found for New Zealand 15 year-olds in international survey data (May et al., 2013). However, patterns differed by school. Schools 10 and 7 had few respondents *never* or *almost never* reading books, while nearly a quarter (23%) of school 4's students rarely read books. This was a big difference to the higher decile schools. Fewer boys than girls read books very frequently, as suggested by other studies (e.g., Brozo et al., 2014; Telford, 2013). However, there are warnings not to make assumptions about male reading based solely on books (e.g., Alvermann, 2001). The biggest frequent reader gender differences were at school 10, which had the smallest number of male but the greatest number of female frequent readers. School 7

had the least number of very frequent female readers. Noteworthy is that school 7 first introduced a girls' cohort at Year 10 in 2001. Previously it had been a boys' school, and was perhaps still developing ways to engage girls in reading. School 4, with students from the lowest socio-economic community, did not organize its SSR programme in the library nor have English teachers in charge, which impacted the efficacy of its programme. This could impact students' reading frequency in this school. Reading frequency is linked with reading achievement (e.g., Echols et al., 1996) and in the lowest decile school of the study, this has implications when viewed alongside recent PISA reading achievement data. New Zealand findings showed that comparatively, "Achievement in New Zealand is more closely linked to socio-economic status than in other countries" (May et al., 2013, p. 39).

Taking the top five most popular interest-reading novel types students preferred (action, adventure, spying and, particularly for girls, romance and love interest), differences in gender preferences showed the challenging, but not impossible, task teachers have selecting texts for in-class study that will appeal to all students, if only offering one text at a time for study. While teachers thought they chose class texts aligning with their students' out-of-school reading and interests, they had no robust way to investigate what these were. Teachers thought students read mostly on the Internet (when in fact, apart from social networking, the students' main Internet use was dictated by researching for schoolwork). Despite this belief, teachers were not choosing Internet text for class work. The teachers' main aim when choosing texts for classwork was to engage students, but only just over 50% of them aimed to link to students' interests.

In the week preceding the survey 95.8% of the students had used the Internet, (compared to 81% reading books), mostly at home. Students in the decile ten school

were the most frequent home Internet users and this might indicate a socio-economic divide – a divide that schools were not addressing by incorporating ICTs into classroom pedagogy. School computer use was irregular in all schools, and was mainly for researching and writing school assignments. Out-of-school there was variety in what students said they did online but, when not researching information, the Internet activity was substantially social interaction and seeking connection, particularly for the females, supporting other New Zealand findings (Kirkham, 2011). This was essentially via sites like Facebook, with connected email for "friending."

The students were not adopting new social practices for reading and creating text through blogs, fanzines, e-zines or making and uploading videos for sharing, podcasting, posting images or creating archiving pin boards. They were generally not adventurous in their use of the Internet and the affordances of Web.2.0. The most recent New Zealand data also demonstrate that, compared to teenagers in the OECD, New Zealand 15-year-olds lack confidence with ICTs (Kirkham, 2011).

The focus group students' responses indicated limited critical information literacy skills, similar to previous New Zealand and international findings (e.g., Hague & Payton, 2010; Hipkins, 2005a). However, teachers were not heavily involved in developing these or other twenty-first century literacy skills. Worryingly, the focus group students had unerring faith in their online safety. Only eight of the 190 students said it was a teacher who had taught them the most about using the Internet. Very few students saw their English teachers using digital technology in classrooms, though they thought their teachers used computers for planning lessons. In fact, this was the most popular teacher use of technology. The teachers thought students' information literacy skills and Internet safety knowledge were poor, but only one sixth saw developing these as an extremely important aim when choosing

texts for learning. Play scripts and poetry were seen as extremely important texts for enhancing Year 10 students' literacy, yet no student indicated reading these out-of-school. While teachers theoretically embraced a broad definition of text for literacy development, in practice they were choosing time-honoured text for classroom study. They did see informational webpages as useful for literacy development, but very few were accessing these with students in classrooms. Less traditional forms of text were sometimes used as examples to support writing lessons, but they were very seldom chosen for study in their own right and were, therefore, accorded limited time and importance. The texts teachers thought students read out-of-school were under-represented in the texts teachers had chosen for learning contexts in the 12 months preceding the teacher survey, thus not granting them prestige, despite indicating that student engagement was their main aim when choosing text.

The teachers had a number of reasons for not incorporating new texts forms into learning contexts. Lack of access to the Internet was a major constraint for them, demonstrating the importance of school infrastructure as an element for successful teacher use of technology with students (Ertmer, 1999). However, there were other constraints. A lack of confidence in using the technology, limited affinity for reading screen text, limited time, and insubstantial knowledge of the linguistic and paralinguistic features of many texts found on the Internet, were also constraints. The three early career teachers articulated nervousness in managing student behavior if students used laptops in lessons, behaviour management being a typical early career worry (Huberman, 1989), and they were not fully convinced about the pedagogical affordances of ICTs in classrooms. While mostly confident in using ICTs in their personal lives, this confidence did not merge into their professional activities.

Additionally, their perceptions of what was important in subject English and the impact of their own schooling influenced their choices of traditional text.

While espousing the motivational affordances of "popular fiction" and graphic novels, teachers saw their expense, parental and colleagues' opinions, and their personal lack of knowledge of some texts' linguistic and paralinguistic features, as barriers for classroom incorporation. The teacher interviews also located an incorrect assumption that such texts were "not legit" for study, and were mainly appropriate for struggling readers.

In this study, teachers' choices did not encompass, on the whole, texts demanding "new literacies" and they took a cautious approach to digital text. They seldom used the Internet for communication with students and teachers' confidence with digital text paralleled a lack of technological confidence, as found elsewhere (e.g., Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010). While curriculum and assessment were mentioned as constraints to page text choices, no teacher mentioned the support both of these gave to exploring ICTs and digital text, and some chose to interpret the curriculum and national assessments as not requiring them to focus on students' online critical information literacy. In fact, curriculum statements of vision, key competencies, effective pedagogy and E-learning, and the Achievement Standards in English, encourage a rich and broad range of text choices in learning contexts.

7.3 *Limitations*

One limitation to this research is the self-report nature of surveys, diaries, focus groups and interviews. However, in describing these data gathering tools, I have noted the cross-checking questions in the surveys and the focus group and teacher interview probe-questions, which were designed to check responses for accuracy. In addition,

the focus group students' surveys and diaries were used in the group conversations, and the teacher surveys were used in the compilation of the teacher interview protocol, to check consistency of data gathered by different instruments. I have described my relationship with the teachers, and the interviewed teachers in particular. However, their open sharing of their professional and personal selves might indicate that this relationship did not impede data collection.

A second limitation lies in the representativeness of the student sample. There were groups of students underrepresented. For instance, the "Alternative Learning" classes that HODs decided could not be involved, likely included students who struggled with academic school-defined literacies. As well, the proportions of students who identified as Pasifika and Māori, two group of students overrepresented at the lower levels of national and international literacy assessments, were less than the overall proportions of these students in the schools' Year 10 cohorts. However, I have made no attempt to deliver findings related to these underrepresented groups. I make no claims that my research findings can be generalized to all Year 10 students, however, there are patterns and trends, some supported by other researchers, which might be transferrable to other sites.

Another limitation lies in the MRQ tool used in the student survey. The changes made to it (incorporating digital reading and altering scales), meant that few comparisons could be made to results of other studies. Other researchers investigating adolescent reading motivations have also changed the tool considerably. The MRQ was not initially devised for use with adolescents, nor for a wide definition of reading, yet, has been used by others in this manner. However, I do recognize that a tool initially devised for investigating motivation for traditional reading might not uncover students' motivations for online reading.

The last limitation concerns changes that may have occurred to students'
Internet activity since data collection. Recent New Zealand data on students' ICT
reading, although minimal, suggest this may not be the case, but in a rapidly changing
digital environment, it is difficult to be certain.

7.4 *Recommendations*

While there was not a huge mismatch between the types of texts students were
reading out-of-school and those they were encountering in English programmes,
neither reading context was preparing students for twenty-first century texts, nor for
the critical literacy students need to be successful twenty-first century text
participants. International assessments showed New Zealand students comparatively
lacking in ICT confidence and my data show current learning contexts were not
addressing this. Moreover, my research indicates that students were not being exposed
to a wide repertoire of reading possibilities and their literate abilities with multi-
modal and digital texts were not being forged. Opportunities for students to bring
their own text choices into programmes were limited and, when students' reading
motivations and activities in these opportunities were explored, largely unsuccessful.

7.4.1 *Recommendations for English Programmes*

Based on the research findings, I am making the following recommendations for
increasing in-school reading motivation, legitimising students' existing out of school
literate practices, boosting the academic gains reading amount connects with, and
supporting the increased effect this could have on out-of-school reading engagement.
That:

- The affordances of dedicated SSR programmes are increased. This includes
  implementing a system that monitors students' choices and reading mileage,

and increasing teacher affirmations of individual's progress. Continuity from one SSR session to another is needed, not just with monitoring reading, but with straightforward systems to issue any new text choices. Incorporate phases into sessions that include a whole-class book discussion phase, encompassing both teacher and students reading recommendations; a phase where students can be assisted with choices based on their interests and a phase that increases students' accountability for the time and teacher investment. This last phase includes the monitoring and affirming of individual reading efforts, reading goal-setting and recommending future reads, a phase which is conducted one-on-one over a series of sessions.

- Structured procedures are implemented at English department level for teachers to investigate students' out-of-school reading choices and interests, so that that these can be used in learning contexts to increase reading motivation.

- Reading logs are revitalized to reward students with the reading recognition they clearly want. Logs can become a tool to encourage reading engagement rather than only meet assessment demands. They are useful for individual reading conferences and an opportunity to recognize and affirm students' reading and out-of-school text choices. If logs are part of the level one NCEA independent reading Standard, then its intent is for the reading to be personal and for pleasure (also a curriculum indicator at this level) and it recommends a broader range of text forms than those which students seem to be currently encouraged to include. A revitalized approach to logs could increase student engagement with them and with their reading.

- The variety of texts within a literature study is expanded and provides students with choice. This can increase reading motivation. Selections can be matched

to students' thematic interests or to increase curiosity. Pedagogical approaches that include student small group conversations about individual texts would be consistent with findings concerning motivation to read.

- Students' critical information literacy skills, particularly with digital text, are developed. This should include their knowledge about, and vigilance of, the permanency their digital footprint. This might mean expanding teachers' understandings of critical information literacy.

7.4.2 *Recommendations for Teacher Professional Learning*

Teachers cannot teach about texts with which they have limited knowledge and experience. Teacher confidence with new text forms and new literacies, including those that demand the use of ICTs, need nurturing and teachers require clear indications of how these texts and literacies can be incorporated into pedagogy. For this reason, I recommend that professional learning is long term and mainly conducted within department groups of English teachers for daily collegial support. My research findings suggest there is a gap in subject English teachers' knowledge about the range, characteristics and pedagogical applications of digital texts that could be used to enhance students' literacy gains and critical information literacy skills. I recommend that increasing professional learning in the following areas might enhance teacher confidence and knowledge:

- Learning opportunities that span the philosophic and practice divide in teacher conceptualisations of text useful for literacy development. This means time to deconstruct collaboratively multi-modal and digital texts, increasing knowledge of their linguistic and paralinguistic features, and time to observe others incorporating these texts into pedagogy. The early career teachers spoke positively of such observational experiences when they were on preservice

practicums. Confidence with technology can only increase with structured and supported learning with other English teachers. These opportunities could extend what counts as text for literacy development.

- Learning opportunities around the impact of mother-tongue reading on English language development. Legitimising mother-tongue reading will help students, whose home language is not English, recognise their reading in mother tongue as an important reading activity and increase their reading self-efficacy. How to utilise home languages for English language literacy is a significant professional learning need.

- Learning more about adolescent reading motivation will help teachers target reading to maximize student engagement.

- Early career teachers' concerns about classroom behaviour management when students are using laptops, needs addressing. Some observational opportunities with experienced teachers may help, as would having these teachers co-teaching with them as confidence develops.

- Work in preservice teacher education to identify English teachers successfully incorporating multi-modal and digital texts in classrooms and ensuring preservice students have an opportunity to observe and work alongside these teachers.

- Learning opportunities on what to assess and how to assess students' research processes, how to interpret these results, and strategies for acting on these. This includes making pedagogical decisions for addressing the gaps, and enacting these decisions in the classroom. However, students' information processing skills and strategies are not the sole responsibility of the English

teacher. The use of a school-wide model for information processing would be beneficial as would common methods for teaching various skills.

7.4.3 *Recommendations for Schools*

No amount of professional learning will change what happens in classrooms if teachers cannot access resources. My research findings indicate that, despite considerable resourcing, reliable and easy Internet access with technological assistance when required, is still a barrier to teachers using ICTs in classrooms. Also, English department budgets need to be at a level where new text forms can be purchased for learning. In addition, SSR programmes that operate beyond English department staff seem less effective than those operating in a text environment and managed by English teachers. The above recommendations for SSR within English programmes would require considerable teacher professional learning, accompanied by clear expectations and policies, if they were to be successfully implemented with all school staff.

7.5 *Future Research*

There are many aspects that this research has revealed that could be investigated to increase our knowledge of students' literate practices and inform pedagogical approaches for developing these.

Given the link between reading achievement and reading motivation, designing and evaluating an intervention study within SSR (or other extensive reading) programmes could give valuable information for informing the processes and strategies of these. Investigating whether increasing teacher recognition of students' out-of-school reading, providing "matey" competition and social interaction via book discussions, alongside sharing and recommending texts, leads to an increase in

adolescent student reading frequency and amount, and reading achievement, would be a valuable contribution to our knowledge of effective extensive reading programmes.

An intervention focused study exploring whether the incorporation of multi-modal and digital texts in English programmes affects students' reading levels, and evaluating whether current assessment practices allow students to demonstrate their literacy capabilities with non-traditional texts, could impact pedagogical practices to increase adolescents' academic reading literacies and contribute to a refinement of assessment processes to include multi-modal and digital reading.

A correlational study collecting students' reading achievement data that includes their multi-modal and digital reading capabilities and examining any links to their out-of-school practices, would give information that could inform text choices in English programmes.

Research replicating some of the aspects of this thesis with different populations could provide valuable findings to inform strategies for increasing the reading motivations of different groups and for selecting subject English pedagogical strategies particularly aimed at these groups. For instance, do similar patterns as those in this thesis emerge when the focus shifts to older adolescents, or to a population of Year 10 students who are infrequent readers, or to students who struggle with academic literacy?

There is an urgent need to study pedagogical practices in subject English that incorporate ICTs in ways that are moving the subject in new directions that incorporate new literacies and new forms of text, rather than repackaging traditional pedagogical approaches.

To enable new studies, there is a need for a reading motivation measurement tool that is appropriate for an adolescent population and incudes multi-modal and

digital reading, as well as the more traditional text forms. This would give more accurate information than the current MRQ that researchers alter for their own needs (and which might diminish the robustness of the tool). A new purpose-built tool would also facilitate comparisons over sites internationally and over time.

7.6 *Concluding Remarks*

There is a real need to reframe literacy in school. There must be recognition not just of the texts manifested in students' out-of-school practices and the literacy capabilities that students can develop as they read these texts, but also of the text forms being read in a twenty-first century world. New forms of texts require new literacies and new approaches to critical literacy. Therefore, English programmes have an important role to play in developing not only students' academic literacies, but in preparing them for fulfilling and productive work and leisure future lives.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Student Questionnaire

Your name_____

Your English teacher's name_____

Section 1. Please tick √ the boxes that best describe you.

1.　　　Male ☐　　　Female ☐

2.　Pakeha/New Zealand European　　☐

　　Māori　　☐

　　Polynesian　　☐

　　Indian　　☐

　　Chinese　　☐

　　Korean　　☐

　　European　　☐

Or

　　I am _____

3.　Is English the main language that you speak at home?
　　　　　Yes ☐　　　　　No ☐

4.　Is there a computer at home that you are allowed to use?
　　　　　Yes ☐　　　　　No ☐

5.　Do you have internet access at home?
　　　　　Yes ☐　　　　　No ☐

6.　If you have internet access at home, is it a dialup or high speed connection?
　　　　Dialup ☐　　　　High speed ☐

7.　Do you belong to a library that isn't the school library?
　　　　　Yes ☐　　　　　No ☐

8.　Do you go to a library to get material to read?
　　　　　Yes ☐　　　　　No ☐

9.　Do you go to the library to use the computers?
　　　　　Yes ☐　　　　　No ☐

10.　How often do you read books from a library?
　　Never ☐　Seldom ☐　Sometimes ☐　Often ☐　Always ☐

11.　Do you regularly get a newspaper at home?
　　　　　Yes ☐　　　　　No ☐

12.　Do you regularly get magazines at home?
　　　　　Yes ☐　　　　　No ☐

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Section 2
In this section think about things you read for your own interest.

Put a tick √ in the boxes for some of the questions and write answers to the others.

| **Here is an example:** |
| How often do you watch television? |
| Never ☐   Almost never ☐   About once a month ☐ |
| About once a week ☐   Almost every day ☐   Every day ☑ |
| If you watch television everyday you would tick the last box. |

1. Have you done any reading in books in the past week?

   Yes ☐   No ☐

   If yes, write in the title, author, or a specific topic you read about

   _____
   _____

2. How often do you read a book for your own interest?

   Never ☐   Almost never ☐   About once a month ☐

   About once a week ☐   Almost every day ☐   Every day ☐

   What sorts of books do you like reading?

   _____
   _____
   _____

3. Have you used the internet in the past week?

   Yes ☐   No ☐

   If yes, write in what you did

   _____
   _____
   _____

4. How often do you go on the internet for your own interest?

   Never ☐   Almost never ☐   About once a month ☐

   About once a week ☐   Almost every day ☐   Every day ☐

5. Have you read a comic book or a magazine in the last week?

   Yes ☐   No ☐

6. How often do you read comic books or magazines?

Never ☐   Almost never ☐   About once a month ☐

About once a week ☐   Almost every day ☐   Every day ☐

What are your favourite topics to read about in magazines?

_____

_____

_____

Do you ever read about these topics on the internet?

        Yes ☐   No ☐

If no, why not?

_____

_____

_____

7. How often do you read to find out about something you enjoy, (like putting a model together, your favourite music, a sport or some similar activity)?

Never ☐   Almost never ☐   About once a month ☐

About once a week ☐   Almost every day ☐   Every day ☐

When you want to read to find out about something you enjoy, do you read a book, a magazine, information on a website or something else? List the types of things that you read:

_____

_____

_____

8. If you look up information on the internet do you use a search engine (for instance Google)?

        Yes ☐   No ☐

9. Do you use the internet for things apart from finding out information on things?

        Yes ☐   No ☐

If yes, what other things do you do on the internet?

_____

_____

_____

_____

10. Have you heard of websites where you can put up your own information, like Facebook?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Have you visited any sites like these?

Yes ☐   No ☐

If yes, how often do you visit these sites?

Never ☐   Almost never ☐   About once a month ☐

About once a week ☐   Almost every day ☐   Every day ☐

Do you have a page on any sites like these?
Yes ☐   No ☐

If yes, what site? _____

If yes, how often do you go to your page?

Never ☐   Almost never ☐   About once a month ☐

About once a week ☐   Almost every day ☐   Every day ☐

11. Do you play video games (for instance Playstation) on the computer?

Never ☐   Almost never ☐   About once a month ☐

About once a week ☐   Almost every day ☐   Every day ☐

If you do, what videogames do you play?

_____
_____
_____

12. Do you play online or network games on the computer?

Never ☐   Almost never ☐   About once a month ☐

About once a week ☐   Almost every day ☐   Every day ☐

If you do, what online games do you play?

_____
_____
_____

If you do, how did you learn how to play these games?

_____
_____
_____

13. Do you use email?
    Yes ☐   No ☐

If yes, do you have your own email address?
    Yes ☐   No ☐

If yes, how often do you check your email?
Never ☐   Almost never ☐   About once a month ☐

About once a week ☐   Almost every day ☐   Every day ☐

14. Do you use instant messaging (for instance MSN)?
Never ☐   Almost never ☐   About once a month ☐

About once a week ☐   Almost every day ☐   Every day ☐

15. Do you use computers at school?
Never ☐   Almost never ☐   About once a month ☐

About once a week ☐   Almost every day ☐   Every day ☐

What are the main things you do on school computers?
_____
_____
_____

16. Do you think your English teacher uses the internet?
    Yes ☐   No ☐
What makes you think this? _____
_____
_____

17. Where do you use the internet the most?
    Home ☐   School ☐   Somewhere else ☐

If 'somewhere else', please say where _____
_____

18. Who has taught you the most about using the internet?
    An adult at home ☐   A brother or sister ☐   A friend ☐

    A teacher ☐   Someone else ☐

For these questions, reading includes reading online and on printed pages

1. I like to read because I always feel happy when I read things of interest to me

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

2. If the teacher discusses something interesting I might read more about it.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

3. I have favourite subjects that I like to read about.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

4. I read to learn new information about topics that interest me.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

5. I read about my hobbies to learn more about them.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

6. I like to read about new things.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

7. I enjoy reading about people in different countries.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

8. If I am reading about an interesting topic I sometimes lose track of time.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

9. I read fantasy novels and stories in books and online

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

10. I like mysteries.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

11. I make pictures in my mind when I read.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

12. I feel like I make friends with people in good books.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

13. I feel like I make friends when I am online.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

14. I like to read a lot of adventure.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

15. I enjoy a long, involved fiction book.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

For these questions, reading includes reading online and on printed pages

16. I like hard, challenging reads.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

17. If the project is interesting, I can read difficult material.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

18. I like it when the questions in books or websites make me think.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

19. I usually learn difficult things by reading.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

20. If what I am reading is interesting, I don't care how hard it is.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

---

21. I like having a teacher say I have read well.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

22. I like having my friends sometimes tell me I am a good at finding information in books or online.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

23. I like to get compliments for my reading.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

24. I am happy when someone recognises I am good at reading and finding information.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

25. I like having the people at home tell me what a good job I am doing in reading and in finding information online.

    Yes [ ]   N [ ]

---

26. Marks are a good way to see how well you are doing in reading.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

27. I look forward to finding out my English marks.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

28. I like to read and research online to improve my marks.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

29. I like the people at home to ask me about my English marks.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

---

30. I like to visit the library often with people from home.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

31. I often like to read to my brother or sister or younger children.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

32. I like to show my brother or sister or younger children things I find on the internet.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

33. My friends and I like to swap things to read.

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

For these questions, reading includes reading online and on printed pages

34. I sometimes read out to the adults at home the things I am finding.

Yes ☐   No ☐

35. I like to talk to my friends about what I am reading.

Yes ☐   No ☐

36. I like to work on the computer with other people at home.

Yes ☐   No ☐

37. I like to help my friends with their schoolwork that involves reading online and in books.

Yes ☐   No ☐

38. I like to tell the people at home about what I am reading.

Yes ☐   No ☐

39. I like to tell my friends about what I have been doing online.

Yes ☐   No ☐

40. My friends and I like to tell each other about interesting web sites to go to.

Yes ☐   No ☐

---

41. I try to get more answers right than my friends.

Yes ☐   No ☐

42. I like being the best at reading and assignments on reading.

Yes ☐   No ☐

43. I like to finish my reading before other students.

Yes ☐   No ☐

44. I like being the only one who knows an answer in something we read.

Yes ☐   No ☐

45. If there was a list of good readers in my class, it would be important for me to be on it.

Yes ☐   No ☐

46. I am willing to work hard to read better than my friends.

Yes ☐   No ☐

---

47. I always do my reading work exactly as the teacher wants it.

Yes ☐   No ☐

48. Finishing every reading assignment is very important to me.

Yes ☐   No ☐

49. I read on screen and on pages because I have to.

Yes ☐   No ☐

50. I always try to finish my reading on time.

Yes ☐   No ☐

Appendix B: Photos of the Student Diary
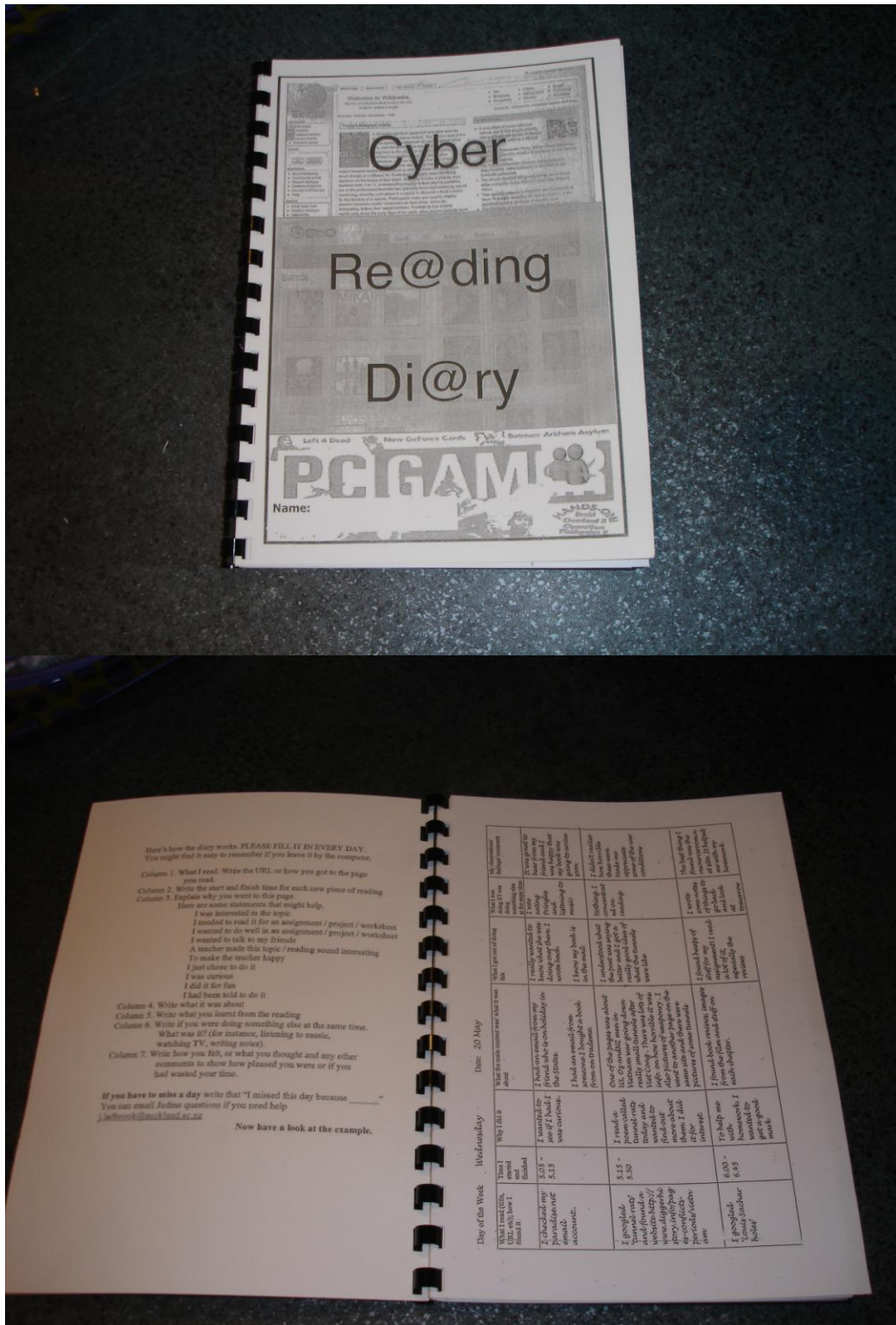
Appendix C: Excerpt from Diary Example at the Student Diary Front

Day of the Week *Wednesday*   Date: *20 May*

What I read (title, URL etc); how I found it	Time I started and finished	Why I did it	What the main content was/ what it was about	What I got out of doing this	What I was doing if I was doing something else at the same time	My observations/ feelings/ comments
I googled 'tunnel rats' and found a website http:// www.diggerhi story.info/pag es-conflicts-periods/vietn am	5.15 – 5.50	I read a poem called tunnel rats today and wanted to find out more about them. I did it for interest.	One of the pages was about US, Oz and NZ men in Vietnam war going down really small tunnels after Viet Cong . There was lots of info. on how horrible it was. Also pictures of weaponry. I went to another page on the same site and there were pictures of some tunnels	I understood what the poet was saying better and I got a really good idea of what the tunnels were like	Nothing. I concentrat ed on reading.	I didn't realise how horrible these were. Made me appreciate some of the war conditions

Appendix D: Focus Group Discussion Guide

Reading for pleasure
Tell me about what you like to read for pleasure. What is it about this that interests you?
How often do you read books? How long is one sitting? Do you read these things at school?
What do you read during SSR? Does SSR help you with reading?

Reading in English classes
What have you been reading in English this week? What do you think about the choices? What would make reading in English really interesting? What's the difference between English class reading and what you read for pleasure? When you think about reading in English, what changes would you like to see?

Using the computer
How do you find out how a programme works or how a page works? How do your teachers help you with these things? What do you mainly use the computer for? When using the computer for homework what do you mainly do?

Internet Research
I would like to know the steps/the process you take when you are going to do this. What's the first thing you do? After using a search engine, how do you choose where to look?
How do you decide if it has the information you want? What do you look for? Do you read it all?
Do you go to any other pages? If you don't find what you want, what do you do?
How do you know if information is correct? Has your teacher talked to you about this?
Once you have found information, how do you use it? How do you put it all together? Do you do anything else? Has your teacher told you what you could do?

Information skills and the teacher
How does a teacher help you find information? Tell me about a time a teacher has helped you.
How do teachers help finding information using books?

Perception of keeping reading logs and Internet as reading
Do you keep reading logs? Do you include Internet reading? Do you think of your work on the Internet as 'reading'? Do you enjoy writing logs?

Reading work avoidance: Thinking about any sort of reading (books and Internet)
What do you do if you don't understand what you find? - if the words are difficult or the material complicated? What are the differences in how you use the Internet for homework and how you use it during school time with a teacher? What technology would you like your teacher to use in lessons? Why?

Internet Safety
What does this mean? How could you be unsafe? What do you do to keep safe?
What do your parents say? What do your teachers say?

Digital Footprint
There's been quite a bit written about our digital footprints. Have you ever heard of this term? (Explain). Is there anything in this that we should be careful about?

Appendix E: Self-Efficacy Questions

Circle the number that **sounds the most like you**

- I am a good reader

  1 Very different from me
  2 A little different from me
  3 A little like me
  4 A lot like me

- I know I will do well in reading next year.

  1 Very different from me
  2 A little different from me
  3 A little like me
  4 A lot like me

- I learn more from reading than most students.

  1 Very different from me
  2 A little different from me
  3 A little like me
  4 A lot like me

- In comparison to other things I do in school work, I do best at reading.

  1 Very different from me
  2 A little different from me
  3 A little like me
  4 A lot like me

Baker and Wigfield (1999, p. 476)

SECTION A

Background information.

Name: [   ]

Please tick √ the boxes that best describe you.

1. Gender: Male ☐   Female ☐

2. Age in years: 21 – 35 ☐   36 – 45 ☐   46 – 55 ☐ over 55 ☐

3. Years teaching English 1 – 5 ☐   6 – 10 ☐   11 – 15 ☐ 16 – 20 ☐

   21 – 25 ☐   26 – 30 ☐   more than 30 years ☐

4. I did my teacher training in New Zealand   Yes ☐   No ☐

5. Most of my teaching has been in New Zealand   Yes ☐   No ☐

   If you answered 'No', what country have you taught in the most?

   _____

6. My current position is

   Assistant teacher ☐   Head of department/Unit holder ☐

   Senior management team ☐   Other ☐
                                   please specify_____

7. What are your qualifications for teaching English?
   (e.g. BA with stage 2 English; MA in English)

   _____

   _____

   _____

Please turn the page

SECTION B

1. What does 'text' mean to you when you are planning for Year 10 English lessons?

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

2. What types of texts do you think Year 10 students mainly read for pleasure out-of-school? List up to 10 main types *in the order* of how popular you think they are. Please be as specific as you can (e.g. romance novels, adventurer biographies, teen magazines, Facebook pages on the net).

Order	Types
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	
10	

What has led you to think this?

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

Please turn the page

3. What types of text do you use in the Year 10 English classroom over a year? (e.g. novel, biography, wikipedia etc). Please be specific. For instance, if you choose non-fiction text, please specify the **type** of non-fiction. Please also give a specific **example** for each type (e.g. title or author or topic etc.).

Alongside each type, use the following numbers to indicate how often you use these with Year 10 as a proportion of a year.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Once	Seldom	Some of the time	A reasonable amount of the time	Most of the time	Almost nearly always

Type	Example	Frequency

4. Below are some aims teachers have when choosing text for the Year 10 English classroom.

Use the scale of importance below to **rate** all of the aims. Put your rating in the boxes.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Not important	Slightly important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important	Extremely important

- To raise performance for school or national examinations ☐
- To engage students ☐
- To increase critical thinking ☐
- To link with students' out-of-school interests ☐
- To follow departmental policy ☐
- To explore facets of language use ☐
- To share good literature ☐
- To foster positive attitudes to reading ☐
- To expose students to other cultures and experiences ☐
- To increase information processing skills ☐

Please add any other aims you may have and rate them using the above scale.

Other aims:

- _____ ☐
- _____ ☐
- _____ ☐

Please turn the page

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5. Below is a list of page and screen texts that some students access out-of-school. Rate their usefulness, (in your opinion), as text for enhancing Year 10 literacy practices in the classroom.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Never useful	Not very useful	Somewhat/quite useful	Useful	Very useful	Extremely useful

Novels ☐

Games on screen ☐

e-zines ☐

Comics ☐

Short stories ☐

Text messages ☐

Informational web pages ☐

Poetry ☐

Play scripts ☐

Teen magazines ☐

Biography ☐

Newspapers ☐

Graphic novels ☐

Internet forums/ bulletin boards ☐

Non-fiction books ☐

Manuals ('how to' books) ☐

Blogs ☐

Webquests ☐

Email ☐

Film ☐

Interactive web pages ☐

From the texts you have rated at **4, 5** or **6**, *circle* those, (if any), you have used in the classroom in the last 12 months?

Please turn the page

6. Looking at those texts you have circled for question 6, please give an example and briefly comment on why and/or how you have used them?

Text type	Example	Why used	How used

7. Some of the Level One English Achievement Standards refer to hyperfiction in their notes. This is a change from notes that accompanied past School Certificate notes. Hyperfiction is not defined in the Achievement Standard notes. What do you understand as the meaning of this term?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

8. Have you used hyperfiction in your Year 10 English classroom?

Yes ☐ go to question 10   No ☐ go to question 11

9. **What** hyperfiction did you explore (please be as specific as you can) and what, in your opinion, was the **reaction** of the students? What were the **benefits** of doing this?

What	Reaction	Benefits

Please turn the page

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10. Below are some reasons to describe why teachers have not accessed hyperfiction?
How important is this reason to you?

1	2	3	4	5	6
Not important	Slightly important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important	Extremely important

- There's more pertinent text for my students ☐

- There's not enough time in the year to explore them ☐

- I need more personal knowledge of this text form ☐

- I haven't read any hyperfiction myself ☐

- It is hard to get on-line access in my classroom ☐

- I don't like reading on screen ☐

- It is difficult to move to another location to access computers ☐

- I need more professional development with the technology ☐

- I am not interested ☐

Please list **and** rate any other reasons you have for not accessing hyperfiction

- _____ ☐

- _____ ☐

- _____ ☐

Please turn the page

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11. Below are some terms used when discussing digital texts. Please define these terms as well as you can.

Term	Definition
e-zine	
Hypertext	
Interactive web page	
Informational web page	
Internet forum	
Blog	
Webquest	
Website	
Wiki	
Social networking site	

12. What other terms associated with digital text do you know?
Can you define any of these?

Term	Definition

13. Please list anything you know from research or experience about students' digital literacy

-
-
-
-

Please turn the page

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14. Please list anything you know from research or experience about students'
    reading motivation

*
*
*
*
*
*
*

Are there any other comments you would like to make about your choice of text for
use with Year 10 students?

Thank you for participating in this questionnaire.

School and numbers of teachers	Gender	Teacher age range	Number of years experience teaching English	Qualifications for teaching English	Position within the school
Decile 4					
7 teachers (All New Zealand trained)	3 males 4 females	3 teachers 21–35 age range 4 teachers 36–45 age range 0 teachers 46–55 age range 0 teacher over 55 age range	4 teachers of 1–5 years 1 teacher of 6–10 years 0 teachers of 11–15 years 1 teacher of 16–20 years 1 teacher of 21– 5 years 0 teachers of 26–30 years 0 teachers of more than 30	4 teachers BA majors 1 teacher BA (Hons) 2 teachers MA or higher	4 assistant teachers 3 positions of responsibility
Decile 7					
9 teachers (7 trained in New Zealand)	2 males 7 females	4 teachers 21–35 age range 2 teachers 36–45 age range 2 teachers 46–55 age range 1 teacher over 55 age range	4 teachers of 1–5 years 2 teacher of 6–10 years 1 teacher of 11–15 years 0 teachers of 16–20 years 0 teachers of 21–25 years 2 teachers of 26–30 years 0 teachers of more than 30	7 teachers BA majors 2 teachers BA (Hons) 0 teachers MA or higher	7 assistant teachers 2 positions of responsibility
Decile 10					
8 teachers (All New Zealand trained)	2 males 6 females	2 teachers 21–35 age range 3 teachers 36–45 age range 2 teachers 46–55 age range 1 teacher over 55 age range	3 teachers of 1–5 years 3 teacher of 6– 10 years 1 teacher of 11–15 years 0 teachers of 16–20 years 0 teachers of 21–25 years 0 teachers of 26–30 years 1 teacher of more than 30	2 teachers stage 2 5 teachers BA majors 0 teachers BA (Hons) 1 teacher MA or higher	6 assistant teachers 2 positions of responsibility

Appendix H: Teacher Interview Key Questions

Do you think there is any value in knowing what students read out of school?

Tell me about any opportunities students have to read material of their own choosing? Is this a worthwhile thing to give valuable class time to?

In your survey you noted that you used _____ texts. In what ways do these help student achievement?

Student survey results showed some students in this school reading _____. Were you aware of this? Is there a place in English for books like this?

Many students said they enjoyed reading and writing on social networking sites. Are these text types in your definition of useful texts for literacy teaching? What are their shortcomings? Do you think there is any place in learning for sites/texts such as these?

If there were no high-stakes assessments at Y11, would it make any difference to your Y10 text choices?

Has the rise in digital texts and ICTs changed your teaching? Changed your communication practices?

Are there any ways Internet use could support your students' learning of the curriculum?

With the rise in Web-based text there has been an increasing dominance of images and a significant change to how meaning is made using multimodal text. Is dealing with this part of an English teacher's role?

Is there any way an English teacher could help students to be more efficient and critical Internet researchers? Is this part of our role?

What are the challenges to integrating digital texts into teaching the curriculum? What are the impediments?